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ENGRAVED FOR THE BEE



The Constable J.E. of BUCHAN.

*From an authentick picture in the
Collection of the Earl of Buchan.*

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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

CONSISTING OF

ORIGINAL PIECES AND SELECTIONS FROM PERFORMANCES
OF MERIT, FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC.

A WORK CALCULATED TO DISSEMINATE USEFUL KNOWLEDGE
AMONG ALL RANKS OF PEOPLE AT A SMALL EXPENCE,

BY

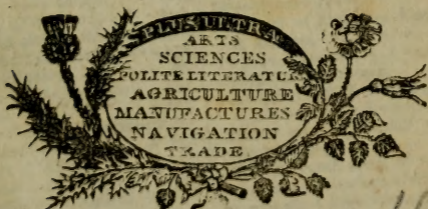
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VOLUME TENTH.

APIS MATINÆ MORE MODOQUE.

HORACE.



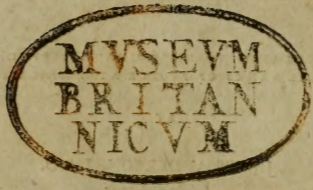
EDINBURGH:
PRINTED FOR THE EDITOR,
M, DCC, XCII.—VOL. IV.

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THE BEE

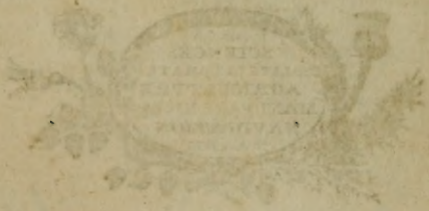
LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER

ORIGINAL PRICES AND THE TERMS OF ADVERTISING
OF MERIT FOR THE MONTH



NOVEMBER 1841

THE MUSEUM OF THE BEE



PRINTED FOR THE AUTHOR

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ERRATA.

- PAGE 48 dele the three last lines of the page.
- 105 line 9 for *thistle twine* read *thistles twine*.
- 163 line 20 for *state, dear bought,* read *state. Dear bought.*
- 242 last line for *reflection* read *reflexion*.

DIRECTIONS FOR THE BINDER.

Place the chronicle at the end before the index; and the contents next the title page. There are two signatures p. p.

PLATES.

HEAD of the earl of Buchan fronting p. 1.—The Pangolin p. 92.—View of St Bernard's well p. 136 — The armadillo p. 153.—Ruins of vitrified walls at Dun-o-deer p. 211.—Ground plan of the hill of ditto. p. 275 West and north views of ditto p. 276.—Spanish ram p. 305.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, JULY II. 1792.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE

OF

JOHN, E. OF BUCHAN, CONSTABLE OF FRANCE.

BY ALBANICUS. WITH A PORTRAIT.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

HAVING observed with wonder and regret, that, while the editors of the *Biographia Britannica* have been obtruding on the public the lives of obscure clergymen, whose most honourable situation is the shade, and whose best memorial is their parochial reputation preserved by the tradition of the people, they have omitted some of the most interesting characters that had escaped their predecessors in the former edition of the *Biographia*, I have thought it might not be improper to throw upon paper, for this respectable miscellany, the outlines of a life and character, that has been hitherto unjustly neglected by our British biographers.

JOHN STEWART, earl of Buchan, constable of France, was the eldest son of Robert, duke of Albany, by his

2 *life of John earl of Buchan.* July 17.
second wife, (Muriella or Maurielle Keith) daughter
of Sir William Keith, great marishal of Scotland.
He was born about the year 1380, and trained from
his early youth to the profesion of arms.

His father, the duke regent, gave him for his es-
tablishment the lands and lordship of Coule* ; and
from thence he was called among the people, the
brave John o' Coule. In the year 1406, he was
named one of the hostages that were to go to Eng-
land for the ransom of the earl of Douglas, who had
remained a prisoner since the battle of Shrewsbury,
in the year 1401 ; but the negotiation for the libera-
tion of Douglas having proved abortive, he, with
the other intended hostages, remained in Scotland †.

The earldom of Buchan, having been vested in the
duke of Albany, since the death of his brother Alex-
ander in the year 1394, he, upon his appointment
to the regency, conferred the lands of the earldom
on his son, John of Coule, resigning to him, at the
same time, the office of great chamberlain of the
kingdom, which the duke had held since the year
1383 ‡.

The letters patent, under the great seal, granting
this office to Stuart, design him laird, or lord, of
Buchan only ; and by the same designation only he
is named in a grant from his grandfather Sir Wil-
liam Keith, the marishal, and Margaret Fraser his
grandmother, of the lands of Touch, and sheriffship
of Stirlingshire, which sufficiently prove that the ter-

* Charter in the public archives of Scotland.

† Rymer's *Fœdera*, tom. viii. p. 429.

‡ Charter in the rolls of Robert duke of Albany.

ritory of an earldom alone, did not, at that time, convey the jurisdiction in Scotland.

In the year 1408, a charter passed the great seal; for conveying the office and jurisdiction of earl to the laird of Buchan*. The creation of an earl in Scotland gave no particular right of sitting in parliament. John Stuart sat, before his creation to the earldom, in right of his lands. The Scots, it would seem, had no idea in those days of a king creating a citizen and legislator.

The duke regent obtained likewise for his son, Buchan, the earldom of Ross, on the resignation of Euphemia, the daughter and heiress of Alexander Lesly earl of Ross, by the princess Isabella Stuart, who was the daughter of Albany by his first marriage †.

Buchan obtained possession of the earldom of Ross, and exercised its functions, as well as took the title; as appears from his charters. Donald M'Donald, lord of the Isles, descended from Somerled, thane of Argyll, disputed the validity of this transaction in right of his wife, fought the battle of Hairlaw, *anno* 1408, in defence of his pretensions, which were afterwards, by compromise with the crown, allowed to his son. The earldom of Ross was long after forfeited, and annexed to the crown; but from the lady Joanna; the second daughter of William the sixth earl, the present lord Salton is descended, and is her heir, not (as it appears) legally affected by the attainder, according to our modern doctrine of forfeiture.

* Charter in the rolls of Robert duke of Albany.

† Euphemia was sickly, deformed, and devout, and had been induced to become a nun.

In the year 1408, the earl of Buchan was named one of the hostages to go into England for the ransom of his brother the earl of Fife* ; but though a safe conduct was sent for the hostages, the transaction did not proceed. In the year 1413, he married the lady Elizabeth Douglas, daughter of Archibald, the fourth earl of Douglas, by whom he had an only daughter, who became the wife of the lord Seton, ancestor of the earls of Winton †.

In the year 1416, the duke of Albany having renewed the negotiation with England for the ransom of king James I. who had been now ten years a prisoner, in breach of the law of nations, appointed Buchan, with other great lords, to complete the treaty for his delivery; but they were forced to return to Scotland, after a short residence, without being able to bring it to an equitable conclusion.

In the beginning of the year 1419, Buchan was appointed commander in chief of the Scots auxiliaries, for supporting the right of Charles VII. while dauphin of France, to the succession to that kingdom, against the machinations of the infamous queen Isabella, and the arms of England. Under the command of the earl of Buchan, were Sir John Stuart of Darnley, Sir Robert Stuart, Archibald, earl of Wigton, son to earl Douglas, Sir Alexander Lindsay, brother to the earl of Crawford, and several other captains of distinguished bravery and reputation, with four thousand chosen veterans from the militia of Scotland, who had served under the banners of their respective

* Rymer's *Fœdera ad annum* 1408.

† Crawford, &c.

chieftans in the wars with England. These troops were landed at *Rochelle*, early in the summer of that year; and soon after proceeded to the aid of the dauphin, who had been lately deceived by the pretended reconciliation of the duke of Burgundy at *Pouilly le Fort*. A truce soon succeeded by the renewal of hostilities by Henry v.

It would exceed the limits of your journal, should I here enter into a detail of the circumstances, not less interesting in themselves than characteristic of the times, which happened at the interview between the dauphin and the duke of Burgundy at *Pouilly*, and the conference at *Montereau*, where the duke, from an accidental mistake, was cruelly assassinated. Nor would many of your readers be deeply interested in the political struggles of that kingdom at a period now so distant. It is only necessary to say that this assassination proved highly detrimental to the interests of the dauphin. It served to unite the principal cities against him, and in favours of Henry v. of England, whose son, in place of the dauphin, was acknowledged to be the presumptive heir to the crown of France, which was the cause of those unfortunate wars that rendered both countries miserable for a long time; and happily terminated at last in the total expulsion of the English from that kingdom, and a total relinquishment, on our own part, of all claims, unless it be to retain the empty title of king of France, which we still, absurdly enough, continue to adopt.

As it was in these struggles that the earl of Buchan distinguished himself, so much of the history only

shall be resumed, as is necessary to display his achievements and character.

The unhappy Charles ix. of France died on the 20th October 1422, when the dauphin, finding himself declared a public enemy by the parliament of Paris, notwithstanding the uncommon inclemency of the winter, assembled his forces, and with the aid of the Scots auxiliaries, under the command of the earl of Buchan, which had received a reinforcement from Scotland, marched them into the province of Anjou, and joined these troops to the militia, under the command of the marishal de la Fayette, the viscount of Narbonne, and other experienced officers; Tanegui de Chastel; and other confidential commanders, taking charge of the forces under the Dauphin's immediate orders at Tours.

The duke of Clarence, who commanded the forces of the king of England, after having for some time watched and counteracted the movements of the allied forces of the dauphin, resolved to attack them in their post, adjoining to Bauge. Clarence expected to surprise Buchan in his camp; and with that design drew off fifteen hundred men at arms, of the chosen strength of his army, together with about four thousand militia, leaving the earl of Salisbury to come up with the main body of the army to cover his intended attack; but Buchan having received intelligence of the approach of Clarence, received him with a good countenance and in full force. After having received the impetuous shock of Clarence's attack, he drove him back by his close and firm defence upon his rear guard, breaking through the ranks of

the English, and, after a long and obstinate conflict, gaining a decisive victory, before the main body of their army was brought up by Salisbury.

The duke of Clarence was killed in the beginning of the engagement, as it is said, by Buchan himself, who stunned and unhorsed him by a blow of his mace.

Others, with appearance of truth, assert that Buchan only struck and unhorsed the duke, and that he was killed by the laird of Swinton*. The earl of Kent, and the lords Rous and Grey, were among the slain; the earls of Huntingdon and Somerset, and the count de la Perche, were made prisoners. The whole loss of the English is estimated, by contemporary writers, at three thousand, and on the side of the dauphin at eleven hundred.

Notwithstanding this advantage, Buchan did not attack the reserve under the earl of Salisbury, being afraid, in the present situation of the dauphin's affairs, of hazarding a check which might lessen the effect of so important a victory; and therefore he prudently led his army to overawe the provinces that might otherwise afford militia to strengthen the army of the enemy. He accordingly made himself master of several considerable places, and invested the fortresses of Alençon, to the relief of which the earl of Salisbury came up, but thought it not proper to attack Buchan when his troops were flushed with victory, and possessed of a favourable situation for battle.

* Ancestor of the worthy and respectable lord Swinton, one of the lords of Session in Scotland.

On his retreat, Buchan being desirous of relinquishing the siege, when he had just struck terror on the enemy, attacked Salisbury, and, cutting off three or four hundred of his troops, penetrated into the country without the disadvantage of seeming to relinquish the siege of Alençon from motives of prudence. In this conduct Buchan seems to have exhibited the caution and foresight of a political commander, who looked to the general posture of the kingdom, and of the dauphin's affairs, rather than to the fashionable impetuosity of the times; and to have gained credit for his conduct at Verneuil, which, notwithstanding the French accounts, I believe, was for waving battle and protracting the war, rather than hazarding a general engagement with disadvantage, and my opinion is founded on this affair at Alençon.

The accounts of the victory at Baugè were received by the dauphin at Tours, who, with a view to attack the Scots, whose valour had so signally contributed to gain this advantage, bestowed the sword of constable of France, which had remained unpossessed since the death of the count d' Armagnac, on the brave earl of Buchan*; who was not long after permitted to return to Scotland, with a view to obtain another reinforcement of his brave countrymen to support the cause of France and the dauphin.

To be continued.

* L'Histoire de France par Villaret, p. 282. Mizerai, Daniel, &c.

 THE IMPROVEMENT OF SHEEP AND WOOL.

To Sir John Sinclair, bart. and the other directors and members
of the society instituted for the improvement of British wool
in Scotland.

GENTLEMEN,

IT must give pleasure to every one who has the prosperity of this country at heart, to see, that, by your means, such a general spirit has been excited in this nation, and the public attention so strongly directed towards the improvement of wool, one of the earliest and most important staple productions of this island; and it is the duty of every good man to co-operate with you in rendering these improvements as complete and as lasting as possible.

As you have invited every person to suggest whatever appears to them of utility on this momentous subject, I beg leave, in compliance with that invitation, with all possible respect, to submit the following hints to your consideration.

The attention of a great part of Europe is now directed towards you, and expectations are raised that ought not to be disappointed. It therefore behoves you to proceed with a cautious circumspection. Many important *facts* respecting this subject are hitherto unascertained; and as opinions are divided concerning them, I humbly beg leave to submit to your consideration, whether, in order to cut short the endless arguments that must occur where *opinions* are offered instead of facts, it might not be proper to

to begin with making such experiments as should effectually ascertain doubtful facts; after which we might then proceed to reason upon them with propriety.

Every gentleman in this society has had opportunities of observing the confusion that arises from different persons having adopted opinions contradictory to each other. Without, therefore, spending more time on this head, I shall proceed to mention a few of those things respecting the nature and economy of the sheep, that are still disputable; and to point out a plan by which it is probable some of them might be ascertained.

I conceive that no person can, at the present moment, give clear and satisfactory answers to the following queries, from facts that have, to his knowledge, been ascertained by clear and undeniable experiments, *viz.*

1st. What is the influence of *climate* on the fineness, and other qualities of wool?

2d. What is the effect of *food* in altering the fineness and other qualities of wool?

3d. What effect has *exercise* in these respects?

4th. What is the effect of *sex, castration, &c.* on the quality of wool and its quantity?

5th. How does *age* affect the fineness, closeness, or other qualities of the wool?

6th. Is the *size* of the animal necessarily connected with the fineness, length, softness, or other qualities of wool?

7th. Is the *fineness, elasticity*, or other qualities of the wool, necessarily connected with the hardness or delicacy of the constitution of the animal?

8th. Is the *closeness* of the pile necessarily connected with the *fineness* of the wool, or the reverse?

9th. Are *shortness of pile*, and *length of staple*, specifically different, or may they be changed without any alteration of the breed?

10th. Is *length of staple* necessarily connected with *coarseness of filament*, or *vice versa*?

11th. Is the *tendency to fatten easily*, necessarily, and invariably connected, either with *fineness of wool*, *closeness of pile*, or any other particular concerning the fleece?

12th. What is the influence of *breed* in altering the qualities of the flock, independent of all other circumstances?

These queries might be extended to a much greater length; but a few observations on the above particulars will be sufficient to illustrate my meaning, and to point out the utility of the measure I intend to propose.

1. *The influence of climate on the qualities of wool.*

While one set of persons contend that cold and rigorous climates produce coarse and *hairy* wool, another party maintain, with equal positiveness, that such rigorous climates tend to render wool of the same animal, finer and better in every respect. Which of these are right, or whether both of them may not in part be right, and in part be wrong, are points that require to be yet ascertained; and before this can be done with precision, various circumstances must be severally adverted to.

Climate, in as far as respects the present object of discussion, may be considered under three distinct

12 *improvement of sheep and wool.* July XII.
heads, *viz.* 1st. In regard to heat and cold alone.
2d. In regard to moisture and dryness *upon the whole*;
And 3d. In regard to the particular season of the
year, that any excess in respect to either of these
particulars may most prevail.

With regard to heat and cold. As this point has
been already ascertained by experiments, opinions dif-
fer perhaps less than on any other head. I believe
most persons who have reflected on this subject, are
now satisfied that heat has a natural tendency to
make the wool of sheep coarser in quality and thin-
ner in pile; and that cold, on the other hand, renders
the fleece both finer in the grain and closer in pile.
On this head, I myself have no doubt, having made
a great many experiments on this subject with the
necessary accuracy, which ascertained this point to
the entire satisfaction, not only of myself, but of every
other person who closely attended to them*. But
others may doubt of this; and to give these experi-
ments their full degree of authenticity it would be
proper that these should be repeated under the direc-
tion of this society, with a due attention to every
circumstance that can possibly affect the result. In
particular, it would be necessary to advert to the fol-
lowing circumstances, which were not under my view
at the time these experiments were made, *viz.*
first, the permanency of a change produced by climate
on the animal itself; or, second, the influence that
a temporary variation of climate may have on the

* These experiments are faithfully recorded. Observations on national industry, Letter VI. and postscript to it, to which the curious reader is referred.

fleece of its progeny. Men cannot think with too much precision on subjects of this nature, I shall therefore explain myself.

By my experiments it appears to be undeniable, that that part of every separate filament of wool which grows during the warm season of the year, is coarser than that part of the same filament which grows during cold weather; and that the variation in this respect will be proportioned to the difference between the heat of these seasons. It has also been ascertained, by many experiments made by others, that if a sheep be carried from a cold climate to one which is greatly warmer, it not only produces wool of a coarser filament than before, but it also produces a fleece much thinner in the pile than formerly. The points that I had no opportunity of ascertaining; are the following, *viz.* first, Supposing the individual animal had been kept some years in a warm climate, and then were brought back to its original climate, would it again produce a fleece after that, as fine and as close, as the same sheep would have done if it had never changed its climate? Or, would it have had its constitution so altered, as never more to produce as fine wool as before? This is what I meant above by the phrase *permanency of effect of climate on the animal itself.* Or, Secondly, supposing a breed of sheep had been carried into a warm climate from a cold one; and there allowed to procreate for several generations, without intermixture with any other breed; and should some of these descendants be again brought back to the place from whence they originally set out, would these sheep, thus brought

back to the cold climate, produce wool of the same quality as their parent breed did before the migration? or would they have been so debased by the warm climate, as that themselves, and their descendants, would continue to yield coarser wool than the parent-stock? These may, to some, appear curious questions only, that promise to be of no great practical utility; but it would be easy to show that the ascertaining these points beyond dispute would have very extensive influence on practice; and would give a steadiness to the enterprizes in which the society are engaged, that they never otherwise can attain.

In regard to wet and storminess of weather (independent of its affecting the quality of the food,) on its altering the fineness or other qualities of the wool of sheep, its effects have never, that I know of, been *experimentally* ascertained, though it is probable that these effects must be very great; perhaps little as affecting the *fineness*, but probably much more as affecting the *elasticity*, *ductility*, and *strength* of the filament. This is therefore a very important object of experimental inquiry, as, upon the result of these experiments, must be founded the propriety or the inutility of many interesting particulars respecting the management of this very useful animal. Here too it may be proper to observe, that although the improvement of *wool* is the principal object of the attention of the society, it ought not to be considered so much the case as to preclude them from making other uses of their experiments that should be incidentally connected with it. In observing, for example, the effect of variations of climate upon the *wool*, it

would be an easy matter at the same time to remark its effect on the *health and vigour* of the animal, as well as the effect that any variation of climate had in promoting or retarding its *fattening*, its *generating tallow*, the *sweetness of the flesh* produced, and other particulars.

2. *The effect of food in altering the fineness and other qualities of wool.*

On this head opinions vary still more than in respect to climate. Many persons believe, and assert, in the most decisive tone, that rich pastures, turnip, and other succulent food, tends irresistibly to debase the quality of the wool, and, in particular, to render it of a much *coarser* filament than the same sheep would otherwise have produced. Of course they infer that it is vain ever to hope to rear fine wool in the *improved* fields of Britain, and that, if we wish to have as fine wool as formerly, we must break down our inclosures, and convert the rich pastures into barren heaths once more. Others, on the contrary, maintain, and among this class I would rank myself, that it is only in rich pastures that wool of the *best quality* can ever be obtained, and that fine pastures do not (independent of other circumstances) render the wool either *coarser* or *finer* in the filament, than it otherwise would have been. Without changing the fineness of the filament, I think there is good reason to believe that abundance of rich and succulent food renders the wool softer, stronger, tougher, and probably somewhat longer also, than it would have been on barer pastures. So long, however, as these opposite opinions shall rest upon particular observations of individuals only,

who may be very inaccurate, there is no end of wrangling; and those who have not been able to make observations themselves, must range themselves on the side that accident or inclination may lead them to espouse. A few experiments accurately made, and fairly recorded, would for ever settle this point, so as to enable mankind to reason justly with regard to it ever afterwards.

3. *Exercise, what effect it has upon the quality of the wool.*

Under this head I would include management in general, folding, housing, laying, &c. Experiments on this head have been made in France; but not in such a way as to prove entirely decisive. It is alleged that sheep are kept perpetually in the open air, which afford the finest wool. The fact, however, is controverted by some; so that here experiments are still wanting. As to the effect of laying with tar, in particular, many experiments have been made that are sufficiently decisive, were they all known; but as others may be proposed, which every individual could make for himself at little or no trouble or expence, perhaps the most effectual way to settle this point would be for the society to digest a proper plan for conducting these experiments, and publish it for the information of all concerned.

The same may be said with respect to the 4th and 5th objects of inquiry.

6. *Connection between the size of the animal and fineness of the wool.*

Prejudice has been forward in deciding this question without experiment. It is in general very confident-

ly asserted by many, that large sheep, that carry much wool, necessarily afford it only of a coarse quality, and that fine wool can be expected from small sheep alone. This, however, I venture to assert, from abundant experience, is not true. I have had large sheep that afforded very fine wool, and exceeding small ones that produced wool as coarse as goats hair. It is easy to find examples of the reverse of this. A judicious set of experiments, therefore, which should set this matter in its *true* light would prove highly useful to the inquiry in which we are engaged.

To be concluded in our next.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE POORS RATES.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

IN your review of Sir John Sinclair's statistics (Bee vol.iii. No. 9.) there is an account of the poor of Dun-nichan the population of which is 872, being supported, and a great surplus saved of L. 20 a year, and this is brought as a proof that the maintenance of the poor may be safely left to voluntary donations. If the poor of the parish above named be sufficiently clothed and fed, it affords this proof indeed perfectly valid. I shall state the amount of the annual expenditure of the poor of the parish of Wigton in Cumberland, where the poor laws of England are enforced, to be compared with that of Dunichen. The population of the parish of Wigton may be set at 3500, or betwixt that number and 4000, and the average expenditure on the poor is upwards of L. 500. It must be remarked, that this part of Cumberland is a place where provisions are cheap; and it is believed, the

poor rates are much more heavy in the south of England. Is it not of such importance as that commissioners should be appointed to examine whether the poor of Scotland or England are better fed; and so to shew to what this great inequality in the provisions for them is to be ascribed? Your most obedient servant,

Wigton May, 8. 1792.

A. ROBINSON.

To the above I beg leave to add the following account of a case respecting *poors rates*, extracted from the annals of agriculture, by Arthur Young esq; with the remarks of Mr Young upon it, as it shows in a still stronger light than the above, the baneful effects of the poor laws in England.

DEAR SIR, *To Arthur Young esq.*

“ Agreeable to your request, I have sent you extracts from the rate book and register of the parish of Glemsford, from the year 1772 to 1790 inclusive. I forbear to comment on the last four years; I shall only observe, that in the first seven years of the period above mentioned, a worthy magistrate, now no more (who was then resident in the parish,) gave unremitting attention to all the minutiae of parochial business; and that from 1788 there has been no *justice* nearer than four miles from the scene of action.”

Extracts from the register and rate book of the parish of Glemsford in the county of Suffolk.

Years.	Baptisms.	Burials.	Rates collected for the relief of the poor.			
			L.	s.	d.	f.
1772	35	44	678	5	8	2
1773	32	29	590	16	6	2
1774	29	15	404	5	8	2
1775	39	25	343	14	5	2
1776	39	31	456	7	4	2

1792.

on poor's rates.

19

Years.	Baptisms.	Burials.	Rates collected for the relief of the poor.			
			L.	s.	d.	⁄ ₄ .
1777	32	30	482	18	3	0
1778	46	40	516	16	8	2
1779	46	35	610	3	5	2
1780	37	46	482	11	10	2
1781	31	40	549	16	8	0
1782	48	57	645	7	11	2
1783	53	36	586	3	6	2
1784	51	41	496	5	4	0
1785	66	29	570	11	4	2
1786	46	22	607	17	6	0
1787	73	50	783	8	6	0
1788	48	47	948	11	4	2
1789	38	34	1039	6	4	0
1790	61	35	1062	6	4	2

“ It is necessary to observe, in these extracts, that the register of baptisms and burials begins January 1st, and ends December 31st in every year; and that the rate book includes all the sums collected annually for the relief of the poor, from Easter to Easter. The parish contains about 2400* acres, and is rated at about L. 1800 a-year. It possesses L. 40 a-year in estate or rent charge for the use of the poor.”

Your's sincerely,

WILLIAM BUTTS.

Observations on the above by Mr Young.

THE public are much obliged to this gentleman for bringing before their tribunal so amazing an instance of enormity in the rise of rates as this account exhibits. The table of deaths does not allow us to attribute this effect to any uncommon fatality of distemper; nor does the column of births allow any conclusion that it arises from a great increase of population. We know that it could not proceed from

* N. B. This amounts to 9s. per acre nearly; and including the L. 40 mentioned below, it amounts to 10s. per acre.

any rise in the price of provisions. To what then is so truly alarming an increase of the public burdens to be attributed? Clearly to those abuses in parochial management, that flow from the gross absurdity of our system of poor laws, which give, or at least allow, to evils of this complexion, so generative a faculty, that here is a rise of L. 276, in three years, apparently for no better reason, than there having been a similar rise of L. 287, in three preceding years: That abuse was submitted to, and *therefore* produced the new one; and if this is allowed, doubtless the next period will experience a yet greater one. Whether paupers receive such sums, or whether parish officers eat, drink, or otherwise absorb them, is not for me to enquire; the evil is the same in either case, and will equally generate increase.

‘ But what are we to think of a legislature and system of government which tolerate such abuses? which, by giving to parish officers, and justices of the peace, (and seemingly in this case to parish officers alone,) an unlimited power of taxation, allows, and sanctions such abominable tyranny as this account exhibits! Doubtless there are little farmers in this parish, who are heavily and cruelly burdened, either to support sturdy beggars, who can, but will not work, and who are richer in fact than themselves; or to contribute to the illicit profits of men, who thrive by abuses thus tolerated by the legislature of a country that calls itself free.’

A. Y.

Additional observations by the Editor.

THE amazing amount of the poors rates in England, and their continued rise, afford the most serious alarm to every thinking person in that king-

dom*. The misfortune is, that great as the sums collected for the poor are, the complaints of the deficiency of the *poors funds*, and the necessity of augmenting them still farther, is as great as ever it was. The truth is, that, under the operation of these laws, the honest and industrious are pillaged, and the idle and abandoned part of the community encouraged to practise vice and prodigal dissipation. No wonder then if the late chancellor (Thurlow,) when he heard of an application that was intended to be made by the magistrates of a city in Scotland, for a power to assess the people with a *poors rate*, should ask with some kind of surprise, "If the people of Scotland were gone mad!" For he thought that nothing but insanity could induce any body of men, having the example of England before their eyes, to wish to load themselves with such an oppressive burden as the *poors rate*. Happy it is for Scotland that no poor rate can be legally imposed on its inhabitants without a *new act of parliament* for the purpose †; and happier

* By accounts laid before parliament in the year 1786, it appeared that the *poors rates* in England, *anno* 1776, amounted on the whole to

L. 1,527,780.

And in the year 1786, they were no less than - - - - 2,284,904

L. 755,124

So that in the course of *nine years* only, the *poors rates* in England had arisen seven hundred and fifty-five thousand one hundred and twenty-four pounds *per annum*. At the same rate of increase, the *poors rates* in half a century would greatly exceed the whole land rents of England. The *poors rates* in Wales were more than *doubled* in these nine years.

The reader will observe that great as these sums are, it is only a *part* of the funds allotted to the support of the poor in England; as all monies *mortified* for charitable purposes, or other charitable funds, are not included in it. These additional funds, by a late account given in to parliament, equal the *poors rates* nearly.

† Many persons will think I here speak rashly. It is however said with due consideration; as I hope to be able to prove to the satisfaction of the reader at some future period.

still is it for her, that, from an experience of near two hundred years, she finds, that, under a wise and simple mode of economy, which she has discovered in the management of the poor, she is able, by voluntary contributions alone, to support her poor as well as the state of the case requires, without having recourse to any legal compulsitor.

The *poors laws* in England may furnish one of the most satisfactory lessons in political economy that can be any where met with. Nothing could be more deserving the applause of men than the *principle* which suggested these regulations. Justice and benevolence, humanity and prudence, seemed for once to have been united in lending their aid to this institution. No evil that could be foreseen was not carefully guarded against; and the framers of these laws exulted in the thought that they had attained to a perfection in beneficent legislation, that had never before been experienced on the globe. Wisdom and humanity triumphed over niggardly parsimony, and churlish selfishness; such was the idea universally entertained of this important political regulation by all the thinking part of mankind, when new adopted. Not a dissenting voice was to be heard, and universal satisfaction resounded through the whole land. How circumscribed is the wisdom of man! How miserably different have been the *real* effects, from what were *expected* to result from this regulation!—men were not more unanimous *then* in praise of it, than they *now* are in condemning it. What appeared *in prospect* so infinitely attractive, has proved in *reality* inconceivably destructive. It will be well if this striking example of the fallacy of relying on *speculative principles*, in regulating the *practical concerns* of

man, should teach him, in similar cases, to listen to the critical improvements with diffidence and caution, however plausible. It is *practice*, only, which can ascertain what will be hurtful or beneficial in regulations that are to affect the community at large.

In regard to the case in question, it has been found, that, to guard against abuses in the execution of the poor laws, has been impossible; though, to protect the rights of individuals, in a country where ideas of liberty prevail, it has been necessary to multiply regulations to such a degree as to occasion an intricacy that cannot be unravelled. There are about twenty statutes, and 2000 cases, regulating the various methods by which a legal establishment can be obtained in a parish *, and many of these cases, and others, respecting the poor's laws, are so nearly alike, that it is often the subject of a tedious law suit to discover whether or not a particular regulation applies to the subject in dispute.

In proportion as our rights come to be more accurately defined, this class of evils must be augmented; so that it is easy to see that a time will arrive, when this unweildy fabric, from a vain attempt to render it perfect, must become a source of intolerable oppression. It *begins* to be already felt; but the evils, as yet experienced, are nothing to what is to be expected.

Once more, then, I repeat it, Scotland may deem herself singularly happy in being freed from this grievous political malady; and, being free, it becomes the duty of every well-wisher of his country to watch

* For this fact I am indebted to a sensible writer in the *St James's Chronicle* for June 16. 1792.

over that freedom with the most jealous attention; and, *under no pretext whatever*, to suffer this most intolerable abuse to creep in among us. I am proud in being able to say, that, as a private citizen, I have, in *one* instance, successfully opposed it, and preserved a very extensive parish from being heedlessly subjected to this burden; nor shall I cease in a public capacity, to take every proper opportunity of warning my countrymen of the danger they run of total ruin, should they ever allow themselves to be loaded with a *poors rate*. I have promised an explanation of our poor laws in Scotland; and I now again repeat the promise, when opportunity shall permit, which I trust will be ere long. I consider this task as necessary, not only to remove many ill founded prejudices that have begun to prevail respecting the *legality* of establishing compulsory *poors rates* in Scotland; but also to explain to those of other nations the very salutary tendency of that judicious mode of managing the poor, which has been discovered by a people, among whom luxury had not been introduced, nor those vices known which tend to contaminate the manners and corrupt the hearts of men in the bustling departments of a manufacturing society. It was among a people whose manners were simple, that this easy, economical, and efficacious, mode of providing for the poor was devised; and which, after an experience of two hundred years, has been found to be perfectly adequate to the purposes intended. A system, which being founded on Christian charity alone, by its natural operation, tends to promote a cordial good will and kindness between different ranks of men, and without legal intricacies to promote the good of the whole.

THE LOTTERY. A TALE FOR THE LADIES.

For the Bee.

Dum splendeat—frangitur.

WHILE Fancy in her brain's recess,
 Draws out the plan of happiness,
 And Hope, with many a winning smile,
 Uprears the visionary pile,
 Ah me! that fate, with envious frown,
 Should hurl the airy fabric down.
 How oft our fav'rite projects are
 Oe'rturn'd, in spite of all our care!
 This story, unexaggerated,
 Will partly tell ye when related :—
 A gentle nymph whose madding veins,
 Were fill'd with warm and sanguine streams;
 That ran much higher than her means,
 And fill'd her head with airy schemes;
 Contriv'd in *Goodluck's* grand affair,
 With other friends to get a share.
 Not all the arts she yet had tried
 To gratify her soaring pride;
 Not all her schemes of mortal bliss,
 Had mov'd her hopes and fears like this;
 Nor, so impatient, for the day
 That crowns the cares of long delay
 The lover waits, in anxious doubt,
 As Laura for the time, I trow,
 When the huge wondrous wheel turns out
 Its prizes and its blanks a' so.
 At length came on in proper place,
 The day which must decide her case:
 "At last, ye gods! the hour is come,
 (She cries) which marks my future doom;
 Whether aloft to fame I go,
 Or here remain in *statu quo*;
 Whether in majestic state,
 I smile at all the frowns of fate;
 Or here debas'd I sigh in vain,
 To soar above the vulgar train.
 But hence! such soul-tormenting care,
 And ev'ry shadow of despair;
 The heart from fortune meets denial,
 That meanly shrinks before the trial;

But native pride and genuine merit,
 E'er shows a brave and daring spirit
 O gentle Hope 'tis thou that cheers
 My mind from all its doubts and fears;
 'Tis thou that in a golden dream,
 Didst kindly prompt my fav'rite scheme;
 'Twas then, methought, I heard thee say,
 ' Let ambition fire thy mind;
 Thy soul so great, thy form so gay,
 Were not for humble ranks design'd:
 For thee the partial hand of fate,
 Will soon prepare a nobler state;
 For thee the lofty dome shall rise,
 And proudly scale the vaulted skies;
 For thee the coach shall scour along,
 And servants wait,—a num'rous throng!
 For thee shall troops of lovers sigh,
 And from the lustre of thine eye
 Delicious poison drink, and feel
 'A fest'ring wound which nought can heal,
 Except thy love created smile,
 Which only dimples to beguile:
 Then dare to scorn thy humble sphere,
 And nobly spurn it with disdain;
 While the mean cringing soul shall fear,
 And proud ones envy you in vain.'

 'Ye gods! O extacy divine!
 And shall these honours then be mine?
 'They must! they must!—and here I swear,
 'Ten silver altars will I rear;
 And yearly, on each polish'd head,
 Arabic odours will I shed
 In honour of——But hark! I hear
 The post-boy!—Welcome! doubly dear!
 Here! here the packets bring, she said,
 And eagerly the sheets outspread;
 When ah! the gods,—O tale of woe!
 Receive a curse, instead of thanks;
 And Laura's vision breaks.—For lo!
 At once the prizes all prove——BLANKS!

Henceforward, O ye gentle fair,
 To prudence be your minds attach'd;
 Of Fancy's airy dreams beware,
 Nor count your chickens ere they're hatch'd.

CHARACTERISTICAL ANECDOTES OF LA FONTAINE.

IT is natural for those who read the works of men of genius, to think that the writers of these excellent performances should be endowed with talents, in every respect superior to the common run of mankind: Nothing can be more delusive than such expectations. Man is an imperfect creature, and though heaven sometimes confers upon individuals, talents of a certain kind, in a super-eminent degree, it is seldom that any one man possesses a great variety of talents in unusual perfection. It oftener happens that men who are endowed with the singular faculty of excelling in one kind of composition, are remarkably deficient in other respects. It would seem that when a man's mind is so totally engrossed with one object, as to enable him to carry that particular object of pursuit to an extraordinary degree of perfection, it was necessarily abstracted from others; so that it often happens that the faculty called common sense, which is that of deliberately comparing with one another the objects that occur in common life, and drawing just inferences from them, for regulating the ordinary transactions of life, seems to be entirely obliterated in these men.

La Fontaine, the celebrated fabulist in France, affords a remarkable illustration of the truth of this remark. Every person in the least versant in French literature is acquainted with the writings of this author, which possess, in an unequalled degree, an ease, an elegance, a natural unaffected simplicity, both in thought and expression, that other writers have in vain attempted to imitate. Yet this man, though endowed with the singular faculty of writing in a manner that no other person has yet been able to attain, was so remarkably deficient in the article

of common sense, that, in the ordinary transactions of life, he was scarcely to be distinguished from an idiot. The following anecdotes of this singular genius, can scarcely prove uninteresting to any one who wishes to become acquainted with the human character.

Jean de la Fontaine, a French poet, was born at Chateau Thiery in 1621, died at Paris in 1695, aged 74 years.

Fontaine lived in a sort of apathy, and a decided indifference for every thing that forms the objects of the pursuit of most men. This system of conduct would have done honour to his philosophy, if reflection had occasioned it; but it was in him a gift of nature. He was born gentle and easy, without pride, incapable of hatred, and free from the passions which tyrannise over the soul. Happy would society be if it were only composed of men like him! there would neither be troubles nor divisions. It is true he did not add to the pleasures of society. Those who saw him, without knowing him, had no other idea of him than of a man who was both disagreeable and very tiresome. He spoke little, and unless they spoke of something that was to his liking, he remained in a stupid silence, which one would have taken for an indication of idiotism. If he told a tale, he told it ill; and that author who had written stories so natural and so lively, interested nobody when he related one. There are other examples which prove that with much wit, and a variety of talents, one may not have the talent of conversation.

A farmer general had invited *la Fontaine* to dine with him, in the persuasion that an author whose tales all the world admired, could not fail to be amusing in society. *Fontaine* ate, spoke none, and rose very soon, under pretext of going to the academy. They told him it was not yet time. *I know it*, replied he, *so I shall take the longer time.*

Although every kind of confinement was contrary to the taste of Fontaine, he allowed himself however to marry; but he only determined on it in complaisance to his relations. They made him espouse Mary Hericard, daughter of a lieutenant general *de la Ferte-Milon*. This lady had wit and beauty, but her difficult humour had driven away her husband, who was come to Paris to live in his own way. He had perhaps totally forgotten her, when he was persuaded to go to his province, to see his wife and be reconciled to her. He set out, in consequence, from Paris in the public stage, arrived at his house, and asked for his wife. The servant, who did not know him, told him that his mistress was at evening prayers. Fontaine went directly to the house of a friend, who gave him supper and a bed, and kept him for two days; when the coach was ready to return to Paris, Fontaine got into it, and thought no more of his wife. When his friends of Paris saw him return, they asked him news of his reconciliation; *I went to see my wife, said he, but I did not find her; she was at prayers.*

There never was a man who believed what was told him so easily: Witness his adventure with a captain of dragoons named Poignan. This officer used to be often in the house of Fontaine, and was particularly pleased with the conversation of his wife, whose society was very agreeable. Poignan was neither of an age, humour, nor figure, to disturb the peace of a husband. However, people told stories of him to Fontaine, and told him he was dishonoured if he did not fight the captain. Struck with that idea, he got up very early in the morning, goes to the house of his man, wakens him, bids him dress and follow him. Poignan, who did not know what all this meant, went out with him. They arrived at a remote corner, out of the city: *I wish to fight with you—I have been advised to it, said Fon-*

Fontaine; and after having explained the reasons of it to him in a few words, he drew his sword without waiting the answer of Poignan, who put himself on the defensive. The combat was not long, Poignan disarmed him at the first. Fontaine was satisfied. Poignan conducted him home, and they were reconciled at breakfast.

Fontaine had a son whom he kept very short time with him. He put him at fourteen years of age into the hands of M. de Harlay, since first president, and recommended to him his education, and his fortune. It is said that Fontaine went one day to a house where this son was, whom he had not seen for a long time. He did not know him, and told the company, however, that he thought he had wit and taste. When he was told it was his son, he answered calmly: Ah! I am very glad of it.

Another anecdote about Fontaine may still serve to prove that every man who applies himself to study through taste, lives in a manner insulated in the midst of the world. Hence these natural and inattentive answers which so often furnish people of middling talents with pretexts to ridicule genius. Fontaine had received an invitation to go to the burial of a person of his acquaintance. Some time afterwards he went to dine with that same person. The porter told him that his master was dead eight days ago: Ah! replied he, *I did not think that it had been so long.*

Rabelais, whom Despreaux called *reason in a mask*, was always the idol of Fontaine. He was the only author whom he admired without reserve. He was one day at Despreaux's house with Racine, Boileau, and several other persons of distinguished merit. They there spoke a good deal about St Augustine, and his works. Fontaine did not join in the conversation, but kept the most stupid like silence. At last he awakened, as from a most profound sleep, and asked, in a very serious manner, of the abbé

Boileau, if he thought St Augustine had as much wit as Rabelais, so natural and so amusing? The doctor, looking at him from head to foot, told him, for answer, *Take care M. de la Fontaine;—you have put one of your stockings outside in;* which was the case.

Mr Racine carried him on the holy week to a Tenebres, and perceiving that the office appeared long to him, he gave him, to amuse him, a volume of the Bible, which contained the prophets. He read the prayer of the Jews in Baruch; and not being able to satisfy himself admiring it, he said to Racine, *Baruch was a fine genius! Who was he?* Next day, and several days afterwards, when he met any body of his acquaintance in the street, after the ordinary compliments, he raised his voice to say, 'Have you read Baruch? He was a great genius*!'

The author of these memoirs, M. Racine the son, says that Fontaine, after having consumed his fortune, preserved always his disinterestedness. He entered the French academy one day, and the bar being drawn below the names, he could not, according to established custom, have any share in the medals of that sitting. The academicians, who all loved him, said unanimously, that they ought to make an exception of the rule in his favour: 'No, gentlemen, said he, that would not be just; I am come too late, that is my fault.' Which was so much the more remarked, that a moment before, an academician, extremely rich, and who, living in the Louvre, had only the trouble of coming down stairs to get to the academy, had half opened the door, and having seen that he was too late, had shut the door, and gone up again.

Fontaine preferred the fables of the ancients to his own, which made M. de Fontenelle say, *la Fontaine is foolish enough to think that the ancients had more wit than him-*

* Memoirs of Jean Racine.

self, a phrase, says la M^ote, which expresses finely the character of a superiour genius, who does not know himself, for want of examining himself with enough of attention. On reading the fables of this author, one remarks such a native ease, that we would think they had fallen from his pen, which made *madame de la Sabliere* call him a *fablier*, as they call the tree that carries apples *poonnier*. This superiour woman, with whom he lodged, said one day, after having dismissed her servants, 'I have only kept with me my three animals, my dog, my cat, and my Fontaine.'

Racine and Despreaux called him the *goodman*, although they knew all his worth in other respects. At a supper at Moliere's house, where was also Descoteaux the famous player on the flute, the *goodman* appeared to dream more than ordinary. Despreaux and Racine endeavoured in vain to awaken him by lively sallies. They even pushed the raillery so far, that Moliere thought they were going beyond bounds; at leaving the table, he took Descoteaux aside into the embrasure of a window, and talking to him in the freedom of his heart: "It is in vain, said he, that our *beaux esprits* make a bustle; they will not efface the *goodman*."

That poet lived in an extreme indifference with respect to religious, as well as other matters; but having fallen ill he set about reading the New Testament. Charmed with that reading, he said to father Poujet, of the oratoire, his director, 'I assure you the New Testament is a very good book; yes, in truth, it is a very good book; but there is one article concerning which I am not altogether reconciled, it is that of the eternity of punishment; I do not comprehend how that eternity can be consistent with the goodness of God.'

Some time before, one of his friends, who undoubtedly had his conversion very much at heart, had lent him his St Paul. Fontaine read it with avidity; but shocked at the apparent harshness of the writings of the apostle, he shut the book, sent it back to his friend, and said to him, 'I send you back your book; this same St Paul is not my man.'

One of his confessors seeing him taken dangerously ill, exhorted him at least to make amends for the scandal of his life by giving alms. 'I cannot, said the poet. I have nothing; but they are making a new edition of my works, and the bookseller is to make me a present of an hundred copies, I give them to you; you will cause them to be sold for the benefit of the poor.' Don Jerome, who told this anecdote, declared that the confessor, almost as simple as the penitent, came to ask if he could receive such an alms?

Still one other trait which proves the simplicity of manners of this illustrious man, and the idea which those who served him had of him. The sick-nurse who was beside him, seeing with what zeal they exhorted him to penitence, said one day to Mr Poujet, *Don't torment him so much; he is more foolish than wicked. God will never have, said she another time, the heart to damn him.*

In spite of the apparent apathy of la Fontaine, when he was wakened out of his dreams, and when he was interested in the conversation, he shewed as much heat and spirit, as those who used to make him the object of their railery.

After his death, his wife having been troubled for the payment of some public charges, M. d'Armenonville then intendant de Soissons, wrote to his deputy, that the fami-

ly of la Fontaine ought to be exempt for the future of all taxes and imposts; all the intendants of Soissons have since made it an honour to confirm that favour.

THE PETITION OF THE SHARKS OF AFRICA.

The following *jeu d'esprit* deserves to be preserved, both on account of the delicacy of the satire it conveys, and the elegance of its composition.

For the sake of our foreign readers, it may be proper briefly to mention, that, for more than three years past, the abolition of the slave trade, carried on from the coast of Africa to the West India islands, by British subjects, has been warmly agitated in the parliament of Britain: That a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to examine witnesses on that head, who having sat long, during two successive sessions of parliament, and collected a great body of evidence, the same was printed for the information of the members. But as this consisted of a large volume in folio, an abridgement of the whole was made and printed, also for the use of the members. Several abridgements of this abridgement were afterwards made and published. These were sent through every part of the nation; and the people, in general, having read these publications, warmly espoused the part of the abolition. Petitions were presented to parliament from almost every description of men in the kingdom, praying that this traffic, which they deemed a disgrace to humanity, and a reproach to the name of Christians, might be abolished. The House of Commons having taken these petitions into consideration, came, in a committee of the whole house, during the present session of parliament, to a resolution, that the slave trade was improper to be continued, but that, on account of certain considerations of *expediency*, it ought only to be gradually abolished. A law to this effect was passed, permitting the trade, under certain limitations, to be carried on till the 1st of January 1796, after which time it should be totally prohibited. When this bill was carried to the House of Peers, they found it was not consistent with the dignity of that house to admit of any evidence that had not been taken at their own bar; and of course they went once more into the examination of witnesses; and as this examination could not be closed during the present session of parliament, the bill is necessarily lost for the present year. The allusions to these circumstances in this little performance will be easily perceived by every reader.

SHEWETH,

“ THAT your petitioners are a numerous body, and at present in a very flourishing situation, owing chiefly to the constant visitation of the shipping of your island.

“ That by hovering round these floating dungeons your petitioners are supplied with large quantities of their most favourite food—human flesh.”

“ That your petitioners are sustained, not only by the carcasses of those who have fallen by distempers, but are frequently gratified with rich repasts from the bodies of living negroes, who voluntarily plunge into the abodes of your petitioners, preferring instant destruction by their jaws, to the imaginary horrors of a lingering slavery.

“ That among the enormous breakers and surfs which roll on the shores of your petitioners, numbers of English boats are destroyed, the crews of which usually fall to their lot, and afford them many a delicious meal; but, above all, that large vessels, crowded with negroes, are sometimes dashed on the rocks and shoals, which abound in the regions of your petitioners, whereby hundreds of human beings, both black and white, are at once precipitated into their element, where the gnawing of human flesh, and the crashing of bones, afford to your petitioners the highest gratification which their natures are capable of enjoying.

“ Thus benefited, as your petitioners are, by this widely extended traffic, a traffic which has never before been molested, it is with the utmost indignation they hear that there are in Britain, men who, under the specious plea of humanity, are endeavouring to accomplish its abolition.—But your petitioners trust that this attempt at innovation, this flourishing of the trumpet of liberty, by which “ more is meant than meets the ear,” will be effectually frustrated.

“ Should the lower branch of the legislature be so far infatuated by this new-fangled humanity, as seriously to

meditate the destruction of this beneficial commerce, your petitioners have the firmest reliance on the wisdom and fellow-feelings of the lords spiritual and temporal of Great Britain.

“Your petitioners know, that the truly benevolent will ever be consistent,—that they will not sacrifice one part of animated nature to the preservation of another,—that they will not suffer sharks to starve, in order that negroes may be happy;—yet your petitioners are apprehensive, that the baleful influence of this philanthropic mania is already felt even within the walls of your lordships, wherefore they crave to be HEARD BY COUNSEL, at the bar of your august assembly, when, notwithstanding the wild ravings of fanaticism, they hope to evince, that the sustenance of sharks, and the best interests of your lordships, are intimately connected with the traffic in human flesh.

“Fearful of becoming tedious, your petitioners have only to add, that, should the abolition take place, which the god of sharks avert! the prosperity of your petitioners will inevitably be destroyed, and their numbers, by being deprived of their accustomed food, rapidly diminished.—But, on the other hand, should your lordships, in your legislative capacity, scorn the feelings of the vulgar, and nobly interfere, either openly, or by procrastination, to preserve this invigorating trade from the ruin that now seems to await it, your petitioners, and their wide-mouthed posterity, as by nature urged, will ever, ever PREY, &c.”

EXTRACTS FROM COXE'S TRAVELS.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

I took the following extracts from Coxe's travels into Poland, Russia, &c. they may perhaps recommend themselves to a place in your miscellany.

“ The first Polish noble who granted freedom to his peasants, was Zamoiski, formerly great chancellor, who, in 1760, enfranchised six villages in the palatinate of Masovia. These villages were, in 1777, visited by the author of the patriotic letters, from whom I received the following information. ‘ On inspecting the parish registers of births from 1758 to 1768 *, that is, during the ten years of slavery, immediately preceding their enfranchisement, he found the number of births 434, in the first ten years of their freedom, from 1760 to 1770, 620, and from 1770 to the beginning of 1777, 585.’ Upon signing the deed of enfranchisement of the six villages, their benevolent master intimated some apprehensions to the inhabitants, that, encouraged by their freedom, they should fall into every species of licentiousness, and commit more disorders than when they were slaves. The simplicity of their answer is remarkable. ‘ When we had no other property,’ returned they, ‘ than the stick which we held in our hands, we were destitute of all encouragement to a right conduct, and, having nothing to lose, acted on all occasions in an inconsiderate manner; but as soon as our houses, our lands, and our cattle are our own, the fear of forfeiting them will be a constant restraint upon our actions.’

“ The sincerity of this assertion was manifested by the event. While they were in a state of servitude, Zamoiski was occasionally obliged to pay fines for disorders committed by his peasants, who, in a state of drunkenness, would attack and sometimes kill passengers; since their freedom he has seldom received any complaints of this sort against them. Zamoiski, pleased with the thriving state of the six villages, has enfranchised the peasants on all his estates.”

Our author says, Zamoiski's example has been followed by another nobleman, and a clergyman, with similar success.

* I suppose this should be from 1748 to 1758.

“ Prince Stanislaus,” proceeds our author, “ nephew to the king of Poland, has warmly patronised this plan, and has enfranchised four villages, not far from Warsaw, in which he has not only emancipated the peasants from their slavery, but even condescends to direct their affairs. He explained to me, in the most satisfactory manner, that the grant of freedom was no less advantageous to the lord*, than to the peasants, provided the former is willing to superintend their conduct for a few years, and to put them in a way of acting for themselves; for such is the ignorance among the generality of the boors arising from the abject slavery in which they are held, and so little have they been usually left to their own discretion, that few at first are equal to the proper management of a farm. From a conviction of these facts, the prince—— continues his attention to their concerns; he visits their cottages, suggests improvements in agriculture, instructs them in the mode of rearing cattle and bees, and points out the errors into which ignorance and incapacity occasionally betray them.”

This leads us to reflect how great an enemy slavery is to the safety and happiness of mankind, (as well those who tyrannise, as those who are the objects of tyranny,) as well as to the improvement of the human mind. These persons are certainly highly deserving of esteem, who, deviating from the general practice of any country, and breaking the fetters of education and prejudice, set the example of delivering from bondage any of the human race.

* Perhaps such arguments as this, in the mouth of his uncle, the eloquent Stanislaus Augustus, his present majesty, induced a diet consisting of Polish nobility, to admit the third estate to privileges, formerly enjoyed only by the former; and thus effected the present wonderful happy revolution.

It is at once the honour and interest of all in such circumstances to imitate such an example*.

It would certainly be no dishonour to our nobility and gentry, during the intervals of public business, to imitate the example of this truly great and amiable prince. From the above extract, it is evident that licentiousness is not the necessary effect of a transition from slavery to freedom. This depends on the manner in which the change is effected. If slaves acquire their freedom by dint of power, they naturally revenge themselves on those who deprived them of that which they have a right to,—freedom. But if liberty is given to them voluntarily, by those who might have continued their bondage, they, feeling the happy effects of freedom, will look up with veneration to their deliverer, will make his interest their's, and will sacrifice much to defend him.

A FRIEND TO LIBERTY †.

* I would not be understood as an advocate for the *immediate* emancipation of our slaves in the West Indies. I confess, I wish for it as soon as prudence will admit. Giving them their freedom in a *proper manner* is no way dangerous.

† However much I may applaud the beneficent spirit of this correspondent, or however much I may be satisfied of the general principle that freedom, under a proper government, is the best means of ensuring propriety of moral conduct, as well as exertions of industry; yet I fear more circumstances require to be adverted to than he seems to be aware of, to guard against the delirium that must in general accompany a direct emancipation. Like men in the lowest ranks of life, and in the most abject poverty, who at once obtain possession of immens. wealth, and who, in general, squander it in the most extravagant and absurd species of dissipation, it is to be feared, that something of the same kind would be felt on the event of an abrupt emancipation. To render it a real blessing to the persons who are intended to be benefited by it, it certainly ought to be very gradual indeed. The example of the boors in Poland, if Mr Coxe's information can be relied upon, is the most striking thing of the kind I have met with. Indeed the whole of the political events that have of late taken place in Poland, appear to me the most extraordinary of any that have ever appeared in the world, and I shall wait for an explanation of the *rationale* of these with great impatience. The revolution in France is comparatively nothing to it.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE sensible remarks on taxation, from *Trader Political*, are received, and shall be duly attended to. When investigations of this nature are carried on with temper, without being intended to excite useless alarms or unmeaning discontent, but merely to point out unobserved inconveniences, that they may be properly corrected, they cannot fail to prove beneficial. It is such disquisitions the Editor wishes to encourage; not those of a splenetic, or captious and declamatory nature. The farther communications of this correspondent will be very acceptable.

The lines by *Phœbus* are come to hand. The Editor is much obliged to this writer for his good opinion, which he will study to deserve. This young poet has inadvertently varied his measure; on this, and some other accounts, it will require to be attentively revised before it be fit for the public eye. It is impossible too often to repeat, that superiour excellence alone in poetry can reflect honour on the writer.

The sonnet by *A. T.* will be inserted as soon as possible.

The favour of *A. M. M.* is come to hand, he will please be informed, that the Editor is so far in arrears to many of his correspondents that it is impossible for him to comply with their wishes for a long time. This is the sole reason of the delay.

The gleanings from *B. A.* are thankfully received, and shall be duly attended to.

The anonymous letter containing remarks on the paper of *A. C. Z.* is also received. Irony is a delicate weapon, which requires to be handled with great address, if it is to be productive of much effect. The writer does not seem to be perfectly master of that weapon, and therefore his piece is improper for this miscellany. The query shall be inserted in the first spare corner.

The piece signed *Grumble Grumble*, comes nearly under the same description with the above, but is written rather in a better manner. It may possibly find a place.

The favour of *Albanicus* is thankfully received.

The paper signed *L. Junius Brutus*, reached the Editor the evening before the meeting for whose use it was intended. It was therefore impossible to employ it as he wished. Correspondents will please observe, that it is not practicable, in general, to insert any communication in the *Bee*, that does not come to hand at least a fortnight before the day of publication of the number in which it is inserted.

The communication by *Regulus* came too late for insertion. We believe he either has been imposed on himself, or meant to impose. The postage ought to have been paid. This is the third useless letter, if we are not mistaken, we have received from this writer, *postage not paid*.

Misobrontes's favour is received, it will appear if possible next number.

A Phœnix Hunter is received and under consideration, we have seen him write much better.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, JULY 19. 1792.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE

OF

JOHN, E. OF BUCHAN, CONSTABLE OF FRANCE.

BY ALBANICUS.

Continued from p. 8.

ON the return of the earl of Buchan to Scotland, he was received with high exultation by his country and by his uncle the regent; and when, after the great force which was employed by the regent, duke of Bedford, in France, the affairs of Charles at the battle of Crevant took an unfavourable turn, he was again sent by the council of the regency of Scotland into France, with a large reinforcement to the aid of the king, in which his father-in-law, the earl of Douglas, who was created a marishal of France and duke of Touraine, was second in command. It was agreed by a treaty, negotiated on the part of Charles by the archbishop of Rheims, that no peace should be made with England without the participation, or consent of France. At the same time Charles conferred the county of Evreux, and the lordship of Aubigny, on

Sir John Stuart of Darnley, who had officiated as pro-constable for Buchan, and had commanded the army of Scots auxiliaries in his absence.

The duke of Bedford was no less active in obtaining reinforcements to his army from England; and, by fresh levies made in France and in Burgundy, the war was renewed with fresh vigour. Bedford chose for the scene of his action, in person, that part of the country where the arms of Charles had been most successful on the confines of Normandy, where the fortified town of Yvri had been sometime before surprised and taken by Girant de la Paliere. This town being besieged by a force which was sufficient to make a complete blockade, it was agreed by the garrison, according to a custom, usual in these wars, that the place should be surrendered if no succour should arrive before the middle of August 1424, being three months from the time of the agreement.

Charles having called a military council, it was resolved, to attempt, without delay, the relief of this place.

He assembled his army in full force, which consisted of about six thousand Scots, two thousand Milanese, and five thousand veteran French, besides militia, or troops lately raised, that had seen no service.

Buchan led on his troops towards Chartres. The marishal de la Fayette*, the earl of Douglas, the count d'Aumale, and the viscount of Narbonne, were

* Of whose family is that admirable hero and patriot, M. de la Fayette now general of the national troops of France, a man whose memory will be dear to posterity, when many of the grandees, both of France and England, shall be entirely forgotten.

entrusted with the most important commands under the direction of the constable.

But before they could come up Yvri had surrendered, of which event Buchan received intelligence at the village of Nonancour, about seven leagues from Yvri; when, changing his route, he laid siege to Verneuil, which is in the domain formerly possessed by the duke of Alençon; and having summoned the garrison to surrender, they deceived the citizens by circulating the information by spies, that the siege of Yvri was raised, and the king, in great force, at hand to support the attack.

The garrison was forced by armed citizens to take refuge in the citadel, which, two days after, was taken by storm.

Bedford had no sooner been informed of this event, than he marched his whole army within three leagues of Verneuil, with a view to ensnare Buchan, by giving him battle on ground of his own choice.

Unfortunately for Buchan, and (but for the maid of Orleans) fatally for France, it was determined in the council of war to give the regent battle, without waiting for a more favourable occasion, or proceeding, with more important consequences to the cause of the king, to possess themselves of the country, and gather strength and discipline by gaining time.

The French barons attached to the king and kingdom, who had flocked to Buchan's standard with their raw militia, inspired with that lively courage which seems natural to Frenchmen, contended for immediate battle; and, in the council, over-ruled the opinion of the constable, the earl of Douglas, the

count d'Aumale, and the other veteran commanders; by giving them to apprehend, that the imputation of timorous caution would be affixed to their determination, if they declined the opportunity of battle*; next day, the 16th of August, the army of Bedford made its approach within view of Verneuil. He drew up his troops in a single line, the archers on the flanks, and two thousand in the rear for reserve.

The center division was led on by the regent, the wings by the earls of Salisbury and Suffolk. In the same manner the constable ranged his army under the walls of Verneuil.

In each of his wings were a thousand horse, those on the right commanded by the baron de Coulonges, the lords of Thienville, Estifsac, and Saintrailles, supported by M. de Roucin.

On the left by M. le Borgne de Caqueran, the lords of Valpergue, and Laquin de Rue, Lombards, together with the militia of their countries:

The wings were commanded by la Fayette and Narbonne. The constable led on in the center. It was the intention and order of the constable that the attack should be received, and not given †, that he might take the advantage of the irregular and impetuous onset of the enemy. But the impatience of the viscount of Narbonne frustrated the prudent plan of the constable, by leading up his wing to the attack without concert, which forced the con-

* *Memoires de la Pucelle*, p. 28. &c. trusting to the patriotic annals of Daniel, have ascribed the decision of the council to the impetuous imprudence of the Scots, but the preceding account seems more probable.

† *Histoire de France*, par Meseray.

stable to bring up the troops suddenly to his support, that the line of the army might not be broken.

The heavy armed soldiers, and the troops in general, were thus brought up, unformed and breathless, to be received by the firm embattled array of the English, defended, as they were, on their front by a breast work of pales, a military device, much and successfully used by the English, to oppose the rash impetuosity of the French and Scots. They carried palisades constantly with them, and used them on the most trivial occasions of provincial war.

Notwithstanding this inexcusable and fatal blunder of Narbonne, the cavalry of the wings attacked the English archers, who were opposed to them, with such impetuosity, that they broke their ranks, and trampled them under foot with great slaughter; but the cavalry on the right, disobedient to orders, pursued the flying archers, and followed the troops of Lombardy with the strength of the French army, supposing the victory to be obtained; and thus permitting the men to quit their ranks and plunder the baggage of the enemy.

This disorder proved fatal to the constable and to the honour of the day. The English general availed himself of it; and, coming up with firmness and order, in less than an hour the French and Scots were totally discomfited and routed, the English archers rallying, completing the defeat and carnage of the French army.

Of the French it appears, by parallel accounts, that there fell four thousand, with their brave comman-

der the earl of Buchan, the earl of Douglas, and his son, with many other persons of distinction.

The viscount of Narbonne was among the first to suffer by an honourable death, the gentle punishment of his rashness. His body was sought for, found, and barbarously quartered, and hung upon gibbets by order of Bedford, as having been necessary to the assassination of the duke of Burgundy.

On the part of the English army, the victory was obtained with the loss of no more than sixteen hundred men at arms; the lords of Audleigh and Carleton being among the slain. The number of the wounded was more considerable, and rejoicings were prohibited for so bloody a conquest. Next day Verneuil was occupied by an English garrison.

Thus perished John Stuart, earl of Buchan, upon the bed of honour, worthy of that truly royal and accomplished family to which he owed his origin.

To no family in Europe can we ascribe superior gallantry, genius, elegance of taste, or splendour of military and courtly abilities, than to the family of Stuart, and for so long a period to no *royal* family in the world.

James I. with the earl of Buchan and the lord d'Aubigny, his cousins, in a little court like that of Scotland, formed a matchless groupe; and, in the race of d'Aubigny, till the conclusion of the great civil war in the year 1648, we behold a succession of heroes during the whole of its career: Nor, since their characters start from the canvas of history, is it necessary to point them out to the admiration of posterity.

 THE IMPROVEMENT OF SHEEP AND WOOL.

Continued from p. 17.

7. *Connection between fineness of wool and hardiness.*

HERE again prejudice has been forward to decide, and has decided, as usual, improperly. It is very generally believed, that sheep which carry fine wool are necessarily more tender than those that yield it of a coarser filament. This, also, I have no hesitation in saying, is not true; and every man who has his eyes open in a sheep market, or in a flock of sheep, must observe it as well as me. I consider this as a most pernicious error, that, if not eradicated, must ever tend to abate the profits of sheep farming. A man who is convinced that fine wool can only be obtained from a weakly and washy breed of sheep, must be a fool if he does not determine at once to rear only coarse wool. But were he to be convinced, as I am satisfied he may be, by a set of judicious experiments directed to this point, that, as hardy sheep can be found which carry *fine* wool, as any which carry *coarse* wool, (and there are actually in Scotland, and elsewhere, breeds of sheep, that carry very fine wool, far more hardy than other breeds in the same country that carry coarse wool,) he would make haste to propagate the one, and to put away the other, to his own great emolument.

8. *Connection between closeness of pile and fineness of filament.*

It is in general believed that a fine fleece of wool is open and light, when compared with one that is

coarser, though my own experience obliges me to declare, that I conceive this general prejudice to be entirely unfounded. I have seen many sheep that carry very thin and light fleeces, though the wool was extremely coarse; and others exceedingly fine that were as close as it is possible to conceive. Indeed it is now well known to every member of this society, that, for closeness of pile, no breed of sheep in this country can be compared with the Spanish breed. But it is not the word of an individual that ought to have weight in cases of this sort. It is clear and accurate experiment alone that ought to be relied on, and it is for that I contend.

9. *Shortness or length of staple.*

It can hardly be disputed that richness of pastures, and other favourable circumstances, have an influence in lengthening the pile of wool. Some have hence inferred that short and long wool might be interchangeably converted the one into the other; hence that no carding wool can be expected on rich pastures, nor combing wool upon heathy commons. Others, on the contrary, contend that there is a permanent, and unalterable difference in the length of the wool of different breeds of sheep, which no management can destroy; that though a rich pasture will, in all cases, produce a lengthier wool than one that is poorer, in the same manner as a rich soil will produce a more luxuriant growth of plants of every sort that shall be reared on it, than if they had grown on one that is poorer; yet that this does not tend to alter the ultimate proportional size of plants, to which nature has prescribed certain differences that

on one that is poorer, yet that this does not tend to alter the ultimate proportional size of plants to which nature has prescribed certain differences that cannot be interchanged. A gooseberry bush, on a rich soil, may, perhaps, sometimes attain as great a size as a hawthorn on a poor soil, or a hawthorn as an oak; yet, *in equal circumstances*, the hawthorn will always exceed the gooseberry in size, and the oak the hawthorn. It is just so, say they, with the length of wool produced by certain breeds of sheep, some of which, though they may be accidentally lengthened or stunted, will, upon the whole, preserve an invariable difference between each other, if the breed be not contaminated. Which of these opinions are well founded? Nothing but accurate experiments can afford a satisfactory answer to this question.

10. *Connection between length of staple and coarseness of filament.*

No opinion has been more generally received than that there is a necessary and invariable connection between the length of the staple of wool, and the coarseness of its filament. That is to say, that the finest wool must necessarily be short, and *vice versa*. I am, however, clearly convinced, that there is no real foundation for this opinion; because I have had in my own flock, sheep that carried wool not exceeding two inches in length, which was of an exceeding coarse quality; and, at the same time, I had wool that measured seventeen inches, which was finer in filament than the finest Spanish wool I could obtain. It is of great importance that this circumstance

should be ascertained by fair and indisputable experiments ; so that the public should neither rely upon my word, nor that of any other individual, in a matter of so much national importance.

III. *Connection between the tendency to fatten, and nature of the fleece.*

It is profit alone that the farmer ought to regard in choosing a breed of sheep, and not fanciful refinements of any sort. The improvement of *wool* is a principal object of the attention of this society ; but if, by attempting to do this, the farmer must sacrifice more valuable considerations, it would be folly in him to attempt it. In all their experiments, therefore, respect ought to be had to the qualities of the carcase of the sheep as well as its wool. If sheep that carry fine wool are necessarily and invariably more tender, or more difficult to fatten than those that carry coarse wool, it were, perhaps, better never to think of the former. But if the quality of the wool has no *necessary* connection with the other peculiarities of carcase, then it may happen that by attention and care, a breed may be found that shall afford at the same time fine wool, and be easily fatted. It is a matter, therefore, of the utmost importance, to have this point clearly elucidated by the fairest and most decisive experiments. My own observations, on a pretty extensive scale of experience, leave me no room to doubt on this head ; but it is not for my own satisfaction I now enquire, but for the satisfaction of the public at large. And the public should not rely on any assertions of individuals in matters of so high importance.

12. *Influence of breed in altering the qualities of sheep.*

Opinions differ prodigiously respecting this important object of discussion. Nor can it be otherwise, while the objects above specified shall remain undecided. Were all these previous questions to be fully ascertained, we should then be able to speak with certainty of the influence of *breed*, and to act decisively in practice. Till they be ascertained we must remain in a state of perpetual uncertainty and doubt.

By the practice of the greatest improvers in Britain, it appears that *breed* seems to be found to have a sovereign and uncontrollable influence in altering the nature of the animal, though it has not a power of checking the collateral influence of other circumstances on the animal economy. No man, for example, who breeds from a Lancashire long horned bull and cow, will ever produce a cow of the short horned Dutch breed. Here the effect of *breed* is instantly obvious, and cannot be mistaken. But should a man, in the the rich vale of Gloucester, breed from a Highland cow and bull, which, in an ordinary soil, would not exceed twenty-eight or thirty stone weight, he will gradually raise them to such a size as to weigh sixty, seventy, or perhaps eighty stone or upwards; while a breed of English cattle, by being reared for a length of time, upon a poor pasture would be gradually diminished in size till it became smaller than the Highland breed, reared upon a richer soil. Thus would the two breeds, in respect to *size* at least, be apparently interchanged the one for the other, as the smaller might become the larger. This, to hasty observers, would seem to be a

real alteration of the qualities of the breed ; though it be, in fact, only an *accidental* variation, occasioned by the influence of collateral circumstances ; for, in all other respects but the size, these breeds, in all circumstances, preserve their original and distinctive difference ; and let them change places they will quickly return to what they were before. The Highland cattle, restored to their barren hills, will dwindle to their former size ; and the English breed, in its rich vales assume their former magnitude, and be exactly the same thing, after many generations, as they were at first, if the *breed* has not been contaminated. Just so it happens in the vegetable kingdom. The hawthorn which springs up in a rich and fertile vale, rises to a lofty tree, spreads wide its branches around, and outstrips the oak itself which grows on a niggard soil, and in an exposed situation ; but this deviation from the laws of nature is only an *accidental*, not a *radical* change.

It is in this way that circumstances which only produce accidental changes on the qualities of sheep and wool, having not been distinguished from the more permanent changes resulting from breeds, have occasioned a confusion of ideas on this head that ought to be removed : An enterprise that seems to be highly worthy the attention of this society. Many men have observed, for example, that rich pastures augment the length of wool, which it no doubt does ; hence they conclude, that long or short wool depends entirely on pastures, and not on the nature of the original breed ; though they must very often see in the same pastures, different breeds, which, in this respect, preserve all their original qualities unimpaired. Others

having observed that some of the common breeds carry long wool that is very coarse, have concluded that these qualities (*i. e.* length and coarseness,) cannot be disjoined; and that the influence of *breed*, in this case, will soon be lost. Others having observed that the fleece produced by the same sheep in one season, has been much coarser than that which the same sheep afforded in a former season, have thought they had good reason to conclude, if the sheep chanced to be moved from a coarser to a finer gang, that this change was undoubtedly occasioned by the richer pasture. They did not advert that if the *season* in which the wool was produced was warmer than the former, the wool must of necessity have been much coarser than the wool of the former season, though the sheep had been kept upon its former pasture. If the sheep chanced to go from a richer to a coarser pasture, the obvious deterioration of the wool would be as inevitably attributed to the pasture, not to the change of climate between one year and another. Thus it must ever happen, that so long as we are ignorant of the precise effect of a change of climate, pasture, management, sex, age, &c. on the quality of the same breed of sheep, we must be perpetually groping in the dark, and reasoning as fancy or caprice may dictate, so that our practice must be unsteady, and our opinions contradictory. What enterprise, therefore, could be more worthy of a society which has so strongly attracted the notice of all Europe, than to begin by chalking out and steadily pursuing a set of experiments calculated to remove those doubts, and to introduce certainty in a matter of so much national importance?

Committee of experiments.

From these considerations, I would beg leave to propose that a committee of this society should be appointed, under the name of the *committee of experiments*, to make a clear and distinct specification of such experiments as they should deem necessary to be made for elucidating the particulars above alluded to, and others they should deem of equal importance, and to report to the society the result of their deliberations. And let it be an article of instruction to that committee, to be very minute in describing all the particulars necessary to be attended to in making these experiments, so as to guard against error. Should such a report, corrected by the society, be afterwards published, it may serve as a clue to direct the experiments of such public spirited individuals as were desirous of co-operating with the society in forwarding so useful an undertaking.

The great object to be ever held in view by this society, in these and every other enterprise, must be the improvement of British wool; and in the first place the improvement of our short carding wool. But, in attempting to obtain the object aimed at, care must be taken not to sacrifice any other advantage we already possess that should tend to diminish the profit of the farmer. The prudent sheep rearer will not rashly depart from what he knows to be profitable, for another practice he does not know with certainty to be better. If to obtain one pound of fine wool he loses two of a coarser sort—if he must adopt a more tender instead of a hardier breed, fine wool would be purchased at a price far

beyond its value. But if it shall be proved by a set of judicious experiments, which I have no doubt will be the case, that fineness of wool does not necessarily tend to diminish its quantity, and that sheep of the hardiest sort may be found that produce the finest and closest pile of wool, then his attention would be directed to make diligent search to try if he could discover that breed which possessed all the different qualities which render sheep valuable in the highest degree. But in this enquiry he should proceed with caution, and never go an inch beyond the bounds that accurate experiments prescribe to him; fancy and affection should be here out of the question,—it is *profit* only that ought to be regarded. When ever the farmer has obtained a good breed, let him lay it down as a maxim, from which nothing shall make him depart, never, on the one hand, to alter it or change it for another, till he has had decisive experience that he is to do it for the better; nor, on the other hand, ever to rest satisfied that his breed cannot be improved till he has obtained one that possesses every estimable quality in the highest known degree.

That I may not be here misunderstood, let it be supposed that he has obtained a breed that affords very fine wool in abundant quantity, and thrives kindly upon his gang; though another kind should come in his way, that fattened a little more easily, let him, before he resolves to adopt this last, make a fair experiment to try if the whole of the sheep of that kind, which can be kept on a given quantity of such food, as he can command, will afford him more profit, taking in every article *in cumulo*, carcase,

fleece, and accidents, than another kind with which it is compared. If this experiment should turn out in favour of his own breed, let him reject the strange breed with which it was compared; but let him not rest satisfied that it never can be improved. Let him be ever on the search for a breed of fine woolled sheep, that fatten very kindly. Let him watch for these with the utmost care, and, wherever he can find them, let no expence deter him from giving them a fair experimental trial. But if he has been so lucky as to come near to perfection with his own flock; where is he so likely to meet with that valuable kind as in that flock? With a view to discover these valuable individuals let him observe them continually with the most attentive eye. Let him handle them often, and carefully discriminate those which have, in the highest degree, the valuable qualities he wishes to obtain. Let them be selected from the others, the very best rams put to the picked ewes, and so on, perpetually selecting the best from the best. In this manner, by a continued attention, it is inconceivable what improvements may be made in a continuance of years. I myself once chanced to observe a little cow of my own, that continued at all times fat, when treated in the same way with my other cattle; and though she was scarcely ever in her life that she might not have been slaughtered for beef, others of my cows, equally fed with her, were sometimes very lean. I kept her many years, but never was so lucky as to obtain a bull calf from her that lived; yet I can, at this day, easily distinguish that breed, by their good plight, from my other cattle, after she has been dead more than twen-

ty years. Such being the evident permanency of breeds, let me recommend this circumstance very warmly to the attention of all who wish to engage seriously in the improvement of their sheep. But let no sheep rearer ever forget, that it is the breed of sheep which, *on his own particular gang*, and not on that of another, yields him the most profit, that is the kind he ought to rear, whether it carry coarse or fine wool, or whether it be in vogue at the time, or the reverse. *It is money only that makes the pot to boil.* And let him also advert, that, if breed be so powerful in *improving*, it is equally efficacious in *deteriorating* a flock; so that he ought to take great care how he alters that breed which he already possesses; and on no account ought he to introduce a strange *ram* into his flock, till the superior qualities of that breed over his own have been ascertained in the most indisputable manner by clear and decisive experiments.

JAS. ANDERSON.

ON TAXATION.

AMONGST the various departments in the science of politics, I believe there is none in which less progress has been made, in point of improvement, than that of taxation. Notwithstanding the numerous and deep discussions, that almost every branch of the revenue laws has undergone, both in and out of parliament, we find ourselves loaded with taxes, that

produce evils ten-fold greater than they are capable of occasioning, were the *duties* payable the only cause of complaint,—with revenue officers to such an immense number both under the customs and excise, that they form one of the greatest and most constant articles of expence to government,—and withal we are overcome with smugglers, and revenue sales of seized goods, to such an extent, that in many branches of commerce the fair trader is beaten out of the field. With a view to point out, as far as lies within my power, the causes of these evils, and to excite in others, endowed with more information and abilities, a desire of turning their eyes toward an object of so much importance, and endeavouring to devise the means of putting our taxations on a more simple and less hurtful footing, I shall, with the permission of the Editor of the Bee, offer to the public, from time to time, my observations on such parts of the revenue laws as come immediately under my observation, in the course of my own business as a merchant.

I. *Of overstretching taxation.*

It is a very plausible and generally received idea, that the higher a duty is, the more it produces; but there is not any principle more fallacious or more dangerous. I shall pick out, as particular instances, the duties payable on the importation of *spirits* and *tobacco*.

On all European spirits there is a duty payable on importation to Britain, of five shillings and ten-pence *per* gallon.

The cost of geneva of the first quality is at present, at Rotterdam, about 1 s. 10 d. *per* gallon, brandy,

since the commencement of the disturbances in France, has been much dearer, which has in a great degree prevented the smuggling of that article.

The consequence of this very high duty, it being above three times the value of the spirits, is, that an immense smuggling has been carried on ever since it was so high. And notwithstanding every method that could be devised for its prevention having been adopted by government, it still continues. The evils of this smuggling are easily seen: I shall enumerate some of them.

1st. It destroys, in a double capacity, legal commerce, the support of which every good politician pays much attention to. In the first place the smugglers are enabled to bring the spirits to market at a price far lower than the person who pays the duties can; and, in the second place, there are such great quantities of these spirits, that have been seized and condemned by the revenue officers, exposed to sale at the custom-house and excise office, that it is impossible for the fair trader ever to compete with them, however low his prices may be; for the lower he sells, the lower will these condemned spirits be knocked off at, as they must be sold at what they will bring.

2d. It brings ruin into the part of the country where it exists. The temptation is so great that persons possessed of capital, allured by the glittering prospect of gain, relinquish lawful occupations, as mean drudgery, and grasp eagerly at the thousands that they are to gain by purchasing spirits at 1 s. 10 d. and selling them at 7 s. 10 d. *per* gallon. They pur-

chase ships, engage men, send out remittances,—their vessels and cargoes are seized, they, and their families, who lived in affluence and respect, are plunged at once into bankruptcy and indigence, drawing along with them many small dependants. But should they be so fortunate as to succeed in the attempt, and gain great sums by the prosperous issue of their lawless enterprise, they stop not there. Fate acts the same part by them, as a cunning sharper at whist does by a pigeon; allowing them to run on in the gaudy path of gain till their heads are uplifted with the enchanting phantom; and with one blow they are cast down, and all their flowery prospects come to nought. Thus it happens with all, rich and poor, in those unhappy countries where smuggling prevails. If I except a very few, indeed, who die worth considerable sums of money made by the diabolical traffic; and these increase the evil by being looked at by their countrymen as happy examples, worthy of imitation.

3dly. The good morals of the people, by this term I mean the proper direction of the principle of distinguishing right from wrong, are, by every able politician, whether in a public or private capacity, considered as an object of the first importance. And these are, by smuggling, entirely destroyed. When the laws in one instance are held at nought, very little respect is paid to them in another; and it is a well known fact, that in every country where smuggling is practised extensively, it is not only accounted no crime to defraud the revenue, but it is also considered as a virtue; and I believe that, had

smuggling been as near the origin of society in Galloway, as fighting was in Rome, *virtue* * would have implied dexterity in smuggling in the former, as it did bravery in the latter. How often do we hear of spiteful murders being committed in Kent, of rebellious combats in Galloway and Ayrshire, betwixt his majesty's officers and the people; and of unparalleled, and bragged-of feats of swindling in all the smuggling counties of Britain? All are owing to smuggling.

I could enumerate many more instances of the baneful effects of illicit commerce, all of which operate most powerfully in those very parts of our country that are destined by nature to shine in commerce, and spread wealth and happiness around them, if that evil were removed; but I must hold for the present, and in my next paper I shall probably state what are the effects of exorbitant duties on the amount of the revenue, which is the primary object of consideration in imposing them.

Leib, 1792.

TRADER POLITICAL.

ON THE MILKY WAY.

For the Bee.

IF our sun were viewed by a person at the nearest fixed star, that star would appear a sun, and our sun would appear a fixed star. How grand is the idea that every fixed star is a sun to a number of planets around it! And yet, if we reason from analogy, it is not more strange than true. The breadth

* *Virtus*, in Latin, signifies bravery.

of the earth's orbit scarcely bears any sensible proportion to the distance of the nearest fixed stars.

We shall here hazard a conjecture concerning the universe from the appearance of the milky way. The milky way, (when seen to perfection in a clear night, so clear as to occur only once or twice in twelve months, and brighter than is necessary to discover the planet Herschell to the naked eye,) the milky way appears a great circle in the heavens, passing by the swan on the north, and dog-star on the south, and not far from the pole of the ecliptic. Of this great circle of the milky way, the earth of course appears to be the center.

The conjecture we hazard from this appearance, is, that the universe of the fixed stars is a great zodiac, or grand ecliptic, of some thickness, but of little thickness in comparison to its vast length and breadth, or amazing circumference: That the fixed stars have formed themselves into such a grand zodiac by mutual attraction; as the planets, by a like attraction, have resolved themselves into the plane of the ecliptic: That we, who are placed in the middle of this grand zodiac of the universe, see the more distant parts of it like a round belt, or great circle, of some breadth, of which we ourselves are in the center: That this great circle is the milky way: That the fixed stars we see on every side of us, are all comprehended within the compass of the grand zodiac; but being comparatively near us, must appear to us in all points of the sphere: That we only perceive it to assume the figure of a zodiac in those parts that are comparatively more remote: And that, in the most distant parts of it, myriads of fixed stars, forming them-

selves, rank behind rank, into embattled legions, present to us, and to our view, the great circle of the milky way. Our ecliptic stands nearly at right angles to the surface of our earth: The position of the milky way may have determined the position of our ecliptic.

ASTRONOMICUS.

READING MEMORANDUMS.

THE weak mind, unable to think, naturally flies to *anecdote* to find conversation; and you will seldom be entertained *with a happy, or decent selection.*

There is often an unfortunate concurrence of circumstances, which is sometimes so intricate, from chance, as to leave the innocent bewildered in the *mazes* of suspicion, without affording the slightest clue for them, to retrace their way out of it.

Friendship (like love,) now a-days is a word of fashion. 'Tis a sort of superstitious, *cabalistical* word, which once had the power of joining people together, but, like witchcraft, has now lost its force.

Let not the unfeeling *stoic* deride the pleasures of this world, and despise a happiness, which his gloomy soul is incapable of tasting; it presents many enjoyments, which the eye of reason may behold *with approbation.*

“ The ways of providence are dark and intricate,
“ Puzzled with mazes, and perplex'd with errors.”

On reading Blair's sermons, it is observed, “ those sermons are *piety* in the most enticing form; and

whilst you admire the elegant language they are replete with, a secret impulse bids you follow the charming precepts.

Melancholy brings to one's mind the expressions of others, which exactly describe our own sensations, more than any other affection.

We are never more angry than when we find ourselves *duped*. Natural, justifiable pride revolts against duplicity; and we can sooner forgive any injury than that of *deceit*.

Courage incites soldiers to fight for their country: But it is cowardice alone that drives duelists together.

Three maxims never to be departed from, for a happy life.

1st. An implicit acquiescence in the will of providence, from a conviction that all its dispensations are ultimately intended for our good.

2d. That, without embarrassing ourselves by reverting to the past, or looking forward to the future, we ought, in every present instance, to act in strict conformity to the dictates of conscience and reason.

3d. Never consider slight omissions, and trifling errors, as beneath our care and attention.

Many things would remain perfectly harmless by neglect, that are too frequently exalted into mischief by being legally noticed.

POETRY.

MARTIAL LIB. VIII. EPIG. iii. IMITATED.

I.

WHEN shall you end my thoughtless bard?
What reams of verses would you write?
Without an atom of reward,
Though all admire your ev'ry flight.

II.

The camp, the city, and the court,
The farmer plodding at his plough,
The premier seeking each resort,
To pay our debts the devil knows how:

III.

All these and fifty thousand others,
Have learn'd your charming odes by heart;
Though spite their admiration smothers,
Ev'n critics murmur your desert.

IV.

When creeds, and farces, and reviews,
And dictionaries past all number,
Shall plug the windows of our stews,
As tight as Jemmy Boswell's lumber:

V.

When you have rotted in a jail,
Without one turf your bones to cover,
The milk maid, blushing o'er her pail,
Shall tune your ballads to her lover.

VI.

The shepherd while his lambs are feeding,
And his fond bantlings throng to hear,
Shall on the daisy, where he's reading,
Drop the pure homage of a tear.

VII.

Let others in their lofty rhyme,
Raise ruffian valour to the skies,
But scorn to prostitute your time,
In teaching homicide disguise.

VIII.

'Twere past all Greek,—all Shakespeare's glory,
If tender, innocent, amusing,
While *not one crime profanes your story*,
NELLY shall think it worth perusing.

IX.

For since in baby clothes young nature,
First tried ten thousand oibs to whirl,
There has not smiled in mortal feature,
So lovely, so divine a girl!

BOMBARDINIOM

To the Editor of the Bee.

Mr Editor,

I happened to have the good fortune to be present at the grand concert which was performed at the opera house London, for the benefit of Thomas Linley, esq, it was at this concert that the much lamented Mrs Sheridan sung for the last time in public. The effect Mrs Sheridan's wonderfully pathetic powers had upon me, Mr Editor, I am unable to describe, pen and paper, even in a skillful hand, could give but a very faint idea of it. The house was so overflowed that forms were obliged to be placed on the stage; and these being filled by ladies, a crowd of gentlemen were thankful to get standing room between the side scenes, &c. &c. I mention these circumstances to shew the anxiety of the public on this occasion; and among this numerous assemblage I don't think there was a dry eye to be found during the time that Mrs Sheridan was singing her pathetic songs; and the professors in the orchestra were so deeply affected, that they almost forgot their functions. Mr Editor I was one of the singing boys belonging to the chapel royal, and received the first part of my musical education under the late Dr Nares, organist and composer to the king; and during my stay in the chapel royal, I frequented the oratorios, opera house, play houses, and all the concerts of note, and consequently heard all the singers of the day; and, on my quitting the chapel royal, I went to Italy, where I remained several years; but neither there, nor any where else, have I yet heard a singer that equalled, or came anything near, in the pathetic stile, the late Mrs Sheridan. I am, Sir, your constant reader and well wisher,

Broughton July 1792.

T. H. BUTLER.

A DIRGE, OR PATHETIC VOCAL RONDO, DEDICATED TO THE MEMORY
OF THE LATE MRS SHERIDAN, BY T. H. BUTLER.

The favourite Scots air of Lewie Gordon is the musical theme of this composition; but those additions which form it into a rondo are mostly new; the whole will be humbly presented to the public in a short time.

RONDO.

Bow the head thou lily fair,
Bow the head in mournful guise,
Sickly turn thy shining white,
Bend thy stalk and never rise.

Shed thy leaves thou lovely rose,
Shed thy leaves so sweet and gay;
Spread them wide on the cold earth,
Quickly let them fade away.

Bow thy head, &c.

Fragrant woodbine all untwine,
 All untwine from yonder bow'r;
 Drag thy branches on the ground,
 Stain with dust each tender flow'r.

Bow the head, &c.

For mute is that harmonious voice,
 That wont to breathe the sounds of love;
 And lifeless are those beauteous limbs,
 That with such ease and grace did move.

Bow the head &c.

ON THE SPRING.

For the Bee.

I.

FAIR spring advance and lead the hours,
 In festive round, to favour love;
 In yonder desolated bow'rs,
 May we thy sweets ambrosial prove!

II.

Farewell the dreary winter's reign,
 The cold, the lonely hours are past;
 Hail lovely spring! and all thy train!
 Thrice welcome art thou to our coast!

III.

NOW chearly o'er the mossy lawn
 The swain trips fast to see his fair;
 His heart elated with the dawn
 Of verdant Spring's most wholesome air.

IV.

JUST so the man, whose heart on fire,
 Is rack'd with dreadful discontent;
 'Till in his mind new thoughts respire,
 And Jove's almighty aid is sent.

V.

WITH this renew'd his spirit braves
 Each danger and despairing thought;
 He, rolling on life's troubl'd waves,
 'To shore with peace and safety's brought.

M

GLEANINGS OF LITERATURE.

Electric symptoms accompanying earthquakes, exemplified in an account of the earthquakes of Jamaica, anno 1766, extracted from a letter from Dr John Martin Butt.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

“FROM the 11th of June to the present time we have either expected to be buried by earthquakes, or blown away by hurricanes; but, thank God, no great mischief has yet been done, although our neighbours of Cuba have suffered considerably by the former, and we are hourly in dreadful apprehension of hearing that they have had a violent hurricane, from the symptoms observed in our sea and atmosphere.

“The first earthquake, for we have had no fewer than forty shocks, happened a few minutes past midnight of the 11th of June, after a long course of intensely hot weather. That evening I had invited a company to sup with me; but before eight o'clock felt such a trembling of my limbs, with stricture and anxious uneasiness on my breast, and vertigo, that I was forced to retire from my guests and go to bed. I then felt precisely as I was wont to do under the influence of electricity, which always affects my nerves so surprisingly, that, when others are undergoing electrical shocks, I decline the experiment, as I do not recover the effect of it for hours.

“Not knowing the cause of my uneasiness, and apprehending approaching disease, I determined to let blood, and put my feet in warm water, after which I fell into a sweat, and then into a disturbed sleep, out of which I was awakened by the violence of a shock of earthquake.

“ Mrs Butt, who has much presence of mind, and was less confused than myself, as she had not gone to sleep, thought this first shock consisted of three or four in succession, following each other like pulses, or waves of the sea.

“ What from my dizziness, the rocking of the earth, the thundering hollow noise of the atmosphere, joined to the rattling of furniture, bursting open of doors and window shutters, the combined cries of goats, dogs, cats, and poultry, the cracking of the timbers of the houses and other circumstances, the dismay and horror of the scene was inexpressible.

This shock proceeded from north to south or from N. N. E. to S. S. W. as appeared afterwards from the progress of the mischief of which I was previously convinced by observing that some specimens of natural history; which I had placed on shelves in my library, in that direction, were not displaced, as others were in a contrary posture, but only forced in a regular manner, by protrusion, on the little perpendicular partitions that subdivided the shelves, to separate the contents.

“ In the account of the earthquake felt at London in the year 1749, communicated by Martin Folkes to the royal society, it is mentioned, that fishes leapt above a foot and an half high from their ponds, and the same appearance was noticed here at Mosquito Point; and to prove how violent the stroke was upon the waters, the men of war, and other ships in these seas, received such a shock, that the seamen imagined they had struck or run ashore.

“ I remember that in Donah's account of the earthquake felt at Turin, in the year 1755, contained in his letters to Abraham Trembly, which are epitomised in the philosophical transactions of the year 1766, the following query is offered:

“ Whether there is not a great co-operation of electricity in the production of earthquakes? and this query was brought up forcibly to my recollection, from what I felt upon this occasion, which I have already described.

“ For if earthquakes are solely owing to the causes that have been usually assigned, whence proceeded those sensations which I never experienced, save under the action of electricity? and whence the dead calm, and motionless state of the clouds, which, for an hour before the shock, almost suffocated many people here, obliging them at midnight to get out of bed and sit in their piazzas?

“ Moreover, the sound immediately preceding the earthquake, so exactly resembled the noise of thunder, that, taking every circumstance into consideration, the query of Donah deserves to be noticed with attention.

“ If explosion from pent up steam, or other subterranean theory of earthquake, were only to be taken into consideration in explaining these appearances, how comes it to pass that congenial symptoms of the atmosphere &c. were felt in Sumatra, during the earthquake of Lisbon in the year 1755?

“ Besides, the electric feelings of the people here, prior to the great shock, were felt more severely on the mountains than on the low lands, which does not correspond to the modern theories of Mitchel, and other approved writers on the subject of earthquakes.

“ In our case, the mountains continued almost incessantly tremulous, while, on the low lands, there were spaces of an hour between the shocks, which would not comport with the theory of steam acting by the communication of the strata, as conjectured by Mitchel.

“ As to the direction of mischief in earthquakes heretofore mentioned, it seems to agree very well with the stratical construction of the globe, but not without the co-operati-

on of the electric fluid, which has indeed been also observed in all the great eruptions of Etna and Vesuvius, and so anciently, if I remember right, as by Pliny.

“ In my feelings, prior to this earthquake of ours, I have not been singular ; as you will remember, from the account given by Ulloa of the symptoms felt at Cadiz in the year 1755, during the earthquake at Lisbon. Almost every body there suffered either by the head ach, convulsive attacks, sudden langours, flying pains, and an oppression of spirits, with sickness, purgings, and vomitings, for hours before any tremulation of the earth was observed.

“ Dr Shehely in his philosophy of earthquakes, mentions similar circumstances relating to the experience of the people at London, during the time of this great catastrophe.

“ For my own part, I mean to draw no inferences, nor to sin at the folly of a system, but only to relate to your lordship what I felt during the late earthquakes in our island.”

REVIEW.

HISTORY OF SOME OF THE EFFECTS OF HARD DRINKING, BY
J. C. LETTSON, M D. F R S. F S A. 4to.

THIS small pamphlet exhibits a striking view of the miserable effects that are the consequences of hard drinking, which deserve to be particularly attended to at the present time, when the price of spirits are so low, as to hold out a temptation to persons in the lowest ranks of life to exceed in this way. It is not to be expected that persons of this description will attend to any thing that can be said or written on this head ; but those who have the

welfare of the country, and the happiness of the people at heart, ought surely to exert themselves to try, if possible, to mitigate an evil productive of such miserable consequences.

After a few introductory observations, the benevolent author divides the cases of this class under the following heads :

“ The *first*, says he, are those who early in life have habituated themselves to drink freely of wine of various kinds, and, from their situations in life, undergone a change of climate, as from *Europe* to the *Indies*, &c. Punch drinkers, likewise, have been liable to similar complaints. The first appearance of disease is loss of appetite, which at length is so weakened and vitiated, that, after taking food, before the return of the next meal a kind of heavy pain of the stomach, without a constriction of the muscles of the abdomen, comes on, and with a slight effort, a sweetish, brackish, or acid fluid, is thrown up, and the pain and constriction for a short time subside. For several years in this unhappy state, the patient drags on a life, rendered now and then more supportable, either by renewed potations, or exputations, till at length the bodily and mental powers become impaired; the object grows emaciated, the whole body shrinks; neither swelling nor dropsy appear, though the countenance looks sallow; the region of the liver is not enlarged, and the liver itself seems less than natural; the urine is not very high coloured; the *feces* are hard and dark coloured; the stomach will take and retain food, but, after receiving it, it is oppressed, and feels tightened or contracted in its dimensions; the patient expresses it, as if it were tied by a strait bandage; the same sensation affects the intestines, and the abdomen suffers such irregular constrictions, as become evident to the external touch, the muscles being drawn into irregular

action, the surface of the belly is diversified with protuberances and cavities; sometimes the spasmodic strictures run transversely, and raise the surface like waves of the sea. The pain continues increasing to such excess, that the miserable sufferer is obliged to press against a table or some hard body, to mitigate his distress, till vomiting brings a respite; or he hastens this operation, by thrusting his finger into the throat; and thus relieves himself till the next reception of nourishment, when the same tragedy is repeated. The matter discharged is thin, acrid, sour, sweet, or brackish. Sometimes instead of constipation, an occasional purging ensues, and mitigates the pain, whilst it subdues the constitution; and after years of misery, the victim slides into a fatal decay; but long before this, the powers of the mind have been debilitated, and its recollection and actions impaired.

“ The *second* train of distressful symptoms which I shall relate, more generally succeed the free use of spirits, or of wines, with the admixture of spirits, as Madeira; and especially where late hours and illicit amours have been superadded.

“ The early symptoms of complaint are, a pain and oppression about the pit of the stomach after eating, or distension from fluids; this pain extends to the breast and shoulders; there are frequent eructations of wind, which seem to burn the throat as they ascend; these symptoms, which are usual in affections of the liver, and particularly in bilious effusions, are at first so trivial, as seldom to alarm the fears of the patient, or he slightly mentions them as symptoms of the gout, whilst he attempts to avert the present suffering, by indulging more freely in the very cause of the mischief, till repeated fillips of raw spirits, or a dilution of the poison, render existence miserable.

“ The appetite now totally fails, but an insatiable thirst continues, and if it be not supplied with an exhilarating cordial, the vital spirits instantly flag, and such horrors take place as are dreadful even to a bye-stander ; the poor victim is so depressed, as to fancy a thousand imaginary evils ; he expects momentarily to expire, and starts up suddenly from his seat ; walks wildly about the room ; breathes short, and seems to struggle for breath ; if these horrors seize him in bed, when waking from slumber, he springs up like an elastic body, with a sense of suffocation, and the horrors of frightful objects around him ; at the same time the pain of the stomach continues and augments ; the sight of wholesome plain food gives disgust instead of appetite ; drink is his cry ; or if hunger is excited, it is after high-seasoned, salt, or acrid nourishment.

“ At this time, if a dropsy, or fatal jaundice, do not terminate existence, the legs shrink, are swarthy coloured like the rest of the body, and sometimes purple spots appear and disappear for many months ; the extremities feel sore to the touch, and upon scratching them, exude blood ; the thighs likewise shrink ; but the body, and particularly about the region of the liver, enlarges, and the hardness of the liver may be frequently traced : The face is nearly copper-coloured, is emaciated, sometimes with little suppurations, which dry and turn scaly ; the breath smells like rotten apples, and the *morbus niger*, or vomitings of a fluid like that of coffee-grounds, snatch the patient from complicated misery. Sometimes a purging, or bloody discharge, hasten the catastrophe.

“ The *third* train of symptoms to be described, is not confined to age or sex, but is in general more frequently the attendant of the female sex.

“ The persons liable to the symptoms, have been those of delicate habits, who have endeavoured to overcome the

nervous debility, by the aid of spirits; many of these have begun the use of these poisons from persuasion of their utility, rather than from the love of them; the relief, however, being temporary, to keep up their effects, frequent access is had to the same delusion, till at length what was taken by compulsion, gains attachment, and a little drop of brandy, or gin and water, becomes as necessary as food; the female sex, from natural delicacy, acquire this custom by slow degrees, and the poison being admitted in small doses, is slow in its operations, but not less painful in its effects.

“ The soberer class of tradesmen, also, who occasionally indulge in their sixpenny-worth of brandy and water, gradually slide into the same unhappy habits; and entail upon their constitutions the same misery, which I shall now introduce.

“ The first appearance of indisposition very much resembles what has been last described; and under the deception of the gout, the fuel is heaped upon the fire, till the delusion has been too long maintained to admit of retreat in general, at least the attachment to the use of spirituous drinks, becomes so predominant, that neither threats nor persuasions are powerful enough to overcome it. The miserable sufferer is so infatuated, as, in spite of locks and keys, to bribe by high rewards the dependent nurse privately to procure it.

“ But the concluding symptoms are very different from either of the foregoing histories; frequently, indeed, the appetite for food vanishes, but sometimes continues voracious; and, at the same time, whilst the body is costive, and no vomiting ensues, the lower extremities grow more and more emaciated; the legs become as smooth as polished ivory, and the soles of the feet even glassy and shining, and at the same time so tender, that the weight of the finger excites shrieks and moaning; and yet I have known,

that, in a moment's time, heavy pressure has given no uneasiness. The legs, and the whole lower extremities, lose all power of action; wherever they are placed, there they remain till moved again by the attendant; the arms and hands acquire the same palsified state, and the patients are rendered incapable of feeding themselves. Thus for years they exist, with no material alteration in the seize of the body, or aspect of the countenance.

“Whether they really undergo the agonies they appear to suffer, I much doubt, as at this period their minds appear idiotish; they often shriek out with a vehemence that may be heard at a considerable distance, but upon inquiring about the seat of pain, they have been vague and indecisive in their answers. When a cramp comes on the lower extremities, involuntary motions draw up the legs, and produce the most piercing shrieks; and the features of the face, altered by convulsive twitchings, excite pain in a spectator. For some months before they die, these shrieks are more incessant, and as violent as the strength will admit.”

After some other observations, which we are sorry our limits prevent us from inserting, the author remarks, that “there is something in spirituous liquors so injurious to the human frame, that too much attention cannot be paid to the discouraging the use of them. Many of the unhappy victims I have attended, ascribe their suffering to the unguarded advice of some medical practitioner, who has, under the idea of wine turning sour on the stomach, permitted a little drop of brandy and water to be substituted. Seldom, indeed, a day passes without introducing me to the sick bed of some deluded object of misery; and it is from the most decided conviction of the injury, that I would guard every person from beginning with even a little drop of this fascinating poison, which once admitted, is seldom, if ever, afterwards overcome. Whenever I hear the patient plead for some substitute for beer or wine, un-

der the supposition of their turning sour, my fears are alarmed, and my endeavours excited, to pluck the unsuspecting patient from the brink of destruction; this plea is never made till the exhilarating influence of spirit has been experienced; and not a moment should be lost in warning such objects of their danger."

Our benevolent author goes on to point out the most practicable means of gradually weaning such as have not gone too far, from the use of this pernicious beverage, and of accustoming the stomach to bear the use of wholesome food;—but seldom can this be practised.—Obstinate habits cannot be counteracted.—The safest plan in this case is to guard against the evil, and to fly from the temptation before its fascinating power has been experienced.

EXTRACTS FROM COXE'S TRAVELS.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

THE extracts sent you formerly, and those that follow, will be well known to many of your readers; to others of them they will not. The former I hope will excuse the inscription of these for the sake of the latter.

"The peasants in Russia, Mr Coxe says, are first those that belong to the crown. Many of these the empress has enfranchised, and allowed them, with others of the second class who may obtain their freedom, which is not easily done, to settle in any part of her dominions, and to enroll themselves among the burghers or merchants, according to their respective capitals; by which she has given a stability to their freedom, and afforded the strongest incitements to industry.

"The second class are those who belong to individuals. These are as much the property of the landholders as implements of agriculture or herds of cattle. The lord is restrained by no law, either in the exaction of money or

in the mode of employing his vassals. He is absolute master of their time and labour; some he employs in agriculture, a few he makes his menial servants, and from others he exacts an annual payment. Some contribute four or five shillings a year, others who are engaged in traffic or trade are assessed in proportion to their supposed profits. I saw a mason who was rated at L. 6 *per annum*, a smith at L. 12, and others as high L. 20. Any capital which they may have acquired by their industry, may be seized, and there can be no redress; as, according to the old feudal law, which still exists, a slave cannot institute a process against his master. Hence it occasionally happens that several peasants who have gained a large capital, cannot purchase their liberty for any sum, because they are subject as long as they continue slaves to be pillaged by their masters.

“The vassals who work for their masters generally receiving their maintenance, always enjoy in a sufficient abundance the common necessaries of life, and usually spend any little money they are able to acquire in clothes or spirituous liquors. Those who, in contradiction to this general rule, save the profits which they may have earned by their labour or by trade, conceal as much as possible any acquisition of fortune, and frequently bury their money under ground, this is one of the causes of the scarcity of silver currency.

“By the new code of laws the enormous power of the lord over the persons of his vassals, is reduced by restrictions more consonant to the humane principles which distinguish all the regulations of the present empire; and the right of inflicting punishment is lodged, where it ever ought to be, in the hands of the public magistrate; abuses, however, still subsist, but must in time yield to the influence of such salutary institutions.

“I am far from asserting, proceeds our author, that inhumanity is the general characteristic of the Russian nobility, or that there are not many persons who treat their

vassals with the utmost benevolence and justice. I am also aware that several peasants are in such a flourishing condition as to have formed very considerable capitals without dread of exaction; and that some even possess landed estates under their master's name; but if we consider the unhappy pleasure which too many feel in tyrannising over their inferiors, we have every reason to conclude that the generality of boors must still be cruelly oppressed.

“ A peasant may obtain his liberty, first, by manumission, which, upon the death of the master, is frequently granted to those who have served in the capacity of his immediate domestic; second by purchase* ; third by serving in the army or navy,—after entering either of these they are for ever free from their masters; and in all these cases the empress has facilitated the means of obtaining freedom by waving certain rights of the crown, which in some measure obstructed the acquisition of liberty, and she has issued several laws in their favour, which have given them some alleviation of their bondage.

“ I was surprised to find upon inquiry that no noble in Russia had franchised his vassals, in the same manner as I before mentioned to have been practised in Poland; but I may venture to predict that the time is not far distant, although an almost general prejudice seems at present to prevail with respect to the incapacity of the peasants for receiving their liberty. And this perhaps may be true in the literal sense, as many of them, unless properly instructed, would scarcely be enabled to derive a solid advantage from their freedom.

“ In consequence of a present of a thousand ducats sent in 1766 by an anonymous person, to the economicalsociety at St Peterburgh, and at the desire of the said person, the soci-

* This must depend on the will of the master who may pillage them if he has a mind; as is said above.

ety offered a premium of fifty ducats and a gold medal, value twenty-five ducats to the author of the best dissertation on the following question: "Is it most advantageous to the state that the peasant should possess lands, or only personal effects; and to what point should that property be extended for the good of the public?" The premium was adjudged to the author of a French essay in favour of the peasants. The following judicious reflection of the present empress perhaps comprehends in few words the sum of the best arguments which may be advanced on this subject. "Agriculture can never flourish in that nation where the husbandman possesses no property." Thus far Mr Coxe.

The empress is certainly much to be esteemed for her patronage of the arts and sciences, notwithstanding the ambition which appears to have excited many of her measures with regard to foreign powers. The death of her favourite Potemkin, it is to be hoped, will stop all such measures for the future. The example she has set the nobles by franchising the peasants who were her own property, is amiable; and it is to be hoped the nobles will soon be convinced that it is their interest to imitate her. Till this is done it is evident from the above extracts that the prosperity of the country must be greatly retarded.

As to the ignorance of peasants, it would appear that the lords of such peasants are strangers to the sweets of liberty, since they are not more anxious that their fellow men should enjoy them; or are under the most, selfish prejudiced, and depraved principles. But this is not peculiar to Russian lords; many among ourselves, notwithstanding our boasted superior knowledge, are no strangers to these principles, witness the African slave trade.

"Oh! is there not some patriot, in whose pow'r
That best, that godlike luxury is plac'd,
Of blessing thousands, thousands yet unborn,
Thro' late posterity?"

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, JULY 25. 1792.



THE PANGOLIN, GREAT MANIS,
OR SCALY LIZARD.

THE powers with which animals are endowed for self defence are greatly diversified, and very surprising. The skunk annoys its assailants by emitting a fetid liquor that is intolerably disagreeable to every other creature; the tortoise rests secure from all annoyance within its impenetrable shell; the hedge hog rolls itself into a ball that presents a hedge of prickles on every side, that secures it from the attacks of every large voracious animal.

Somewhat similar to that is the armour with which nature hath clothed the *manis*. All the upper parts of its body are closely covered with scales of different sizes, which it can erect at pleasure, opposing to its adversary a formidable congeries of offensive weapons. The tiger, the panther, or leopard, in vain attempt to devour it. The moment it perceives the approach of a powerful enemy, it rolls itself up like a hedge hog, and by that means secures all the weaker parts of its body.

This, like most animals that are so powerfully armed, is a timid harmless creature; and though it grows to a great size, sometimes measuring eight feet in length, it never attacks any creature by violence.

It feeds upon ants, which it catches by laying out its long red tongue, covered with an unctuous slime, across the paths of those insects. It is a native of Formosa, and the Indian isles; where these insects are found in such quantities as to furnish abundant food for this large animal, many millions of which it must devour in a day. It thus co-operates with man, in destroying those voracious insects. It is also a native of Guinea.

Its flesh is much esteemed for its delicacy, but it is difficult to procure; as the animal avoids mankind, and lives in obscure retreats, in woods, and marshy places. With its peculiar habits we are of course as yet but little acquainted.

LUCUBRATIONS OF TIMOTHY HAIRBAIRN.

For the Bee.

God prosper well our noble king,
 Our lives and safeties, all;
 I think the people are gone mad—
 The devil take them all.

Old ballad.

THE prosperity of this country is at present greater than it ever was at any former period: Her agriculture improving, her manufactures advancing with a rapidity formerly unknown, her trade extending more and more every day: The persons and property of her subjects protected at home and abroad, beyond those of any other nation that now is, or ever was upon the globe. Yet there are a set of people who complain loudly, and seem seriously to believe that the government of this country is oppressive; that the people are enthralled; that their property is unjustly taken from them; and that it is necessary, by arms, to force a total revolution in government, and put this people into a state entirely different from that in which they now are placed! *Ego video stultos; stulti vident me!* Where shall we find taylor's to make fools caps enow for such a multitude?

A hairbrained senator, whose upper works have been a little deranged for some time past, published, a while ago, a book containing some hundred pages of prose run mad, in praise of kings and queens, ladies and squires, and feats of ancient chivalry. The people ran to look at this strange production, as they would have flocked to see a rhinoceros or a mermaid; and, to indulge their curiosity, parted with their superfluous shillings

without scruple. This filled the pockets of the respectable senator, and made the *pot to boil* at home, as we Scotsmen say. And where was the mighty harm in thus enabling the hungry orator to get a comfortable repast in his old age, after so many years brawling in vain for that purpose? For my own part, I congratulate him on his having been able to obtain, at length, a little independent *peculium* in any way.

But in this land of enterprise, where so many men are on the catch for lucrative employments, was it to be supposed that this business should pass over unobserved? Or that others would not wish to profit, as he had done, by the national folly? No, no; this could not be; many tried to pick up a little gleaning for themselves in the same way.

Among these, one was particularly conspicuous. His notions were still more wild and extravagant than those of his precursor; but he took the opposite side of the question. This man, who possessed more wit than judgement, more acuteness than penetration, published some books, in which he raved with wonderful volubility against kings, and priests, and dignities, and powers. All things, by his system, should be changed. Those that used to rule, should be made to obey. The belly said to the head, I have no need of thee; therefore we will cut thee off and cast thee from us; and all the people were called:

A wonder, a wonder, a wonder to see,
A kingdom with its head where its feet should be!

And they flocked with eagerness to behold this strange sight; and the money danced once more out

of their pockets, into those of the writer, in great abundance, to his no small emolument and satisfaction.

But a wonder lasts only nine days. As the novelty of these doctrines wore off, the people began to neglect them, and the sale of these writings had greatly abated; so that poor Tom was likely to be obliged to wheel to the right about, and seek out another country for vending his wares in; when, lo! a band of heroes, armed at all points, rushed out in his support. I say in his support; though, in imitation of the pickpockets of London, they found it would best answer their purpose to make a mock attack upon him, in order that they might thus be able the more effectually to serve him. They beheld with seeming regret, it would appear, that Tom's writings began to pall upon the people, and to lie upon the booksellers shelves. And knowing that John Bull is a headstrong kind of a beast, who may be *led*, but cannot be easily *driven*, they, therefore, instead of an advertisement recommending the book, published a *proclamation* PROHIBITING the sale of such writings. The effect was, what they had no doubt foreseen. The sale was instantly augmented a thousand fold*.

* Perhaps there may be a little exaggeration here. I know that in a small town in the north of Scotland, before the proclamation, there was just *one* copy of Payne's pamphlet; and the bookseller of the place declared three weeks ago, that he had, since then, sold seven hundred and fifty copies of it. And a bookseller in Edinburgh told me that he had, before the proclamation, a good many copies of it that lay so long on his hand, that he would gladly have sold them all at two shillings a copy. He has since sold the whole of these, and many more, at three shillings and sixpence each.

The presses in the most distant corners of the country groaned under the burden of throwing off surreptitious editions of these works; commissions came from all parts for the *book that is forbidden to be sold*, so eager are the people to see what kind of a thing it is that the *king delighteth to honour*. Those that could read, pored their eyes out in looking at it; and those who could not read, listened with astonishment to the wonderful things they heard. For they never once before suspected, what they now are perfectly convinced of, that they are wiser and better men than their superiors, and much more capable of directing the affairs of the nation than they are.

Now what good can result to the nation from all this *fuss* and *fracas*, which our *wise* rulers have thought proper to excite about this foolish affair, I am not able to foresee. And whether the ministers in all this business have displayed most of *rogue* or of *fool*, I pretend not to know. But this I can easily say, that they must either fit themselves with the *fools cap*; or we shall be forced to lend them the other. Which I thus demonstratively prove.

These writings were either proper to be read by the people, or they were not proper. If they *were* proper to be read, the ministry acted a foolish part in condemning what they ought to have approved of and in exciting a bustle and ferment in the nation which they ought rather to have prevented. If these writings *were not* proper to be read by the people then they acted a *wicked* part in thus *compelling* the people, as I may say, universally to read them.

leave those who are wiser than myself to solve this important dilemma.

To conclude the farce, however, this same proclamation, which almost every man in the nation considers as foolish at least, if not highly pernicious, must be publicly praised by all the great aggregate bodies of people in Britain. The mail coaches are creaking under the load of addresses flowing from every corner of the country, thanking the king for his paternal care of his people; and commending the minister for issuing a proclamation for suppressing seditious writings; while the same coaches in return are ready to break down with loads of these seditious writings, to satisfy the curiosity of the worthy addressers. Individuals who sign these, most frankly admit, in their private capacity, that no mode they could devise would have proved so efficacious for disseminating these writings they call seditious, as the very proclamation they applaud. May we not now join in one grand chorus, to the tune of

Tantara rara fools all, fools all!

Your foreign readers will no doubt be surprised at this *just* picture I draw of my countrymen; and will be particularly at a loss to account for the *last* part of this conduct. They have heard that the *vox populi* is the *vox Dei*. For their satisfaction I shall add a few words, to let them see what is the nature of that *Deity* to which they offer up sacrifice and adoration. To most of your British readers this information might have been superfluous.

Men in public stations, and public bodies of men, in this *free* country, have always hopes of obtaining,

one day, from the administrators of government, some favour or other. Now, though, like the purchasers of lottery tickets, they well know that not one hundred thousandth part of the favours that are *expected* can ever be conferred; yet every one hopes that he himself may chance to be the lucky gainer. Hence every one is eager to put himself forward as far as he can, that he may be in Fortune's way. And as they know that a minister will consider it as a much higher compliment to him, when they disregard common sense and propriety for his sake, than if they merely do what prudence and good sense would approve of, they must have a much better chance of getting his favour when they follow him where he has evidently done wrong, than where he had only acted a wise and patriotic part. This perfectly accounts for that phrenetic zeal which has displayed itself on the present, as well as on many other occasions. What else could have induced the *individuals* of the congregated addressers to discover such extreme anxiety to have their names severally specified in the addresses? A splenetic observer would peevishly cry out, *O servum pecus!* But I, for my part, who have not one drop of gall in my composition, consider these as men neither better nor worse than other men, all over the world.

As I myself, Mr Printer, am a solitary being, below the hope of ever attracting ministerial favour, and above the fear of ever deserving punishment, I look upon the world, as it goes, with a kind of philosophic indifference, which allows me the full use of my faculties, while the perceptions of so many others,

of much better talents than myself, are lulled to sleep, or roused into phrenzy, by hope or by fear. I therefore seldom admire without reserve; nor condemn any one without mercy; for when men are *neighbour-like*, what more should we expect?

Every one, Mr Printer, strives only to get a taste of the loaves and fishes. The ministry wish to hold, as long as they can, what they have got. Their favourers hope to gain by sycophantising, what the opposition expects to force by bullying; and though they sometimes fall upon devices for that purpose, that an impartial person cannot commend, the same sort of thing is found to take place in all other employments.

The association for a reform of the constitution is evidently one of these culpable devices. There are in this association many respectable names; and so much the greater pity for it. Had they been all loggerheads I could have supposed they were misled, as many an honest numbscull has been before them. But there are men in this society who must see, that, to endeavour to rouse the multitude to force a reform in government, is, of all foolish projects, the most pernicious that could be adopted. It is as if they appealed to an assembly of porters to decide on the merits of Sir Isaac Newton's *principia*. They know all this very well; but they no doubt hope, that, by rousing this many headed monster, such a confusion may be produced, as, in the scramble, might leave an opening for them to creep into the saddle of power. In vain do they plead in their excuse that Pitt, and Richmond, and others, who now sit snugly at the helm,

attempted a plan *exactly* of the same kind they now have thought of. They have perfectly succeeded in proving this, it is true; but what does the nation gain by that? Two blacks do not make a white in this country. And it is but a small consolation to the people, to have proof positive laid before their eyes, that the rogues that are out of place are equally unprincipled with those that are in. I fear I must now change my tune, but instead of adopting the fashionable French air *ça ira, ça ira*; we shall keep by our good old English ditty,

Tantara rara rogues all, rogues all.

It will not be expected, while I entertain such an opinion of the rulers, and of the ruled in this nation, that I should think there is nothing in this country that requires amendment. God forbid that I should ever entertain so monstrous an opinion! May God mend us all, say I; for we have much need of it: and every thing that comes through the hands of such bunglers, must stand in need of constant amendment. But since we are such a parcel of rogues and fools, common sense requires, that, in this said work of amendment, we should proceed with all due caution, so as to be sure, that, in attempting to stop up one hole, we do not make a dozen, that are each of them worse than the old one. Instead, therefore, of putting ten thousand hammers at once into the hands of men who never had a hammer in their hands before, and inviting them to fall pell mell to work on the old cauldron of the constitution, I would be for employing some good experienced hands to look continually around it; and wherever a flaw begins to appear, let a remedy for that particular evil be quietly,

and *cautiously* applied ; always recollecting the good old adage, that “ a stitch in time saves nine.” Let the master tinkers, then, who have served a regular apprenticeship, be continually on the watch to see that nothing goes far wrong ; but, as to the fellows with strong arms only, and weighty hammers, give them some common job to work at, where, if they do no good, they can do little harm. Who would ever think of employing a blacksmith to repair a Harrison’s time-keeper ? Who would think of listening to the ravings of an illiterate mechanic, who thought that he had discovered the longitude, as thousands of such have seriously believed they had done ? But the constitution of a government is a much more complicated machine than a time-piece ; and it requires much greater talents to discover, *a priori*, what would be right or wrong, with regard to it, than to discover the longitude. The speculations on this subject of More, Harrison, Locke, Montesquieu, Hume, Stewart, and Smith, are well known to be, in many particulars, only impracticable reveries. If the minds of *such* men then have been unable to grasp this wide subject, in all its extent, what are we to expect will be the result of the speculations of butchers and taylors, porters and draymen, when they pretend to decide upon it ? These are all respectable members of society when they act in their own spheres, but when they depart from it they become truly ridiculous.—“ *Non omnia possumus omnes,*” is an old and a just adage. “ There are two points in politics,” says a very ingenious writer, whose works are too little known *, “ very hard to compass. One is, to persuade legislators that

* Bentham’s view of the Panopticon p. 66.

they do not understand shoemaking better than shoemakers; the other is, to persuade shoemakers that they do not understand legislating better than legislators. The latter point is particularly difficult in our own dear country; but the other is the hardest of all hard things every where."

These, Mr Editor, are the plain thoughts of a plain man, expressed plainly and without disguise. I shall conclude these lucubrations with an illustration, by way of variety.

The constitution of Britain may be likened to a rose, which, though one of the most beautiful objects in nature, still is armed with thorns, that sometimes prick those to the quick who come near it. This rose, however, with all its defects, is the finest object of its kind that is to be met with in nature; and may therefore be called the rose *unique*. It was picked up by our forefathers, some thousand years ago, in the wilds of Germany, where it was a poor, weakly, stunted thing; but being transplanted into the British soil, it there took root and thrived amazingly. It has been there carefully nursed and improved by incessant culture, till it has gradually acquired a health, a vigour, a magnitude, that never had a parallel upon the globe. Its foliage is fresh; and it yields every year such an amazing abundance of beautiful and fragrant flowers, as to be the astonishment of all the universe. People from the most distant nations come to look at and admire it. But still these cursed thorns give infinite umbrage to some finical gardeners, who will be satisfied with nothing short of perfection. These thorns are, to such per-

sons, so very disgusting, that they can see nothing else. There is no beauty in this rose they say; it is altogether an abomination!—Yes! say they, with Jonah, in a pet, ‘we do well to be angry with this thing, even unto death.’

At last a bold empiric appears, who, like Paracelsus, pretends to have discovered an infallible cure for this disorder. “Pluck up this rose by the root, says he. The soil in which it grows is rank and foul, and worn out with age, which occasions those vile prickles that distress us. Pluck it out by the root, I say, without fear. Trench up the soil on which it grows; bury deep that vile *fat* earth which generates this disease; and bring up some poor mould from the bottom, in which no noxious weeds will find nourishment. Then by sprinkling it with a *quantum sufficit* of our newly discovered manure, and planting the rose afresh, after lopping off all its spiny branches, it will spring up with much greater vigour than it ever did before: Its beautiful branches will be smooth as a willow; its flowers will be more abundant, more fragrant; and in every respect superior to any thing that ever has been seen in the world. Pluck it up, I say; make haste,—every hour you delay is only a loss of time. I’ll answer for the consequences. Fear nothing.”

‘Nay, nay, says the owner of this fine plant,—not quite so fast friend, if you please. It has required a great attention and many years incessant care, to bring this plant to its present perfection. The soil, you see, is perfectly congenial to it; the climate suitable. It has long resisted storms and hurricanes that have ruined many other plants, that appeared, *in their youth*, to pos-

sefs much vigour. I must first beg leave to know, in case your *infallible* manure should prove like the *infallible* phial of Paracelsus, how I shall be able to restore that to life, which is already dead? A gardener, like yourself, came last year to this place from France, with a great variety of fine plants, which he assured me, in the most positive manner, were all genuine; and I might trust my life to their proving true. He sold to me a plant which he said would produce *black* roses. I paid him a high price for it: See there it grows,—a puny plant it is; and the few roses it bears are of a pale pink colour. Now, what would become of me should you turn out as great a quack as he was? There is only this single plant of its kind in the universe; should it be once lost I never may find the like again. No, no, friend; were Baron Van Haak himself to rise from the dead, and assert the omnipotence of this manure, I would not take his word for it. I should tell him to go and rest in peace with his fathers. Nothing shall ever induce me to destroy this valuable plant, while it is evidently possessed of a health and vigour that no other plant of the same sort ever could equal.

‘I know indeed that it has spines. This is one of those inevitable evils which nature hath annexed to all sublunary things. But look around and compare it with all other plants of the same kind you have ever seen! How poor,—how puny,—how insignificant are they, when compared with it! Try your manures if you think proper upon other soils. *They* have evidently occasion for it. There, the puny plants, in place of flowers, carry not even leaves to cover their

naked stalks. Immense swarms of insects suck out their vital sap; and no sooner does a leaf appear than a caterpillar siezes on it, warps it up like a garment around her, and soon consumes it. It is true that a few insects sometimes are found attempting to prey upon this plant of mine too; but I have people constantly upon the watch to brush them off with a feather. By this gentle kind of remedy we have contrived to keep them under; and though we never can eradicate these insects entirely, we so diminish their power, that they do no material damage to the plant: And if, at a time, a caterpillar should chance to seize upon a leaf, it is soon discovered, and picked off by hand, and singly destroyed. Under this mode of management has our rose flourished for ages; and has at length attained the envied pre-eminence it now enjoys: And though it, indeed, cannot boast of perfection, yet by the same mode of management, and the blessing of heaven, we hope to be able to make it attain a still higher degree of beauty.

‘Go elsewhere then, Mr Quack, and sell your boasted wares. Britain is not the place for you to succeed in.’

Here ends, for the present, the lucubrations of
TIMOTHY HAIRBRAIN*.

* The above remarks of our friend *Hairbrain*, many will think, are more plain than pleasing. And on the first glance, we were in some doubt whether the inserting of them might not give umbrage to some of our readers. But, on a second perusal, there seemed to be in good truth so much good humour, and so very little gall in every part of them, that it seemed to be impossible any one could be seriously displeas'd to see our facetious correspondent making game of all who came in his way as he pass'd along. If any one should find himself dispos'd to be piqued at seeing

Scribendi recte sapere est et principium et fons.

HORACE.

A little learning is a dangerous thing,
Drink deep, or taste not the Pierean spring:

POPE.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

As fire is struck out by the friction of certain bodies so truth frequently shines forth amidst the collisions and jarrings of opposite opinions and sentiments. For this reason the following animadversions on a very censurable performance, entitled "remarks on the political progress of Britain, by Timothy Thunderproof," will hardly need an apology to one whose chief aim in his present lucubrations is the discovery of truth, as well as the dissemination of useful knowledge.

I shall confine myself entirely to those "remarks," contained in your Bee of February 29th; not that these are more faulty than their predecessors, but because I should otherwise swell my letter to a very inconvenient size.

Mr Thunderproof's arguments, if such they may be called, hardly merit a serious refutation. He seems to be a gentleman whose temper of mind is soured by disappointment, perhaps by misfortune, and on that

his favourites treated with a little freedom, he has only to go on a little, and he will be put into good humour, by seeing those he does not like become in their turn the butt of this droll; who, like the wife of Bath, (not Chaucer's wife, but the old Scotch wife of Bath) reads every one their ditty, in order to silence them; to humble their pride, by shewing them that they are themselves no better than they should be, and that therefore they have no right to hold others in contempt, who have not perhaps been so fortunate as themselves in their journey through life. Men are perhaps as nearly alike by their parity in follies, as by any other circumstance. *Edt.*

account ought no doubt to be treated with greater lenity than his performance deserves.

The first thing Mr Thunderproof quarrels with, in these latter remarks, is the fortress of Gibraltar, the retention of which, by Britain, he considers as highly criminal as well as absurd. Whether this garrison has produced advantages to Britain equivalent to the enormous expence it has cost her, may perhaps be difficult to say: Could it be razed to the ground, or overwhelmed by an earthquake, or some convulsion of nature, without occasioning the loss of any lives, either of these events might perhaps be auspicious to this country; but as we can have no reasonable expectation of getting rid of it in this manner, it is certain that if we do give it up, it must pass into the hands of the Spanish monarch, or at least into those of some of the other European princes; and its importance is such as must make it add considerably to the weight and consequence of the sovereign to whom it belongs. Now, as it is a settled maxim in politics, that in proportion as any nation rises in strength and power, its neighbours sink into insignificance and obscurity, perhaps this consideration alone may afford a sufficient reason for its retention; not to mention that it shelters our fleets in the time of war; that it renders our commerce in the Mediterranean and Levant more secure than that of any other European nation; and, besides, that it materially contributed to the preservation of our West India islands in our late wars with France and Spain. Mr T——, as it is natural to suppose, would fain make us believe that these wars, on the part of the latter power, drew their origin chiefly from our possession of this fortress.

He surely cannot be ignorant that they originated altogether in the family compact, which was undoubtedly powerful enough to give birth to them, without the intervention of any other cause.

The war of the Spanish succession, which, on the part of the allies, was undertaken solely to preserve an equality in the balance of power among the European princes, was evidently a wise and necessary war in its beginning, whatever it was before its conclusion; yet Mr T—— asserts, in defiance of common sense, and in his usual petulant manner, that “England, with a degree of insolence, unmatched in history, interfered in favour of an Austrian candidate.” This Mr T—— no doubt admires as a smart expression. Indeed the quality of smartness is all that he seems to aim at;—common sense and regard to truth are out of the question. Mr T—— should, however, reflect, that though a smart and lively expression, when it conveys a meaning, affords us much pleasure, yet, when it conveys no meaning at all, or covers an absurd or an unfounded assertion, it is the more reprehensible, that it proves the writer, though ignorant and weak, to be nevertheless vain and assuming. Of this kind, too, is the following paragraph, which is indeed as extravagant as any ever committed to paper. After praising James I. for his pacific measures, Mr T—— adds, “Had it been possible to prolong the life of this monarch to the present day,” (an uninterrupted peace would no doubt have followed as a necessary consequence,) “Britain would long before this time have advanced to a state of cultivation not inferior to that of China.” James was by no means

a warlike monarch, because the bent of his mind lay more to books than to the bustle of war; but can any man be so void of intellect as to maintain this ridiculous paradox, that peace can always be preserved, consistently with national safety, because a particular prince may, and did preserve it for a considerable time, by putting up, in a dastardly manner, with the insults and buffetings of the nations around him? It is certain, indeed, that nations, like men, are always quarrelling among themselves, and encroaching upon each other's privileges; and it is no less certain that insults and encroachments of this kind increase according to the backwardness or pusillanimity discovered by any particular state in defending itself, and repelling the invaders; nor will they be discontinued till such state be entirely stripped of its commerce and its appendages, and itself, at last, dismembered and parcelled out among its more enterprising and warlike neighbours: At least we must fairly acknowledge that this would be the necessary consequence, were it not for the wise and cautious policy of the *balance of power*, so well known to modern times; though this prudential system was entirely overlooked in the case of the dismemberment of Poland, I think about twenty years ago by the *Shakespeare of kings*. In fact it would be as ridiculous and unaccountable in a nation, to behold with indifference the insults and infractions of its neighbours, as it would be in a man to allow himself to be beaten, or run through the body, without making any exertion in his own defence.

On this principle we were under the necessity of resenting the late infraction of the Spaniards, though

Mr T—— condemns us for it, as having acted against the pacific system. The monarch already mentioned was the best of kings, and Sir Robert Walpole the best of ministers; while lord Chatham is reprobated as “the worst minister that ever any nation was cursed with.”

Upon the whole, every thing is making a rapid progress to destruction. The constitution is nought but a “conspiracy of the rich against the poor.” It is, however, sufficient to excite laughter in the most puritanical countenance, that the only instance he brings forward in proof of all these accumulated evils, is that of an old woman who “had been in the practice of supplying her neighbours with half-penny-worths of snuff; but is now in an excise court, and will probably be soon reduced to beggary.”

From Mr T——’s glancing at Ireland, and the dean of St Patrick, in some of his former remarks, it would seem that he considers himself another Swift, risen to reform the world; and is therefore determined that all things shall be wrong, that he may have the merit of setting them to rights. In this point of view, indeed, he very much resembles the celebrated knight of la Mancha, whose behaviour, upon the whole, he seems to have laid down as a pattern for himself. He must, nevertheless, acknowledge, that his imitation of this great prototype and master, has not been slavish; we must even fairly allow him the merit of making one considerable improvement. For whereas the renowned Don Quixote was pleased to take unto himself a fair lady for a Dul-

cinea, this same disciple of his, in the true spirit of knight errantry, has adopted a poor old snuff-selling matron; and this is the more generous, that he tells us himself she is now almost reduced to beggary. To be serious: This gentleman may, indeed, fancy himself another Swift, or a very great politician, but it is certain that the wiser part of your readers consider him, in this respect, as very much resembling the frog in the fable..

If Mr T—— continues his *remarks*, I may some time or other trouble you with another letter. In the mean time I shall beg leave to conclude with a reflection, that, I hope, you will not think altogether unseasonable.

There is nothing in nature more ridiculous than that universal propensity in all inferior geniuses to ape their superiors. Incapable of reaching their higher attainments, they generally content themselves with imitating their imperfections. Men of illustrious talents diffuse around their very errors, an ingenuity and a splendour, that dazzle and ensnare the bulk of mankind; while the productions of inferior writers, stuffed with these very defects and imperfections they have so industriously gleaned, possess not a single ray of that flame of genius, so indispensibly necessary to render them anywise supportable. I am, Sir, with much respect, your most humble servant,

MISOBRONTES*.

Geo. Square, }
March 3. 1792. }

* In proof of that impartiality which the Editor hopes he ever shall be found to adhere to, and on no other account, the above piece has been reluctantly admitted. The personalities it contains, are far from what

 READING MEMORANDUMS.

For the Bee.

“ No pleasure is comparable to the standing upon the vantage ground of truth, (an hill not to be commanded, and where the air is always clear and serene,) and to see the errors, and wanderings, and mists, and tempests in the valley below : So always, however, that this prospect be with pity, and not with swelling of pride. Certainly it is heaven upon earth to have a man’s mind move in charity, rest in providence, and turn upon the poles of truth.”

Lord Bacon’s essays.

“ It is as natural to die as to be born ; and to a little infant, who anticipates no evil, perhaps the one is as little painful as the other.

“ He that dies in an earnest pursuit, is like one that is wounded in hot blood, who, for the time, scarce feels the hurt ; and therefore a mind, fixed and bent upon somewhat that is good and praise worthy, does thereby avert the terrors of death.” *Bacon.*

He wishes to see in this miscellany, and hopes no one will so far presume upon this indulgence as to expect a similar mode of writing will be encouraged by him. Should this be permitted we might expect rejoinders and replies without end, where every one contended only for victory, or to display the stretch of his own talents. To avoid such useless discussions, the Editor begs leave to inform this writer and others, that he will carefully reject such pieces as appear to him to be calculated for that purpose chiefly, by whomsoever they be written, or on whatever subject. Where men differ in opinion from each other, and calmly adduce arguments in favour of that opinion, without any personal allusions, they shall be attended to with all possible tenderness, if they do not run out to too great a length. This conduct he thinks should give no just cause of offence to any candid person.

What a noble incitement does the great lord Verulam give here to shun *idleness*, and to be up and be doing in behalf of our families and country! Believe me, said that glorious philosopher, that when a man has obtained worthy ends and expectations, the sweetest canticle to his soul will be a "Lord now lettest thou thy servant depart in peace."

"Death hath this also, (adds he,) that it openeth the gate to deserved fame, and extinguisheth envy. "Extinctus a mabitur idem."

"The perpetuity by generation is common to beasts: But memory, merit, and noble works, are proper to men: And surely we shall observe that the noblest works and foundations have proceeded from *childless men*, who have sought to express the images of their minds, where those of their bodies have been wanting, or have failed." *Bacon.*

An cum statuas et imagines, non animorum simulacra sed corporum, studiose multi summi homines reliquerunt; consiliorum relinquere, ac virtutum nostrarum effigiem nonne multo malle debemus, summis ingeniis expressam et politam?

Ciceronis Oratio pro Archia poeta, Cap. xii.

May these truly wise and important reflections find their way to the eyes, hearts, and understandings of those who are seeking, in vain, for happiness in frivolous pursuits; and, may they be excited to cultivate the universal passion by deeds that may render it pleasing, permanent, and respectable! Nor let the softer sex imagine that they are exempted

from the laudable pursuit of legitimate fame. How many families have been blessed and restored by the prudence and economy of mothers and wives who have survived their husbands !

What a bounty *they* have to improve their minds, and to elevate their thoughts, that they may be able to imbue the tender minds of their children with useful knowledge, and with the principles of moral sentiment, without which nothing excellent can be expected when they rise to maturity.

By degrees
 The human blossom blows, and every day,
 Soft as it rolls along, shews some new charm,
 The father's lustre and the mother's bloom.
 Then infant reason grows apace, and calls
 For the kind hand of an assiduous care;
 Delightful task! to rear the tender thought,
 To teach the young idea how to shoot,
 To pour the fresh instruction o'er the mind,
 To breathe th' inspiring spirit, and to plant
 The generous purpose in the glowing breast.

B.

THE dear and tender attachments that bind parents to their children, serve also as a subsequent and more affecting *nuptial* band for uniting those parents more intimately to each other, and draw about them a new circle of interest and of love.

Foreknowledge of evil, would but double the misery ; and foreknowledge of good, would but deprive us of hope, by certainty ; and *hope is a blessing* perhaps preferable to possession.

Happiness is not the gift of riches alone, but dependent on a right way of thinking, and a proper regulation of our passions and appetites.

SONNET.

For the Bee.

THO' Salton* thy domains unshelter'd seem,
 And less than each adjacent village fair,
 Yet with that light which mem'ry's classic beam
 Around thee throws, can nought of theirs compare

In thee Dunbar, of Scottish bards supreme,
 Inhal'd his earliest draught of vital air;
 Dunbar, whose song with fancy's brilliant gleam,
 Conjoins the comic boast of humour rare.

Dunbar, whose mystic Rose and Thistle twine,
 Unfading glory may so boldly claim,
 Whose Golden Terge †, enrich'd with forms divine,
 Shall hang for ever in the hall of fame!

Hail charming bard, to thee some future day,
 Perhaps my critic pow'rs may larger tribute pay.
 Salton, June 14. 1792.

A. T. †

MODERN REFINEMENT, OR A CHARACTER OF THE TIMES.

AN EPISTLE TO A FRIEND ON THE NEW YEAR.

For the Bee.

“ *Nona ætas agitur, pejora que secula ferri*
 “ *Temporibus, quorum scelere non invenit ipsa,*
 “ *Nomen, et a nullo posuit natura metallo.*” Juv. Sat. 13.

Worse than the iron age!—these modern times
 Are so depraved, that nature; for their crimes,
 Not in her basest metal finds a name.

WHILE I the prevalence of vice bewail,
 My friend, my genius, my Mæcenas, hail!
 By thee inspir'd, and prompted by thy praise,
 I first presum'd to scan my infant lays;
 And now more versant in Apollo's laws,
 Present them to the world for its applause.

* The village of Salton in East Lothian.

† The Thistle and Rose, the Golden Terge, (shield) both allegorical poems, and esteemed the best of Dunbar's compositions.

‡ A critical account of the ancient poets of Scotland is still wanted; for although Mr Pinkerton has begun to tread in that walk, yet the field is so wide, and the views that may be taken of that subject so various; that there is here room for many labourers, without interfering with each other. We hope our ingenious correspondent will not relinquish the design pointed at in these lines; and sincerely wish him health and spirits happily to accomplish it.

Edit.

When I appear a candidate for fame,
 Grant me— —! the shelter of thy name.
 Dear to thy friends, and to the muses dear,
 Thy poet greets thee on the new born year.
 If in th' event, 'tis happiest for thee,
 May heaven prolong a life so dear to me!
 And if to future times my rhymes descend,
 Let them record that— —was my friend;
 Thy sweet retreat I hope to see e're long,
 Meanwhile accept the tribute of a song.

Hail Ninety-two! while yet unstain'd with blame,
 Erect new trophies to *Britannia's* fame!
 But check the gross corruption of the times,
 Great is her glory, greater are her crimes!
 Now let the wise, the good, the sons of light,
 To stem the torrent, all their pow'rs unite;
 Now let religious feuds, and party zeal,
 Yield to the int'rest of 'the public weal.
 My feeble, best endeavours, I'll exert,
 Nor, while I live, the glorious cause desert.
 May he, whose grace can prosper the event,
 Accept the means and bless the instrument!
 One sinner from the error of his ways
 To save, the labours of a life repays.

What will this naughty world come to at last?
 Each rising age more vicious than the past;
 Refined in vice, in all the arts of fraud;
 Less by divine than human justice aw'd!
 We shun the villany of ruder times,
 Though for more secret more malignant crimes.
 Under the mask of friendship, void of shame,
 We now betray and wound our neighbours fame.
 Candour, benevolence, truth, justice, fail;
 Self-love, deceit, iniquity, prevail.
 Dire luxury, with all her train of ills,
 The heart inflames, with pride and passion fills.
 Taught by our sires contempt for all above,
 Like hopeful sons we on their crimes improve.
 Th' exploded doctrines of the sacred page,
 The scorn and jest of this licentious age;
 Vice like its author, boldly walks abroad,
 We laugh at virtue and insult our God.
 We own (such is our character at best)
 No God but gold, no tie but interest.
 By mercenary motives all are led;
 Faith from the earth has with religion fled.
 In short no action is too mean, too base,
 For this perfidious execrable race.
 How vainly boasts the self-enlighten'd sage,
 Th' unrivall'd wisdom of this impious age!
 Such, so corrupt the manners of the times,
 The world must sink beneath the burthen of her crimes:

GLEANINGS OF LITERATURE.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

ALTHOUGH the authors of the theory of Moral Sentiments, and the Rambler, have contributed to bring into discredit every kind of miscellaneous and periodical publication. I remain perfectly convinced of their utility, on account of their tendency to diffuse knowledge among the middling and poorer ranks of society, and to attract the notice of idlers and triflers. I have therefore from the beginning been a friend to your undertaking, which, without descending to foment the frivolity and lubricity of the times, applies itself judiciously to that love of novelty and variety, which distinguishes our modern world from the plodding world of our fathers.

With a view to contribute somewhat to the pasture of the Bee, I have thought that it might not be amiss to set an example of forming an article in your miscellany, composed of pertinent selections from the epistolary correspondence of persons of learning and taste, which have not been published; thereby preserving many curious, useful, and agreeable particulars, which might otherwise be finally lost, either from the inadequacy of the whole pieces, in which they are contained, to appear before the public, or the difficulty of rendering them in that shape profitable either to the editor or to the reader.

Many important facts, many vivacious and agreeable remarks, many beautiful and prolific thoughts, are to be found scattered amid the rubbish of trivial correspondence; and one cannot but wish that they should be picked up and preserved.

Every person of literary eminence, indeed almost every person of taste, sentiment, and social inclination, must, in

the course of an ordinary lifetime, be possessed of many specimens of fruitful imagination, painful investigation, or light brilliant and agreeable remark or reflection, in the letters of his friends, and, without impropriety, may render them *anonymously* useful to society at large. Retired from the busy world, my own correspondence has not been extensive; yet it contains many emanations of the human mind divine, that may be useful and agreeable to a remote posterity, and ought not to be involved in the general heretical catastrophe that generally attends the letters of the vulgar. Why should a fine thought be doomed to inclose a pound of butter, a roll of tobacco, or to singe a pullet, when it might light up a brilliant flame in the mind of a poet, or furnish matter for the page of a philosophical historian?

Having said so much, Sir, by way of apology, for offering my scanty gleanings as a specimen of what I wish to promote, I shall proceed frankly to present them to your readers, hoping that they may hereafter call forth such as may be found more worthy of their attention. I am, Sir, your humble servant,

PAPYRIUS PRÆCURSOR.

“ I met yesterday with a line of Martial that pleased me much, and I will here give it as it may have escaped your observation.

“ *Fortuna multis dat nimis, nulli satis.*”

“ As the goddess has not thought proper to distinguish you or your humble servant by the first part of the line, I would fain hope, that, in one of her whims, she will give us the *satis*. But alas! what is that *satis*? our mellifluous English poet, with all the aid of the philosophical Bolingbroke, shrunk from the definition of *satis* in his bold description of happiness, while health and peace cost him but a few scratches of his elegant pen!

“Methinks he was chicken hearted, and might have done it with a dash, by setting it down to the account of moderate desires.

“It is the fret that gets upon our minds, and the want of sedatives to allay it, that plays the devil with us all.

“Let us cultivate engaging, and rational, and easily attainable pursuits, as the sedatives for this fret, and all will be well.

“If fortune, who governs all things, shall call us into eminent or busy stations, let us be daring and busy; but if she compels us to remain in the shade, let us remember that the laurel thrives in the shade with peculiar procerity.

“I was born to the possession of a small estate, and having misd my way in the world, by some of the freaks of the fickle She that stands upon the globe with a bandage on her eyes, I have lately ended a poetical essay on my own pursuits, in the following manner, after having said that I desire not *“volitare vivus per ora virum :*

“Thus would I pass my unambitious days,

“Unknown to envy, undisturb'd with praise;

“Guiltless, enjoy the lot Heav'n freely gave,

“Steal soft through life, and hide me in the grave.

“The great misery with respect to this said business of contentment, is, that we imagine we can obtain it by the power of ratiocination; and by comparing our situations with such as are more unfortunate than our own. Now contentment, as I said before, is only to be obtained by going out of ourselves, to dwell upon agreeable, interesting, and permanent objects and pursuits, that prevent us from falling back (as it were) and pressing upon ourselves, which must certainly terminate in quarrelling with ourselves, or in the production of the English spleen, or French *ennui*, a disease from which, that you may be preserved, by my admirable nostrum, is the sincere and hearty prayer of, my dear Sir, your affectionate humble servant.”

A TURKISH CURE FOR THE GOUT.

On reading the following little story you will find the cure.

A RICH Turk, a man of considerable note in his own country, having been taken by a Maltese galley, had the good fortune to please the knight who commanded her. He took this Turk into his own service, and treated him in such a manner as the slave had no room to expect. That knight was often subjected to very severe attacks of the gout;—his slave, whom he loved, and who was even familiar with him, said often to him, ‘if you were in my country I would cure you entirely; but the remedy is such as cannot be made use of in this place.’

After some years, the knight being satisfied with his slave, gave him his liberty without ransom. The Turk on his return home, made an armament to cruise against the Christians. He had the good fortune to take a vessel bound for Malta. When the prisoners passed in review before him, he recognised the knight, his old master and benefactor. He made a sign that this knight should be separated from the others; gave orders that he should not be put in irons; and that they should treat him as his own person; but he would not see nor speak to him.

The corsairs having arrived at the place of rendezvous, the Turkish captain asked of his associates that particular slave, in preference; and that being granted him, he caused them give him a horse, and conduct him to his house. Scarcely was he arrived and lodged in a handsome apartment, magnificently furnished according to the manner of the place, when he saw seven or eight men enter, who, without saying a word, undressed him, stretched him on a matras in the middle of the room, tied his feet to a great

stick, and two of them gave him four or five hundred strokes with a small rod on the soles of his feet, which made them swell to an amazing size. Another Turk afterwards scarified them with much address, and made all the curdled blood run out, and poured upon them a remarkably odoriferous balm: After which they carried him to a balcony, where there was a bed composed of good matras-ses, with rich coverings. The physician, with three or four slaves, watched him continually, and served him with infinite attention. They dressed his feet twice a-day; they gave him the best food. But, without entering into conversation with him, they only bade him have good courage, and ask whatever he wanted.

The knight did not know what to think of such odd treatment; he waited for the explanation of it with impatience. When, at the end of six or seven days, his wounds were quite cured, and he felt himself able to rise and walk, they gave him a very rich Turkish dress, and his patron came to see him. He demanded first to know who he was, and then asked if he knew him: The knight could not recollect his old slave,—years had changed him; a long beard shaded part of his face, and the flourishing condition in which he saw him, rendered it impossible to know him again.

What! said the Turkish captain, is it possible that you have forgot your slave Ibrahim? it is I whom you treated with so much generosity;—know that a benefit is never lost among musulmans. I had pity upon you when you suffered the tortures of the gout, and I told you that if you were in my country I would have you cured so as never to be more troubled with it: I have been as good as my word;—you are cured,—you have suffered,—but you shall suffer no longer;—the gout shall never distress you more. The knight thanked him for the good treatment which he had received, after a modest complaint of

the bastinado ; soon after, there was no more word of it. He staid six months with his benefactor, who loaded him with favours and caresses ; and when the knight wished to return to his country, he caused him to embark in a Christian vessel with his people, and defrayed the expences of his passage.

Such is the remedy :—It is at the service of all who are troubled with the gout. The balm which they made use of was the true balm of Mecca or Judea, which is known every where in Europe.

ANECDOTE OF A NEW MADE JUSTICE.

A NEW made justice of the peace, in order to qualify himself for discharging the duties of his office, pored over some old law books, in one of which he found an act, inflicting a penalty on such persons as should ‘*fire any beacon,*’ which he unfortunately read, ‘*fry any bacon.*’ His worship, a few days after this discovery, riding through a village, caught a poor woman in the very act of frying some rashers for her dinner ; zealous to fulfil his duty, he caused her immediately to be apprehended and committed to prison, and at the next quarter sessions had her brought forth and arraigned for that offence ; when an explanation took place, greatly at the expence of his worship’s erudition, and to the no small diversion of a crowded court.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

MATTHEW BRAMBLE’s tale is received. When this writer has acquired a little more correctness in composition, and chasteness of taste, his lucubrations may probably be well received by the public. In the mean while it will be necessary to attend somewhat more than he has yet done to these particulars. It is evident that nothing is, in general, so pleasing as that easy genteel air which people who have good sense, and good dispositions, usually acquire, when they have had a long continued intercourse in the polite circle. But few things can be more disgusting than the forward hoydon pertness of one who, not having had the same opportunity of improving, affects that ease of manner which he sees so much admired in others.

Farther acknowledgements deferred for want of room.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 2, 1792.

ESSAY ON COUGHS AND COLDS.

For the Bee.

THIS distemper is called by foreigners the English plague. It consists with my knowledge, that foreigners are some times prevented from visiting our island, from a dread of catching what they call *la consomption Angloise*. I have known this dread operate upon foreign gentlemen, otherwise sufficiently manly, and very desirous of paying us a visit.

The general belief on the continent is, that a cough is a contagious distemper. There is a story at Rome of an Italian nobleman, and all his family, having died of a consumption, which they were supposed to have caught by using an English gentleman's post chaise, sold after his dying of this disease.

It is not long since a friend of mine, whom the physicians of London advised to sail for health, was refused admittance into the city of Cadiz. Nay, after leave had been obtained from the Office of Health, there was but one innkeeper in that town (an Irishman,) who would admit him into his hotel; and that only, after agreeing for the value of all the furniture

of the apartment, to which the invalid was admitted. He died in a few days, when every bit of this furniture and bedding was burnt in the court yard of the hotel.

Before we condemn an opinion which appears to us to proceed from prejudice and ignorance, it may be worth while to examine how far there is any foundation in reality for it. And this is the more necessary that, with us, this distemper is often found to baffle the skill of our best physicians. Perhaps, like the gout and rheumatism, the cause of this distemper has hitherto eluded all our researches.

The following hints are suggested, with much deference and humility, for the consideration of the public, by one, not a physician, nor at all versant in the science of medicine.

1st. To define the distemper I am treating of: It begins by a slight affection of the glands of the throat and nose, which in a day or two occasions a coughing that increases in violence for some time; after which it either gradually abates, or ends in what is called a consumption, occasioned by ulcers or other tubercles in the lungs. I would observe,

2d. The futility of the causes commonly assigned for our catching cold. Avoid wetting your feet, avoid sitting in a draught of air, and night dews, avoid damp linen, are advices commonly given to those in whose health we take an interest. Yet how many catch colds which can be imputed to none of these causes! and how many preserve themselves perfectly free from this distemper, although daily exposed to them all!

A Highlander's first step in the morning is into a brook, for the purpose of wetting his feet. His house sometimes has no door to exclude a draught of air, nor his window any glass. He is indeed not much exposed to wet linen, but many tradesmen, by hard labour, are in a continual perspiration, and have their linen constantly wet.

3d. There are none who doubt of the influenza being contagious. Its symptoms, however, differ very little, except in their violence, from a common cold. May it not be owing to its superior degree of violence, that its contagion spreads wider than the contagion of common colds? It is needless to enlarge upon a subject so generally known, and so often felt, by many of your readers, as the effects of the influenza. I was told by the captain of a vessel, a man of honour and veracity, that his bark carried the influenza in the year 1784, first into Shetland, and then to the Orkneys. It had raged all that spring on the main land; but, till he arrived, the distemper had not appeared in those islands. But in twenty-four hours after his landing, the whole inhabitants were seized with it; and the same thing continued to happen invariably at every island where he touched.

4th. Common colds are sometimes little less contagious. Two writers of veracity Mr Martin and the revd. Mr Maculloch, assure us that the steward of St Kilda, on his annual visit to collect the rents of that island, generally carries this contagion with him, and that the whole inhabitants are violently affected by it in a few days after his arrival.

His visit being only paid once in the year, it is probable the salubrious air of the island perfectly eradicates the distemper, till it be again imported afresh in the same manner.

5th. A surgeon of a man of war assured me that he had often remarked, that, although colds were frequent in his ship before it put to sea, the people soon got well, and never were taken ill again till they put again into port. The same observation was made to me by many other seafaring people.

A lieutenant of a man of war assured me, that, on returning from the Newfoundland station, where the people had been remarkably healthy, and free from colds, they were all coughing in the first week after the ship's return to England. Neither do I learn that the excessive cold of Greenland exposes our fishers to that distemper.

6th. Those who quit the country to pass the winter in our cities, particularly in London, are frequently seized with a cold immediately on their coming to town, although much less exposed to the severity of the winter than in the country.

7th. May it not be inferred from hence that the air in our towns, in the winter season, is infected with this contagion, perhaps in proportion to the size of the towns, and the huddled manner in which the inhabitants are crammed together in them?

8th. People ascribe their colds very commonly to a cold blast they have got in coming from church, playhouse, and other crowded assemblies. May not their colds be more probably owing to the foul in-

fectured air they have breathed for so long a time in these places?

9th. Some have fancied colds to be owing to the pores being suddenly shut up. Yet we rarely catch cold when we rise from our beds, although a transition from a warm bed, to the half naked state we are in while we dress, must certainly shut up all our pores. A Russian cure for the cold is said to be first stewing in a steam bath, and then rolling among snow. Our pores serve as discharging vessels or emunctuaries to the body. Perhaps anatomists may discover, if it has not been already discovered, that our pores are provided, like our veins and arteries, with valves to prevent any retrograde flux of humours back again into the human body. If this should prove to be the case, it would be as absurd to suppose we could imbibe contagion by the pores, as to suppose the water of a river could be poisoned at its mouth, instead of its source.

10th. It is known that the human body is provided with absorbent vessels, the purpose of which is to imbibe air and nourishment into the animal system. Along with air, may not these vessels also imbibe any contagious vapours with which the air chances to be loaded? And is not this opinion confirmed by our being much more apt to catch cold, if we go abroad fasting, than after making a hearty breakfast?

11th. It is observed that moist weather is more apt to give colds, than dry frosty weather, though colder. Does not this amount to an absolute proof, of the infectious nature of the disease? because moist

air is better fitted for attracting and suspending contagious vapours, than when dried either by excessive heat or cold. A hot summer causes the plague to cease at Constantinople, as readily as a cold winter, and indeed more so; because furs and woollen clothes, the great retainers of contagion, are more used in winter than summer.

12th. Air being heavier, and more loaded with vapours as it approaches nearer to the earth, may be the reason why the influenza commonly seizes first upon dogs and horses, and why it is considered as more wholesome to live in an upper story, than on the ground floor of a house.

13th. The most successful prescription, and one to which physicians are driven when colds are very obstinate, is country air. May not its efficacy in curing the distemper proceed as much from its being less impregnated with contagious vapours, as from its being purer in other respects?

14th. Certain habits of body expose some individuals of a family to catch cold more readily than others living in the same house, and breathing the same air. May not this rather prove that the distemper is not very contagious, than that it is not contagious in any degree?

15th. It has been observed that damp bed linen, in the country, is apt to occasion disorders in the bowels; but that in towns it is apter to produce coughs: That, at sea, being wet occasions rheumatisms sometimes, but never colds. Hence the observation that being wet with salt water is not so dangerous as with fresh.

16th. May not the great care of the police of Spain have extirpated coughs from that kingdom, as the plague has been from that and the other kingdoms of Europe? Is it too late to try whether the same care would not produce the same effect in our island?

17th. Those who have lived for these last forty years, have seen the sting drawn out of many distempers, formerly considered as mortal. How many fevers have been cured or prevented by the Jesuits bark, Dr James's powders, and other antimonial preparations! How many cholics have been cured by laudanum! And how many lives have been saved by innoculating for the small pox! What good has not Goulard's extract of lead done in the cure of inveterate sores, and recent wounds, and strains, and bruises! Why despair of eradicating colds also?

18th. If we examine the bills of mortality, or recollect the events within our own circle, we shall find there is no distemper more fatal to human life than colds. With the young it is apt to degenerate into a consumption. To the old and infirm, it is almost certain death. For being attended with some degree of fever, and occasioning great bodily concussion, it frequently proves too violent to be resisted by persons infeebl'd either by age, or a weakly habit of body, in so much that we consider it as an effort of strength, and a piece of good fortune for such people to turn the winter.

19th. Every climate has its drawbacks. Many climates are more genial than that of Great Britain; yet, upon the whole, few are more fit for the habitation of mankind. Exempted from extremes of every kind, from

scorching heats in summer, and keen frost in winter, were it not for the very distemper in question, there is no climate in which human life might be protracted to a greater length, nor whose longevity would be attended with fewer drawbacks and inconveniencies. Hence the importance of discovering the true cause, and consequently the best method of curing, and even eradicating, by degrees, this distemper from the catalogue of British diseases, as the plague and leprosy have been.

20th. I would propose that the faculty should bend their whole attention to observe whether this distemper be contagious or not: That a society and correspondence be established for the purpose: That the result of the observations made over the whole island, or perhaps over all Europe, be digested and published.

21st. Should those observations afford rational grounds for believing the distemper to be contagious, I should then propose, that the Faculty ordered all their patients to country quarters, as soon as unequivocal symptoms of a cold appeared: That the greatest attention should be paid to washing all the linen, and airing, and even fumigating the woollen and cotton clothes of the convalescents before returning to town.

22d. For the poorer sort, by a small subscription, they might be enabled to retire to cottager's houses in the country, who, we may presume, would not be unwilling to receive, for payment, such guests; and on such occasions proper measures might be devised

for purifying their clothes and the furniture of the chambers they inhabited.

23d. Pains might also be taken to introduce the custom of airing and fumigating, during the course of the summer, the clothes which were worn in winter, and the same precaution might be used as to beds and furniture.

24th. A clerygman, whom I know, causes his headle to open the doors and the windows of his church, every fine day, through the course of the week, and seems to think there is less coughing in his church than before; though the short while he has tried this experiment prevents his speaking with great certainty on the subject. He is certain, however, that coughing has not increased since he began this practice.

It would be safe therefore to recommend this experiment to be tried in all our churches, playhouses, coffeehouses, and other places of public resort.

25th. The mortality occasioned by putrid fevers in Batavia is well known. There is scarce a family which has not lost some of its members or connections, in the sea-faring line, who have touched at that port. The cause of this mortality was not discovered till of late, that the doctrine of the contagiousness of such putrid distempers has been established. There is in the great city of Batavia but one public hotel for the reception of strangers. The right of keeping this hotel is farmed by the government. The governor, and higher members of the Dutch council, there, share in the profits of this farm. Private houses are therefore forbidden, un-

der severe penalties, to let lodgings to strangers, and strangers who arrive at Batavia, are frequently put into the beds and apartments from whence those who have died of putrid fevers have been removed, only the day before. There is said to be the less pains taken to clean these apartments, that considerable perquisites arise to the landlord and his servants from the death of their guests. This is certain, that the people of higher ranks in Batavia, who can afford villas, to which they resort every night, after their business in town is over, live as long, and enjoy as good health, as in any spot on the globe.

If these rude hints should serve to excite our attention to the cause of colds; and lead either to a more efficacious method of cure, or to lessen the frequency of the distemper, the writer will have attained his object, in requesting the favour of your inserting them in your useful paper. I am, Mr Bee, Yours,

PULMONICUS.

ON LEASES.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

PERMIT me, through the channel of your very useful paper, to express my sentiments upon the subject of lands let upon lease. I shall inquire into the advantages and disadvantages both of long and of short leases, and make some observations intended for the benefit both of proprietors and tenants.

Many proprietors, of every rank in this kingdom, have let the whole or part of their lands upon long leases; some for thirty-eight years and a life, and some

for fifty-seven, with certain obligations and restrictions; for instance, besides the rent stipulated, the obligation to build sufficient houses,—to inclose the farms according to a mode prescribed and agreed to,—and to plant a certain quantity of ground: all these articles to be performed within a certain number of years;—to lay out the fields and to raise crops in such a manner, that, at the end of the leases, the lands may be in a state of high cultivation, and prepared for letting at a very advanced rent. Lands let in this manner, however unpromising in appearance, and of however little value at first, in a few years become like a new creation, and an ornament to the country; and at last yield to the present proprietors, or their heirs, a very handsome income. The tenants, if men of sense, have much scope, and many motives, to make great improvements; they are happy in the enjoyment of a sense of liberty, and of independence to a certain degree; they not only procure present subsistence for themselves and their families, but, by laying up something for their children, have the consolation to foresee that they will not be left destitute. To the proprietor and his family, to whom they lie under so many obligations, they consider themselves as related in a remote degree: to them they look up with reverence and esteem, and feel the most affectionate attachment; circumstances very agreeable both to themselves and their superiors. How pleasant a thing it is to see proprietors regarding their tenants, and the families of their tenants, as their children, and rejoicing in their happiness; and these families, on the other hand, happy in the

homage they pay, and the gratitude they show to their benefactors!

Many proprietors, again, thinking it an hardship to be so long divested, as it were, by long leases, of their property, and observing that many disagreeable circumstances, in the course of these leases, occur, which, at their commencement were not foreseen: for instance, that by the rapid and unexpected improvements in husbandry, the tenant often enjoys an undue advantage, in which the proprietor has no share; and that however worthy a man the original tenant may be, he is sometimes succeeded by a son or heir, of a very different character, a man disgusting to his superior, and a pest among his neighbours; and yet, because he pays his rent, and keeps without the reach of the law, cannot be removed: determined by such circumstances as these, they have adopted another mode of letting their lands; that is, upon short leases of nineteen years, some longer, and many shorter. In the case of short leases, the proprietor must build houses and improve the lands, expecting to be reimbursed by a rise of rent in proportion; or if the tenant build and improve, he must be allowed a deduction of rent; and this requires on both sides due consideration.

Long leases appear to be best calculated for uniting, more effectually, the different ranks of society; and for promoting, as I have mentioned above, the general happiness. Short leases and high rents naturally produce the opposite effects. Here the contention is who shall have the greatest advantage; here, as there is no generosity nor humanity on the one side,

there is no room left for gratitude or affection on the other. The proprietor and tenant are held together by a very slender tie, in which the heart has seldom any share, and which we see daily broken by the slightest accident. It has been observed by men of acknowledged abilities, that, in letting a lease, circumstances should be so calculated that the tenant, after paying his rent, and defraying the expences of his family and servants, should have remaining, annually, perfectly free, the interest at least of the stock or principal laid out in furnishing the farm. The reasons are obvious, because had he been bred to any other business, he would, by attention and care, have provided for the subsistence of his family, and saved his capital and interest, as a fund for their future supply: and how many arise to a state of affluence, who had originally no fund at all? Another reason is, that if he is not placed in a situation such as I have described, he is degraded below the condition of a common servant; for a servant not only lives at present comfortably, and void of care, but has it in his power to lay up something for the supply of his future wants. In a word, when he not only bestows his time and labour, but is himself obliged, in the course of his lease, to expend his own money, or principal, for the proprietor's advantage, he repents his bargain,—his spirits are hurt,—his temper soured,—he considers himself as a slave in a land of freedom,—and looks upon his master or superior with inexpresible aversion and abhorrence.

That a proprietor may be able to judge for himself, and let his farms in such a manner, or upon

such terms, as will give satisfaction to all concerned, he should attentively observe the annual produce of the lands in his own immediate possession; or if he has not had an opportunity of making proper observations of this kind for a sufficient length of time, the books of his man of business, relating to this subject, regularly kept for some years, will supply that defect: for by observing the medium prices of grain for a certain number of years past, and the annual produce of a certain number of acres for the same space of time, by comparing the acres to be let, with those under his own management, making allowance for the difference of soil, if there is any, and by comparing the probable future prices with the actual present ones, and deducting expence of management, he will be able to judge, with confidence, of the value of his farms, without depending on the judgement of any man.

There are two things necessary with regard to those who propose to enter into leases, or take farms, and these are, that they be men of some substance, and in point of moral character unexceptionable. When a proprietor, then, after minute inquiry, is satisfied with regard to a man's temper, his sense, his manners, and taste for religion, he should give him the preference, though he may happen not to be so wealthy as his rivals; for his diligence, and sobriety, and wisdom, will create wealth; but wealth can never make a fool a wise man, nor the society happy with which he is connected. From inattention to this subject may be traced all the troubles and vexation which proprietors meet with from their tenants, and many

of the evils which distress society, of which the instances are too many. Yours, &c. AMICUS.

Additional observations on the same subject.

THE ingenious writer of the above essay is among the few who have considered leases in their proper point of view, *viz.* the effects they produce on the industry, manners, and dispositions of the people. A very intelligent writer in the *Bee*, vol. ii. p. 281, has, with great propriety, considered the effects of the old mode of tenure of church lands in Scotland, in this respect. It would be well for the community in general, if political writers, in discussing subjects of this sort, would, by losing sight of individual cases, extend their views to the community at large.

Nothing has perhaps tended to give Britain such a decided superiority over neighbouring nations, as the practice which has so long prevailed of having her lands cultivated under the protection of leases. The Greeks and Romans, who were unacquainted with this beautiful regulation in political economy, found themselves involved in difficulties at every step in their operations of agriculture, that rendered it to them a troublesome and a slavish business*. And

* Among the Greeks and Romans, the general practice was, that every proprietor of land cultivated it by means of his own servants and slaves, very much in the same manner that the proprietors of West India estates do at present. This gave rise to innumerable frauds, peculations, and abuses, that no laws were sufficient to guard against; and he was, in general, the most successful farmer who could watch his people best; not him who reared the best crops. To guard against these frauds, it was necessary to arm the land owner with a despotic authority that is altogether inconsistent with freedom. A large landed estate became then a burden

our neighbours upon the continent, in general, from the same circumstance, have had the progress of their agriculture prodigiously retarded, in comparison of what it might otherwise have been*. The Netherlands is a singular exception to this rule; and their progress in rural improvements has been proportionally rapid.

The progress of Scotland in agriculture, when compared with England, has been prodigiously retarded from the same cause. For many centuries back the security of tenants in England was nearly the same as at present. In Scotland it is only of late that our courts of law have begun to give that validity to contracts of lease that they ought to have had. And it is only since that period, that our tenants have begun to think, and to act, as free agents, whose property, as well as that of the land owners, upon a rich man's shoulders that he was unable himself to bear. He devolved his authority upon deputies and subdeputies, whose business it was to oppress those below them, and to cheat those above them; which produced an endless train of evils that it would be unpleasant to recount. No spirited agriculture can, in these circumstances, ever prevail. The classical reader, who has turned his attention to the private life of the ancients, will easily, from this source, be able to explain an infinite variety of particulars that have occurred in the course of his reading, which, without adverting to these, will appear to be totally inexplicable.

* In most parts of Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Russia, the stock employed for cultivating the land, is the property of the landlord, frequently of the crown; the tenant having only a temporary use of it. It is easy to see, that, in order to secure the landlord's property, in these circumstances, it becomes necessary to confer upon him an authority over his tenants, that is totally inconsistent with freedom. This is felt even in the most civilized states in the above list; and where the greatest stretches have been made to secure the lower orders of the people from oppression. In many cases, those who cultivate the soil are little better than slaves, at this hour.

is secured to them by law*. To every one acquainted with the decisions of our courts of justice, these facts need no illustration. They will find, upon looking into the statute books, and revising the established practice of inferior county courts, that improve-

* The earliest period of modern improvements in Scotland cannot be carried farther back than the year 1746. The abolishing heritable jurisdictions, at that time, gave to the supreme courts of justice an authority they had not till then possessed; but it was long after that period before poor tenants, in distant parts of the country, felt that, by means of an appeal from inferior county courts, whose decisions were in many cases regulated by former practice, called *use and wont*, they could obtain that full security they ought to enjoy. Hence it was common for landlords, in many parts of the country, whatever were the terms of the lease, to resume possession on the death of the person to whom the lease was granted; and this was so common that the heirs did not even think of lodging a claim for it. This practice, is I believe, in most parts of the country, now exploded. But in distant parts of the country an innumerable train of oppressive circumstances still are enforced by a blind adherence to customs, unauthorised by law, respecting mills, and servitudes of various sorts, which tend greatly to deplete the tenants; and which their short sighted proprietors, in many cases, support with all their authority; not aware, that while they are doing so, they are, in the most effectual manner they can, diminishing their own income. The idea which so long and universally prevailed in Scotland, of a proprietor having the entire and absolute authority over those on his estate, has still kept so much possession of men's minds, as to make landlords in general look with a jealous eye upon long leases, and secure possession to a tenant. They are not aware, that while men can obtain absolute security to enjoy the fruits of their industry in other professions, they will require it in agriculture, otherwise they will employ their stock elsewhere. They see spirited men, in countries where these notions prevail, abandoning farming, and employing their stock in other undertakings. Still, however, a predilection prevails in the distant parts of this country for farming, which detains a few in that business. Should that predilection totally abate, a general poverty of tenantry must issue. It is the interest of every landlord to guard against this great evil; which in a land of freedom can only be done by giving such leases as insure a proper return to the tenant for the outlay of stock, and industry upon the subject.

ments in agriculture, in every part of the country, are more intimately connected with this circumstance than with any other whatever; unless it be that of establishing turnpike roads, which it must be allowed affords a greater stimulus to industry than any thing else.

Since then the general prosperity of the country, and the kindly connection between the higher and lower classes of the community, so much depend upon a proper security given to tenants, by means of leases, as this ingenious correspondent justly observes, I cannot help recommending this subject to the attention of my readers, as one of the most primary importance. Nor shall I at present say more on this head, in the hopes of obtaining some farther elucidations of it upon great and liberal principles. Should these elucidations prove unsatisfactory, I shall perhaps think it necessary, at a future period, to suggest some farther hints on this subject, with a view to lead to the discovery of sound principles of practice in regard to this very important object. J. A.

ON RUPERT'S GLASS DROPS.

WHEN glass is taken in a fluid and fine state from a glasshouse pot, and dropped into cold water, it forms a drop with a long and slender tail, which bursts in pieces on this tail being broken.

Chamber's Encyclopedia says, "the best way of making them is to take up some of the metal out of the pot upon the end of an iron rod, and immediate-

ly let it drop into cold water, and there lie till it is cold. If the metal be too hot when it is dropped into the water, the business does not succeed, but the drop frosts and cracks all over, and falls to pieces in the water; and every one that does not crack in the water but lies in it whole until it is quite cold, is sure to be good. There is a great nicety in hitting a due degree of heat in the metal, and the workmen who best know their business cannot promise, beforehand, which shall succeed; but often two fail for one that is right. Some of them frost over the surface without falling to pieces; and others break into pieces before the red heat is quite over, and that with a small noise; others break soon after the red heat is over and make a great noise; and some neither break nor crack until they seem quite cold, and hold together while they are in the water, but fly to pieces when they are taken out of it; some do this on the instant, others an hour or two after; and others will keep several days, nay weeks, and at last fall to pieces without being touched.

“ These drops, thus formed, are so hard, that they will bear smart blows with a hammer without breaking; and yet if you grind the surface, or break off the tip of the tail, they will shatter, with a loud report, into powder; and, in an exhausted receiver, with greater impetuosity than in the open air, and into a finer powder, exhibiting light when the experiment is made in the dark. But if the drops are ground with the powder of emery and oil, and annealed by the fire, they will escape breaking. This surprising phenomenon is supposed to arise from hence, that

while the glass is in fusion, or in a melted state, the particles of it are in a state of repulsion; but being dropped into cold water, it soon condenses the particles in the external part of their superficies, that they are thereby reduced within the power of each other's attraction, and by that means they form a sort of hard case, which keeps confined the before mentioned particles in their repulsive state; but when this outer case is broken, by the breaking off of the tail of the drop, the said confined particles have then liberty to exert their force, which they do by bursting the body of the drop, and reducing it to a very peculiar form of powder."

The above is all the reason that has hitherto been offered to the public for these phenomena.

In the *first* place, the metal is not, when taken out of the pot, in a *repulsive*, but in an *expansive* state; and that, according to the degree of heat in which it is when taken from the furnace.

2d. It is not possible that the external part of the drop, when let fall into cold water, should *condense* the *external* particles of their superficies, and, at the same time, keep the inner particles confined in their *repulsive* (should say *expansive*) state. When the glass is first taken out of the pot, the metal is of an uniform degree of heat, and by dropping it into water must certainly make the whole mass contract equally; for if the external part should contract, and not the inner particles, it of course must crack at the surface, from the outer skin not being able to cover a larger surface than its own; hence the reason

of their being very often frosted when in, and when taken out of the water.

3d. Allowing that the external parts of the drops were contracted, and the interior particles were in a state of expansion, in that case the drops would not make that explosion upon breaking off the tail, the inner particles being already in an expansive state; but the outer case or skin being in a contracted state, would only burst into powder, and leave the inner part entire.

From the experiments I made, I have found, upon breaking these drops in the dark, there is not any appearance of light. I infer from these glass drops resisting no inconsiderable stroke of a hammer, that they must be very hard and brittle; which no doubt is owing to their being dropped into cold water. The water to supply the place of an equilibrium, attracts, from the red hot drop, the latent heat, which it otherwise would have contained, had it been regularly annealed. Upon putting one of these Rupert's drops, when cold, into a common house fire, it will not crack or break, owing to the power of attraction which it bears for the *caloric* of the fire. On the contrary, every one knows, that a piece of glass which had been properly annealed, would, upon being put into a fire, almost immediately crack. This always happens provided the glass be of any considerable thickness and size. But, in the former case, the glass will bear a sudden transition from cold to a red heat without breaking. Thus a glass drop, deprived of its latent heat, flies in pieces upon having the small end snapped off; but a drop that has been properly and

regularly annealed, or saturated with latent heat, will not fly or break, as the former, upon losing a part of its small tail.

Another phenomenon proves that these drops are deprived of latent heat, or any gas or air that is in their composition; for every one of these drops contain in the body of the glass, small blebs or vacuities: Now if those blebs or vacuities contained any of the above matter, it must evidently expand upon putting them into a fire, and consequently would cause the drops to fly into pieces; but this not being the case, shows, these blebs are perfect vacuums that are deprived of all aeriform matter.

How it comes about that these drops should break, because they are deprived of latent heat, is not so easy to judge. It is my opinion that upon breaking or depriving them of a part of their long tail, a tremulous motion is communicated to the rest of the glass, which being of so hard, consequently so brittle a nature, it immediately flies, and breaks into the peculiar powder, with some degree of noise and violence.

I must here remark that all substances are exceedingly brittle when deprived of latent heat, as may be seen in the tempering of metals; and, in particular, steel, which may be made to bend and twist all ways, and upon being deprived of its latent heat will then be more brittle than glass itself. CHÆMICUS.

ANECDOTE OF WILLIAM III.

LORD MOLESWORTH, who had been ambassador at the court of Copenhagen, published, at the end of the

the last century, an esteemed work, entitled, "Account of Denmark." This writer spoke of the arbitrary government of that kingdom, with that freedom which the liberty of England inspires. The king of Denmark then reigning was offended at some reflections of the author, and ordered his minister to complain of them to William III. king of England. "What would you have me to do?" said William: "Sire," replied the Danish minister, "if you had complained to the king, my master, of such an offence, he would have sent you the head of the author." "That is what I neither will, nor can do;" replied the king; "but, if you desire it, the author shall put what you have told me into the second edition of his work."

ANECDOTE OF A SAILOR.

ONE of the men who had been round the world with commodore Byron, soon after his return to England, went to his native place, where he was considered as a very extraordinary personage, and was invited to a club of his townsmen, who expected to be greatly edified by his conversation. It was plain that a man who had been round the world must know more of it than any other body. But the circumnavigator could give them but very little information with respect to what he had seen in his voyage; and seemed to have very little to say for himself, till some of the club began to question him about the world being round: then he opened with a tone of authority, "as to that, I'll tell you what it is; they say the world is round; but I have been all *round* it, and, by G—d, it is as *flat* as this table."

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLATE.

THE view represented in the plate which accompanies this Number, is taken within an hundred yards of that given in No. 71. of this work. It represents a part of the Water of Leith, winding in a deep rocky dell, overhung with woods. On one side of the river appears a neat temple to *Hygeia*, reared in the chastest stile of Grecian architecture, by lord Gardenston, whose name can never be mentioned, in this country, without a particular degree of respect. This temple covers a spring of mineral waters, which proves highly salutary to the inhabitants of Edinburgh, who now can enjoy the pleasure of an easy walk of half a mile from town, in a delightful rural situation, conjoined with the benefits that are derived from drinking this mild salubrious water. The public spirited owner of this well proposes, for the farther accommodation of the inhabitants, to erect a long-room near the well, which, when finished, will render this a delightful place for rural recreation.

The distant view represents the frith of Forth, with the island of Inchkeith, and the hills of Fife beyond it.

DETACHED REMARK.

How pleasant for parents, during the infancy of their children,

“ To rear the tender thought,

“ And teach the young idea how to shoot.



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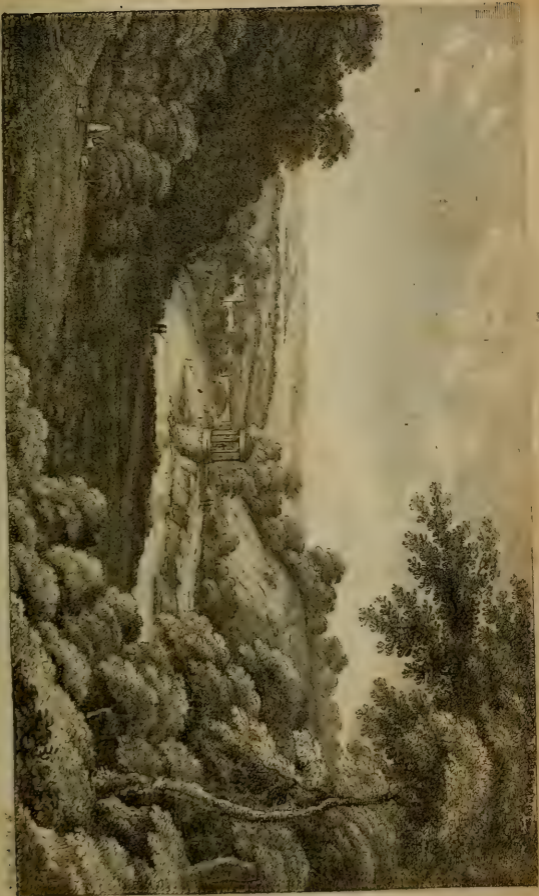
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Engraved for the Bee.



A VIEW of ST. BERNARD'S WELL, near EDINBURGH.

1 inch wide



POETRY.

VERSES FROM A NEW POEM, ENTITLED 'A MORNING WALK.'
JUST PUBLISHED.

SEASON of soft delight! Now to the wild,
Nature's admirer hies him, while his heart
Throbs with emotion, exquisitely soft,
And only known to those, whose bosoms feel
The charm of genuine beauty. Happy few!
For you the valley smiles; the lonely wild
Yields you serene enjoyment; and to you
'The hoary mountain, rugged and abrupt,
Administers sublime delight. How blest'd
Your early wandering, unobserv'd, and rapt
In contemplation! How serenely sweet
Your evening walk! as if, with influence mild,
Angels unseen attended, and convey'd
Joy to your spirits; not tumultuous joy,
But calm, and leading to th' ingenuous mood
Of melting tenderness. Although to you
May not be giv'n those high creative pow'rs
That animate the canvas, or entrance
The soul in th' extacies of rapt'rous song,
Deem not your portion scanty; nor complain
That nature hath to you, with niggard hand,
Her gifts imparted. If she hath bestow'd
Pow'rs to distinguish beauty, but deny'd
Th' inventive energies; perchance, with these,
She kindly hath withheld the reckless zeal
Of passion; and secur'd you from the cares,
Th' unnumber'd, agonizing cares, that swarm
Ev'n in the bow'r of fancy. Ye enjoy
The smile of this soft season, unallay'd
With restless wishes for ye know not what
Sublime, untasted pleasure; unallay'd
With grief fantastic, or imagin'd woe.
Fram'd for discerning ev'ry pleasing form
Of graceful elegance, your souls are calm;
Calm as yon river, that so slowly moves,
His progress passes unobserv'd, the while
His breast reflects the likeness of each shrub
And blossom, waving o'er th' enamell'd bank.

At the request of a respectable correspondent we, willingly, have inserted the verses above, from this pleasing little poem, which, on many accounts, deserves applause. Unaffected simplicity is, perhaps, the greatest beauty in poetry, and the most difficult to attain. This poem contains much of that. Perhaps a little more practice in writing would give the author a greater facility in smoothing his numbers;—a beauty which, though not the most essential in poetry, is an accessory so necessary, that

it never should be disregarded. The following verse, among others, requires to be corrected :

or entrance

The soul in th' extacies of rapt'rous song. 41

See also lines 62, 69, 71, 82, 92, &c.

There is great beauty in the following passage :

Oft let me range the devious wild, where rocks
Rise in fantastic grandeur, bare, or cloth'd
With ivy; while aloft the *mountain ash*
Waves from the tow'ring cliff; and far below
Th' unruffled lake reflects the *mountain ash*,
The tow'ring cliff, and ev'n the goat that dares
Along the precipice's shaggy verge
Crop the scant herbage.

Is not the repetition of the mountain ash rather an overstrained affectation of simplicity? Would it not be fully as natural, and more picturesque, to say the f tufted tree?

The following passage, but for the two harsh lines we have marked, is highly beautiful :

Chief let me seek the *metamorphos'd* scene,
Where ALCON hath o'er nature's form, (ere while
A form uncouth, unseemly, unarray'd,)
With easy grace, thrown the loose flowing robe
Of rural beauty. Soft may southern show'rs
Descend! and gently may Favonian gales
Shake their moist pinions! May the vernal beam
And kindly dews, with genial influence feed
The rising plants, till ev'ry swelling hill
Waves with a verdant grove! 'Mid these gay fields,
With him whose genuine taste reforms the rude
Bleak desert, and makes frowning nature smile,
Let me enjoy the social walk; with him
Fashion the winding path, the mantling grove,
The lawn wood-skirted, the meandering brook,
The lake with willow'd margin, th' obelisk,
Or fane, inscrib'd with th' honour'd names of such
As have by valiant deed, or counsel sage,
Or laurel earn'd by science or the muse,
Enhanc'd the glory of their native land.

Might not these lines be altered somehow thus?

The lake with willow'd margin, the proud fane,
Or obelisk, inscrib'd with names of such, &c.

There are several instances of wrong punctuation occur in this poem, which marr the sense :

While th' azure gleam, from yonder distant grove
Of nodding hyacinths, seems like th' expanse
Of a thin vapour, fresh exhal'd.

The idea is here new and beautiful, were it not marred by the ambiguity which is occasioned by our thinking of the incongruity of a nodding

grove of hyacinths. The author evidently means to say, 'While from yonder distant grove, the azure gleam of nodding hyacinths, seems like th' expanse of a thin vapour.' This ambiguity would be removed by placing a comma after the word grove.

The following words require to be reconsidered: Influence, l. 199—wittol, l. 183—liken, not in its true sense, l. 206—deign impart l. 243—testifies, l. 247—down'd, l. 295, coining words is a bad employment for a poet,—memory, l. 299.

The author is much too free in elisions, which gives a harshness to many of his lines that are displeasing. By a little pains, this small blemish may be avoided in a future edition.

THE PEACOCK AND THE DOVE, A FABLE.

For the Bee.

A GAUDY peacock swell'd with pride,
Invites, to dine, a turtle dove;
But could not's ostentation hide,
Before the little bird of love.

The gilded fowl with eye askance,
Sfruts round the tender hearted mate,
And now and then the scornful glance,
Infer'd the diff'rence of their state.

With shining crest, erected high,
In haughty stile the dove address;
"See how my varying train does fly;
"See with what robes my person's drest.

"The gay parterre thou seest around,
"The verdant mead, the flow'ry vale;
"Tis mine all that extensive bound,
"And here I screen me from the gale."

Shock'd with his pride, and screeching voice,
Though all things round were rich and gay;
The turtle could not praise his choice,
But stretch'd her wings and flew away.

Stunn'd with the little lover's flight,
He call'd her back, but all in vain;
Nor could his wealth, nor colours bright,
Bring back the turtle dove again.

She wing'd her flight up to her nest,
Where enters neither pride nor strife;
Lull'd on her husband's chearing breast,
In sweet contentment passes life.

MORAL.

Take note, Oh pride!—Thy haughty frown
Each g'n'rous soul drives from thy hall;
The social blifs to thee unknown,
Does oft to humbler merit fall.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

WHEN I reflect on the progress of my life and sentiment, I am apt to divide the whole into æras denominated, as well as suggested, by the recollection of those by whom my mind has been successively impressed; and the space of time appears longer or shorter between the different periods, according to the vivacity and multiplicity of impressions that have accompanied my studies and observations. These evolutions and revolutions of intellect, have formed, as it were, a series of time-pieces, whereby I am induced to form an estimate of the endurance of my intellectual existence.

Buchanan, and Gregory, and Watson, at St Andrews, Erskine, and Matthew Stuart, and Cullen, at Edinburgh, Reid and Campbell, at Aberdeen, Smith and Black, at Glasgow with other excellent persons, to whom I have been indebted for the improvement of my understanding, have marked in my mind the progress of my contemplative life, and have conspired from the multitude of excitements, and of investigations arising from those excitements, to exaggerate the conception I have of the time that has intervened since the faculties of my understanding began to be unfolded for the reception of the philosophical truth. Before the printing press, that palladium of the human race, was employed to diffuse knowledge universally among all degrees of people, the progress of philosophy, or *the reason of things*, was so slow and equable, that the life of no individual could include any remarkable range of intellectual melioration in society; so that I wonder the less at the continual complaints of our ancestors concerning the brevity of human life, as the sense of interval is continually erased by the paucity of vivacious impressions.

For my own part, when I remember that I have lived from the *Barbara celarent* of the year 1754, to the elements of the philosophy of the human mind in the year 1792, I almost think myself the wandering Jew, and feel myself the subject of historian ages.

It is for this reason, Sir, that I desire to recommend to the public the masterly volume of Dr Dugald Stuart, in which, by a patient and discerning selection of the elements of the philosophy of the human mind, he has begun to erect a platform, upon which there may be hereafter erected a fabric, that may aspire, like Babel, to the celestial regions, but without prophanity and folly, or any of the consequences that have arisen from the philosophical theories of the moderns. I perceive in this book, as in the excellent essay on political economy by Adam Smith, clear ideas, distinctly displayed by an enlarged and luminous understanding, fully possessed of the subject of which the author treats; and I see it happily within the reach of every contemplative and cultivated reader, so that I can, without any impropriety, recommend it to the perusal of your readers in general. Some of Dr Stuart's chapters will no doubt be too deep for men of business, in the ordinary professions of life; but these may be passed over in the perusal, or convey enough of sentiment to excite a desire in them, either to go over the ground necessary to unfold his arguments, or to be at pains to give these advantages to their children, or to those young people who are committed to their charge. They will see here, likewise, the unspeakable advantage arising from an instruction in the principles of mathematical learning, and be induced to bestow it in the same manner. They will also be convinced that none but the enemies of the human race, and of the happiness arising from a peaceable and good administration of public affairs, will ever object to the general diffusion of moral and political, as well as other useful knowledge,

among the lower ranks of society; or ever be led to imagine that ignorance can be the parent of peace or of happiness. And as I have said so much upon the influence of the press on the melioration of mankind, I cannot do better than support this well grounded opinion, by giving a specimen of Dr Stuart's book, in his reflections on this fortunate invention.

“Of the progress which may yet be made in the different branches of moral and political philosophy, we may form some idea, from what has already happened in physics since the time that lord Bacon united, in one useful direction, the labours of those who cultivate that science. At the period when he wrote, physics was certainly in a more hopeless state than that of moral and political philosophy in the present age. A perpetual succession of chimerical theories had, till then, amused the world; and the prevailing opinion was, that the case would continue to be the same for ever. Why then should we despair of the competency of the human faculties to establish a solid and permanent system, upon other subjects, which are of still more serious importance? Physics, it is true, is free from many difficulties which obstruct our progress in moral and political inquiries; but perhaps this advantage may be more than counterbalanced by the tendency they have to engage a more universal and a more earnest attention, in consequence of their coming home more immediately to our “business and our bosoms:” When these sciences, too, begin to be prosecuted on a regular and systematical plan, their improvement will go on with an accelerated velocity; not only as the number of speculative minds will be every day increased by the diffusion of knowledge, but as an acquaintance with the just rules of inquiry will more and more place important discoveries within the reach of ordinary understandings. “Such rules (says lord Bacon,) do in some sort, equal mens wits; and have no great advantage or pre-eminence to the perfect and excellent motions of the

spirit. To draw a straight line, to describe a circle, by aim of hand only, there must be a great difference between an unsteady and unpractised hand, and a steady and practised one; but to do it by rule and compass is much alike."

"Nor must we omit to mention the value which the art of printing communicates to the most limited exertions of literary industry, by treasuring up as materials for the future examination of more enlightened inquirers. In this respect the press bestows upon the sciences an advantage somewhat analogous to that which the mechanical arts derive from the division of labour. As in these arts the exertions of an uninformed multitude are united by the comprehensive skill of the artist, in the accomplishment of effects, astonishing by their magnitude, and by the complicated ingenuity they display; so, in the sciences, the observations and conjectures of obscure individuals, on those subjects which are level to their capacities, and which fall under their own immediate notice, accumulate, for a course of years, till at last some philosopher arises, who combines these scattered materials, and exhibits in his system, not merely the force of a single mind, but the intellectual power of the age in which he lives.

"It is upon these last considerations, much more than on the efforts of original genius, that I would rest my hopes of the progress of the human race. What genius alone could accomplish in science, the world has already seen: And I am ready to subscribe to the opinion of those who think that the splendour of its past exertions is not likely to be obscured by the fame of future philosophers. But the experiment yet remains to be tried, what lights may be thrown on the most important of all subjects, by the free discussions of inquisitive nations, unfettered by prejudice, and stimulated in their inquiries by every motive that can awaken whatever is either generous or selfish in human

nature. How trifling are the effects which the bodily strength of an individual is able to produce, (however great may be his natural endowments,) when compared with those which have been accomplished by the conspiring force of an ordinary multitude! It was not the single arm of a Theseus, or a Hercules, but the hands of men such as ourselves, that, in ancient Egypt, raised those monuments of architecture which remain from age to age to attest the wonders of combined and of persevering industry; and while they humble the importance of the individual, to exalt the dignity, and to animate the labours of the species.

“ These views, with respect to the probable improvement of the world, are so conducive to the comfort of those who entertain them, that, even although they were founded in delusion, a wise man would be disposed to cherish them. What should have induced some respectable writers to controvert them with so great an asperity of expression, it is not easy to conjecture; for whatever may be thought of their truth, their practical tendency is surely favourable to human happiness; nor can that temper of mind, which disposes a man to give them a welcome reception, be candidly suspected of designs hostile to the interests of humanity. One thing is certain, that the greatest of all obstacles to the improvement of the world, is that prevailing belief of its improbability, which damps the exertions of so many individuals; and that, in proportion as the contrary opinion becomes general, it realises the event which it leads us to anticipate. Surely if any thing can have a tendency to call forth in the public service the exertions of individuals, it must be an idea of the magnitude of that work in which they are conspiring, and a belief of the permanence of those benefits which they confer on mankind by every attempt to inform and enlighten them. As in ancient Rome, therefore, it was re-

garded as the mark of a good citizen, never to despair of the fortunes of the republic;—so the good citizen of the world, whatever may be the political aspect of his own times, will never despair of the fortunes of the human race; but will act upon the conviction, that prejudice, slavery, and corruption, must gradually give way to truth, liberty, and virtue; and that, in the moral world, as well as in the material, the farther our observations extend, and the longer they are continued, the more we shall perceive of order and of benevolent design in the universe.

“Nor is this change in the condition of man, in consequence of the progress of reason, by any means contrary to the general analogy of his natural history. In the infancy of the individual, his existence is preserved by instincts, which disappear afterwards, when they are no longer necessary. In the savage state of our species, there are instincts which seem to form a part of the human constitution, and of which no traces remain in those periods of society in which their use is superseded by a more enlarged experience. Why then should we deny the probability of something similar to this in the history of man, considered in his political capacity? I have already had occasion to observe, that the governments which the world has hitherto seen, have seldom or never taken their rise from deep laid schemes of human policy. In every state of society which has yet existed, the multitude has, in general, acted from the immediate impulse of passion, or from the pressure of their wants and necessities; and therefore what we commonly call the political order, is, at least in a great measure, the result of the passions and wants of man, combined with the circumstances of his situation; or, in other words, it is chiefly the result of the wisdom of nature. So beautifully, indeed, do these passions and circumstances act in subserviency to her designs; and so

invariably have they been found, in the history of past ages, to conduct men, in time; to certain beneficial arrangements, that we can hardly bring ourselves to believe, that the end was not foreseen by those who were engaged in the pursuit. Even in those rude periods of society, when, like the lower animals, he follows blindly his instinctive principles of action, he is led by an invisible hand, and contributes his share to the execution of a plan, of the nature and advantages of which he has no conception. The operations of the Bee, when it begins for the first time to form its cell, conveys to us a striking image of the efforts of unenlightened man, in conducting the operations in an infant government. I am, Sir," &c. ALBANICUS.

EXERCISES IN PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

Continued from vol. viii. p. 184.

Dictionary.

GREAT, adj. A relative word, denoting largeness of quantity, number, &c. serving to augment the value of those terms with which it is combined. Opposed to *small* or *little*. The principal circumstances in which this word can be employed are the following :

1. When merely inanimate objects are considered with regard to quantity, *great* is with propriety employed to denote that that quantity is considerable; as *a great mountain, a great house, &c.* and it is here contrasted with *small*. When *great* is thus employed we have no other word that is exactly synonymous.

2. When inanimate objects are considered with regard to their extent, this term is sometimes employed, although with less propriety; as *a great field, a great plain, &c.* In this sense it is nearly synonymous with *large*; and they are often used indiscriminately, but with some difference of meaning; for as *large* is a term chiefly employed to denote

superficies, and as *great* more particularly regards the quantity of matter, therefore, when *large* is applied to any object, which is not merely superficial, it denotes that it is the extent of surface that is there meant to be considered, without regard to the other dimensions; whereas when the term *great* is employed, it has a reference to the whole contents. If therefore we say *a large house*, or *a large river*, we express that the river or the house have a surface of great extent, without having any necessary connection with the size in other respects: but if we say *a great house*, or *a great river*, it at once denotes that they have not only a large surface, but are also of great size in every respect.

3. GREAT, when applied to the human species, never denotes the size or largeness of the body, but is applied solely to the qualities of the mind. Thus when we say that *Socrates was a great man*, we do not mean that he was a man of great size, but that he was a man who excelled in the endowments of the mind.

The terms which denote largeness of size in the human body, are *big*, *bulky*, *huge*, &c.

4. GREAT is sometimes applied to the human species as denoting high rank. In this case it is oftener used in the plural number than otherwise; thus we say *the great*, meaning the whole body of men in high station, as opposed to *mean*. It should seldom be employed in this sense, as it tends to confound dignity of rank with elevation of mind.

5. As this is a general term of augmentation, it may be joined with all nouns which denote *quantity*, *quality*, *number*, *excellence*, or *defects*; or such as *imply praise*, *blame*, *anger*, *contempt*, or any other affection of the mind.

6. It is employed to denote every step of ascending or descending consanguinity, as *great grandfather*, *great grandson*, &c.

HEART, In anatomy, the member of the body from which the blood is propelled towards the extremities by means of the arteries, and towards which it is again brought back by the veins.

In a figurative sense it is deemed the seat of the affections, as the head is accounted the seat of the understanding. Hence *a man of a sound heart, and weak head*, is the same as a *man of good dispositions and weak understanding*. In this sense the word occurs frequently in all languages.

HIGH, adj. Exalted in a perpendicular direction at a distance from the surface of the earth; opposed to *low*.

1. **HIGH** is a term altogether indefinite, and is employed to express the degree of elevation of any inanimate body. Thus we say *a high mountain, a high house, steeple, tower, pillar, &c.* Nor is there any other word that can be here considered as exactly synonymous; *lofty* being only employed to denote a very eminent degree of elevation.

2. To express the perpendicular elevation of vegetables, either *high* or *tall* may be employed, as being in this case nearly synonymous. We may therefore say *a high or tall tree, a high or tall mast, &c.* but with this difference between these two expressions, that *tall* can be more properly applied to those that are much elevated, and of small dimensions; and *high* to such as are more bulky and of greater size.

3. The perpendicular height of man can never be expressed by the word *high*; *tall* being here the proper expression. And although *high* is sometimes used to express the height of other animals, yet it seems to be an improper expression. See **TALL**.

4. **HIGH**, when applied to the human species, always refers to the mind, and denotes *haughtiness, stateliness, pride, &c.* and when combined with the expressions of any ener-

gy of the mind, it denotes that in a more eminent degree. In this sense it is opposed to *meanness*, *abjectness*, and *humility*.

5. As this is an indefinite term, tending to denote any thing that is elevated above us, it may be combined with almost every noun which admits of this elevation. And as objects high above us are always out of our reach, in a figurative sense, it is used to denote any thing that seems to be above the ordinary condition of mankind; or those qualities or endowments of the mind which are not easily acquired: as *dignity* or *elevation of sentiment*, *dignity of rank*, *acuteness of reasoning on difficult subjects*, *pride*, *haughtiness*, or any other quality which seems to be beyond the ordinary level of mankind; *dearness of price*, &c.

6. In the same manner we apply this term to time, which having a metaphorical resemblance to a river flowing on with an unceasing current, through all successive ages, any thing of remote antiquity is denoted by the term *high*.

7. Likewise those degrees of latitude far removed from the line, where the pole becomes more elevated.

8. And to some particular crimes as being attended by peculiar degrees of guilt, as *high treason*.

FALL, adj. Something elevated to a considerable degree in a perpendicular direction; opposed to *low*.

1. This term is chiefly used to express the height of man and other animals; and is employed to denote the height of the body only, without having any reference to the mind. When applied to man, no other word can be substituted in its stead: when applied to other animals, *high* is sometimes considered as nearly synonymous. See *HIGH*.

2. It is likewise employed to denote the perpendicular height of vegetables; and in this case it is nearly synonymous with *high*. See HIGH.

3. It can in no case be employed to express the height of merely inanimate objects. We can never say *a tall steeple, tower, or pillar*, but *a high steeple, tower, &c.* For the distinctions in these cases, see HIGH.

LONG, adj. A relative term, denoting the distance between the extremes of any body, which is extended more in one of its geometrical dimensions than another: opposed to *short*.

This term may be applied to all inanimate objects whose dimensions in one way exceed the other, and when not in an erect posture, whatever be the other circumstances attending them; whether it relates to superficies alone, or to solid bodies, whether these be bounded or open, straight or crooked, flexible or rigid, or in any other circumstances whatever; thus we say *a long or short lane, a long or short ridge, street, ditch, rope, chain, staff*; &c. But it is to be observed, that although *long* is, in the strict sense, only opposed to *short*, yet, as it expresses the extension of matter in one of its geometrical proportions, it is often contrasted by those words which express the other dimensions, when we mean only to describe the several proportions; as *a table long and broad*. And as these several dimensions are expressed by different words, according to their various forms, modifications, and circumstances, in which the bodies are found, therefore it is in this sense contrasted by a great diversity of terms, as *a long and broad or wide, narrow or strait street or lane; a long and thick, or small rope, chain, staff*. For the distinctions in these cases, see BROAD, WIDE, &c.

2. Objects necessarily fixed in an erect position, can never have this term applied to them; and therefore we

cannot say *a long*; but *a high steeple or tower*. And for the same reason, while trees are growing, and fixed in an erect position, we cannot apply this term to them; but when they are felled and laid upon the ground, it is quite proper and necessary. Thus we do not say *a long*, but *a tall or high tree*, while it is growing; but we say *a long*; not *a tall log of wood*; and in the same manner we say *a tall mast*, when it is fixed in the ship; but *a long mast*, while it lies upon the beach. See TALL and HIGH.

3. Those vegetables which are of a tender pliant nature, or so weak as not to be able to retain a fixed position, being considered as of a middle nature between erect and prostrate bodies, admit of either of the terms, *long, tall, or high*: as *a long or tall rush*, or *willow wand*; or *a long tall, or high stalk of corn*. See HIGH and TALL.

4. The parts of vegetables when considered as distinct from the whole, even when growing and erect, assume the term *long*; for we do not say *a tall*, but *a long shoot of a tree*; and *a tree with a long stem*, in preference to *a tree with a high stem*.

5. For the same reason, a staff and pole, even when fixed in a perpendicular direction, assume the word *long* in preference to *tall or high*.

6. With regard to animals, the general rule is applied without exception; *tall*, and not *long*, being employed to denote the height of the human body, when in an erect posture; *long*, and not *tall*, to denote its length, when in an incumbent situation. *Long*, applied to all other animals which do not walk erect, always denotes their greatest length, in an horizontal position, from head to tail.

7. In a figurative sense it denotes, with regard to time, any thing at a great distance from us.

8. As also any thing that takes up much time before it is finished; as *a long discourse*, or *protracted note in music*, &c.

BROAD adj. The distance between the two nearest sides of any body whose geometrical dimensions are larger in one direction than another. It has a reference to superficies only, and never to the solid contents: opposed to *narrow*.

1. **BROAD**, in the strictest acceptation, is applied to denote those bodies only whose sides are altogether open and unconfined; as *a broad table, a broad wheel, &c.* And in these cases it is invariably contrasted by the word *narrow*, nor is there any other word which can be considered as exactly synonymous with it.

2. When any object is in some sort bounded on the sides, although not quite closed up, as a road, street, ditch, &c. either *broad* or *wide* may be employed, but with some difference of signification; *broad* being most properly used for those which are more open, and *wide* for those which are more confined; nor can this term be ever applied to such objects as are close bounded all around, as a house, a church, &c. *wide* being here employed. For the more accurate distinctions in these cases, see the article **WIDE**.

To be concluded in our next.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

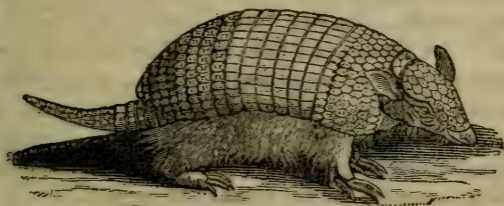
THE verses by *Gulliver* are received. Though that species of composition is not favoured by the Editor, these lines, on account of their execution, shall be admitted.

The paper of *Agrestes* is come to hand. Perhaps all the nine positions he assumes might be granted without much affecting the argument; they might however be disputed,—this would open too wide a door for argument on a subject that would be little interesting to any persons but the combatants themselves. On this account it is improper for our miscellany. It might, when finished, form a separate publication. If the paper be wanted for this purpose it shall be delivered when called for.

The communication from *G. R. H.* is received; though the case cannot be as the writer considers, the fact stated is so singular and curious, that the paper shall be inserted the first convenient opportunity.

Farther acknowledgments deferred for want of room.

THE BEE,
OR
LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,
FOR
WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 8. 1792.



THE ARMADILLO.

THIS animal derives its name from the covering that nature has bestowed upon it, which is a close compact coat of armour, so exceedingly well fitted for defence, and so much resembling the armour of our forefathers, that, had the animal been a native of Europe, we might naturally have conjectured that man had taken his first hint of a coat of mail from this animal. The structure of the shell of the armadillo is, however, far more elegant and commodious than any of the inventions of man; and the animal, though completely armed, moves with nearly as much freedom, and has as much command of all the joints of its body, as if it were covered with a soft flexible skin.

All this class of animals, of which there are many varieties, are natives of south America. They are all covered with a strong crust or shell, nearly as impenetrable as that of the tortoise; and are distinguished from each other by the number of flexible bands of which it is composed. They differ from each other in various other particulars; but, in general, there are two large pieces that cover the shoulders and the rump, between which lie the bands. These bands are not unlike those in the tail of a lobster; and, being flexible, give way to the motions of the animal. The bands and other parts of the shell are ornamented with a vast variety of figures, which render this covering no less beautiful than convenient.

It is a harmless inoffensive animal; feeds on roots, fruits, and other vegetables; grows very fat; and is greatly esteemed for the delicacy of its flesh.

No attempt has yet been made to domesticate this animal; though, if it were capable of being tamed, it would probably add considerably to the luxuries of the table, and the emolument of the farmer. The Indians hunt it with small dogs trained for that purpose. It burrows under ground like the rabbit. When surprised it runs to its hole; or if it cannot get to it, attempts to make a new one, which it does with great expedition, having strong claws on its fore feet, with which it adheres so firmly to the ground, that, if it should be caught by the tail whilst making its way into the earth, its resistance is so great, that it will sometimes leave it in the hands of the pursuers. To avoid this, the hunter has recourse to artifice; and, by tickling it with a stick, it gives up

its hold, and suffers itself to be taken alive. If no other means of escape be left, it rolls itself up within its covering, by drawing in its head and legs, and bringing its tail round them, as a band to connect them more forcibly together; in this situation it sometimes escapes, by rolling itself over the edge of a precipice, and generally falls to the bottom unhurt.

The most successful method of catching armadilloes is by snares laid for them by the sides of rivers, or other places where they frequent. They all burrow very deep in the ground, and seldom stir abroad, except during the night, whilst they are in search of food.

The figure prefixed represents the *six banded* armadillo, called TATOU. It is about the size of a young pig; between the folds of the bands are a few scattered hairs; its belly and thighs are covered with long hairs; its tail is long, thick at the base, and tapers to a point. It is found in Brazil and Guiana.

TIMOLEON'S SECOND LETTER.

To the people of Great Britain.

AGREEABLE to my promise I now proceed to offer some observations on the question, "In what hands may power, in the administration of government, be most safely intrusted; and under what modifications ought it to be put, so as to guard the most effectually against the abuses of it?"

This question, I conceive, can only be properly answered by having recourse to experience; for as to speculative reasoning, in matters of this sort, no reliance can safely be had upon it.

In looking back to the history of past times, we find that the earliest form of government that can be traced is the regal: and the royal authority in the Asiatic dominions, in general, seems to have been subject to few restraints. As far as their history can be traced, the decrees of the prince constituted the law of the land. Despotism appears to have been congenial to these climates. And it has there taken such firm root as still to prevail in that fine country. Human nature, of course, appears in Asia only in a degraded state. The faculties of the mind seem not to have been there ever fully developed. Their vicious system of government represses every noble exertion; and we there look in vain for that energetic ardour which conscious independence can alone inspire.

From Asia, we have good reason to believe that Europe was originally peopled. And the colonies which migrated from thence naturally introduced the same form of government they had experienced at home. In this way we find that the earliest states in Europe, that occur in history, were subjected to regal authority: but by degrees the people becoming sensible of the abuses to which power gave rise among them, endeavoured to vindicate their rights, by not only destroying the tyrants, but also by subjecting those who were intrusted with sovereign sway, to various restraints, with a view to prevent those evils which unlimited power in the sovereign had engendered. To circumstances of this sort we are to attribute the origin of what has been called the

free states of Greece, and the establishment of the Roman republic.

The devices which these people adopted for curbing the power of the first magistrate were various; and the effects of these changes in the administration of government soon became apparent. Man, in these free states, became a more active, a more bustling, a more turbulent animal than formerly. These effects cannot be denied. It is, however, somewhat difficult to answer a question that modern philosophers have started, *viz.* whether the happiness of the human race, was, upon the whole, augmented; or diminished by the changes? On the one hand, there seems to be no doubt but the faculties of the human mind were thus enlarged. But whether, as in paradise, the knowledge of good, did not also introduce with it the knowledge of evil, in a yet higher degree, is difficult to say. All that we are authorised to pronounce with certainty, from a review of these ancient free states, is, that the changes they adopted in their form of government were by no means calculated to produce the effect intended; for though power was thus taken from one set of persons, and given to another, it was still liable to be abused; and these abuses became in a short time so great, as to end in the total overthrow of the respective constitutions of government, and enslavement of the people in all of them. The existence of all these free states was short: the whole course of their political life was "a troubled stream:" private property was never among them effectually secured: manufactures and industry were scarcely there known:

war was their trade, and rapine was deemed heroism. The real ends of government were not of course answered by the political institutions they adopted. It is not, therefore, among the ancients that we are to look for lessons in the art of government. Mankind were then evidently unacquainted with the circumstances which constitute the essence of political freedom. And, were we not accustomed from our infancy to admire the institutions of the states of Greece and Rome, without understanding them, we should perhaps execrate them as the basest political establishments that ever existed on the globe. What we have been accustomed to adore under the name of struggles for freedom, if they had been denominated, as they really were, contentions for power, would have excited our disgust instead of admiration. So little was the prosperity of the country, by which I mean the general happiness and tranquillity of the people, attended to, or understood, that there is not, among all their squabbles, which are recorded with so much pomp and parade by their historians, one single institution, either proposed or adopted, that had a clear and direct tendency to that end. It is a continued bustle for that, which, if it had been obtained, could have profited them nothing. It is not therefore from the models of antiquity that "*the friends of the people*" wish to borrow their ideas of improving the constitution of Britain, but from other less objectionable sources.

The great object which seems to have been aimed at by the constitution-makers of antiquity, was to limit the time during which the supreme authority of the

first magistrate could be held by any one man; and provided this was effectually done they seemed to think that all was well. They were not aware that while they thus repressed the insolence of one man, they conferred that power on thousands of others, who would be much less scrupulous in exercising, and with more difficulty checked in abusing it. While they shut the door against one abuse, they opened up a source of corruption that was insatiable. Virtue, in those who there aimed at power, was, of all qualities, that which was the most unsuccessful. Frugality and public economy were in him the worst of crimes; and he who could squander the public money with the most lavish profusion in feasts, entertainments, and shows, was the person who was deemed the most capable of conducting public affairs. In this way the body of the people became corrupted,—their leaders abandoned in principle,—and their political existence of course came quickly to an end.

It was reserved for modern times, warned by the unfortunate fate of these ill judging states, to devise a political system by which the power of the first magistrate should be so respectable as to be able to curb disorders in the state, though at the same time so limited as to be unable to oppress the weakest individual. It is that system which the “friends of the people” wish to defend; and it is to guard against corruptions that threaten to sap the foundations of it which has induced them to associate together at present, and to step forward, as the true vindicators of freedom in our happy constitution. Where we adhere to these principles, who will deny that we

ought to be supported? Whenever we depart from them, should we, through ignorance or inadvertency do so, we wish to be instantly abandoned by all the world. He who sets us right in such a case will be deemed our best friend. We contend not for victory: the welfare of our country, and the happiness of her people, are the objects we have in view, and the sole end of all our struggles.

It is worthy of remark, that experience in modern times should have proved, that the peaceful security to the subject was best to be obtained by a procedure directly the reverse of what the ancients seemed to think constituted the very essence of freedom; and that the same experience should have proved that it was even best to be obtained by a procedure that reason, unaided by experience, would in all cases pronounce to be preposterous and absurd. After long experiencing the multiplied evils that proceeded from the frequent elections of the first magistrate, they came, at last, universally, in every country in Europe, to confer upon him that authority *for life*. Contrary to what might have been expected by reasoning *a priori* on this subject, it was soon found that this alteration tended very much to augment the public security, when accompanied with some other salutary regulations that experience enabled them also gradually to discover. Nor did they stop here: the same experience enabled them to discover that the benefits that were derived from rendering the chief magistracy hereditary in one family, rather than elective, were also great and unequivocal. Thence it has happened that as the benefits resulting from personal

security, and that of property became better known in Europe, the election of kings was gradually set aside, and the rule of hereditary succession was established in its stead. These are facts that cannot be controverted, and tend most clearly to prove, that, in matters of government, experience discovers that what appears to be inviting to contemplate, often proves to be very prejudicial, and that which in speculation would seem to be demonstratively absurd, is yet in the highest degree salutary when reduced to practice.

The society of "the friends of the people," aware of the arts that have been employed to depreciate them in the eyes of sensible men, know well, that those who have this object in view have endeavoured to represent them as enemies to regal power of every sort; though nothing can be more calumnious and unjust. On this head I beg leave to quote a passage from the justly celebrated historian of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, which coincides entirely with my own opinion, as well as with that of a great majority of our society.

"Of the various forms of government which have prevailed in the world, says Mr Gibbon, an hereditary monarchy seems to present the fairest scope for ridicule. Is it possible to relate, without an indignant smile, that, on the father's decease, the property of a nation, like that of a drove of oxen, descends to his infant son, as yet unknown to the world and himself; and that the bravest warriors, and the wisest statesmen, relinquishing their natural right of empire, approach the royal cradle with bea-

ded knees, and protestations of inviolable fidelity? Satire and declamation may paint these obvious topics in the most dazzling colours; but our more serious thoughts will respect an useful invention, that establishes a rule of succession, independent of the passions of mankind; and we shall cheerfully acquiesce in any expedient which deprives the multitude of the dangerous, and, indeed, the ideal power, of giving themselves a master. In the cool shade of retirement, we may easily devise imaginary modes of government, in which the sceptre shall be constantly bestowed on the most worthy, by the free and incorrupt suffrage of the whole community. Experience overturns these airy fabrics, and teaches us, that, in a large society, the election of a monarch can never devolve on the wisest, or most numerous part of the people. The army is the only order of men sufficiently united to concur in the same sentiments, and powerful enough to impose them on the rest of their fellow citizens; but the temper of soldiers, habituated at once to violence and slavery, renders them very unfit guardians of a legal, or even a civil constitution. The superior prerogative of birth, when it has obtained the sanction of time and popular opinion, is the plainest, and least invidious of all distinctions among mankind. The acknowledged right extinguishes the hopes of faction, and the conscious security disarms the cruelty of the monarch. To the firm establishment of this idea, we owe the peaceful succession and mild administration of European monarchies*.”

* Gibbon, vol. i. p. 204.

Perfectly convinced of these important truths, the society of "the friends of the people," are so far from adopting the wild ideas which some have attributed to them, of wishing to destroy hereditary monarchy, that they will employ their most strenuous efforts to protect this wise institution, against the machinations of short sighted innovators, whose feeble understandings, only skimming the surface, are struck with the apparent absurdities that catch every one who cannot look deeper to mark the real state of things. Such childish ideas we should be ashamed to adopt.

Even the French legislators, whose efforts at forming a constitution we by no means hold up to the world as a model of perfection, have recognised the justness of this principle. And though, by emasculating the power of their hereditary representative of the people, as they are pleased absurdly enough to stile the king, they have conferred upon the army a power that it never ought to possess in a well constituted state, dear bought experience will probably soon teach them their error; and we hope will enable them to correct that, together with several other radical errors, into which the natural vivacity of that people has inadvertently precipitated them.

But while we thus despise the stupid rage for indiscriminate innovation, which some turbulent spirits wish to encourage, we shall strenuously strive, by every constitutional means in our power, to bring about such alterations, as reason and experience shall clearly prove to be salutary and expedient; for of all absurd things that can be conceived, surely the most absurd is that which supposes that any human in-

stitution can ever be so perfect as never to stand in need of any amendment.

London, }
June 29, 1792. }

TIMOLEON.

ON THE COTTON MANUFACTURES.

For the Bee.

It is within all our memories that there was not a single piece of entire cotton cloth woven in Great Britain. The manufacture of Manchester consisted originally of linen warp and worsted woof; such as checks, plushes, and linsey winsey goods; afterwards the woof of cotton was introduced. The art of spinning cotton with jennies, enlarged this kind of manufacture. But the cotton so spun was of too delicate a texture to serve as warp. At last the spinning by water engines was invented by Mr Arkwright. The advantages of these engines are innumerable, in so much that the cotton manufacture may date the æra of its commencement from this invention. By means thereof cotton was spun many times cheaper than it had been, and the cotton yarn was so even and hard twisted, as to be peculiarly fitted for the warp of that fabric. The progress of the manufacture was thenceforth most amazingly rapid. In a few years after the discovery, Mr Arkwright owned, or was partly interested in eleven different engines. Some of those consisted of 4000 spindles which are worked night and day, or at least twenty-three of the twenty-four hours; one hour being allotted for examining and oiling the machinery. There

is as regular a relief of hands, watch and watch about, as in a ship. The thread yarn is in universal demand. Mr Arkwright's sales, alone, are not less than from L. 12,000 to L. 15,000 *per* month. His gains in some years are said to have exceeded L. 40,000 sterling, as may be well imagined, so long as he could retain a monopoly of this valuable discovery. The trade was still farther extended by invasions made on Mr Arkwright's patent. Some bought the privilege of him at L. 7 *per* spindle; others disputed the discovery with him, and foiled him at law. The patent not extending to Scotland, several engines were soon erected there. Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire, Cheshire, and Yorkshire have many of them; they are erecting every where. A new engine is also discovered which goes by the hand, and unites the properties of the jennies and the spinning water engines; and is therefore called a *mule*. It is capable of spinning yarn ten shillings in the pound weight finer than the water engines, and equally fit for warp. I heard of one pound of yarn so spun, being sold for L. 2 : 12 : 6. Neither this nor the engines have lessened the number of spinning jennies; but, on the contrary, greatly increased their number. The one spins only warp, the other woof; so that they mutually aid each other.

When it was first discovered that cotton cloth could be woven, lord Howe, at the desire of his Nottingham friends, obtained a remission of the double duties paid on printing cloths entirely cotton, if manufactured in Britain; and a few years ago a bounty was given on British cottons when printed

and exported. By means of those various inventions and encouragements, the progress of the cotton manufacture has been rapid beyond belief. It is now become a general wear both for men and women. It is substituted in the room of East India cotton; of German, Irish, and Scotch linen; and also in place of much of the thin woollen and worsted goods of England. It is found a more agreeable and a cheaper wear, than any of the above mentioned. Hitherto little of it has been used for shirts, sheeting, or tabling. But those who have tried it in all those ways give it the preference, especially in the two first. It is found to last longer, and to be warmer and cheaper; so that there is hardly a doubt of its supplanting, in a short time, all the different manufactures above mentioned. This opinion coincides with Mr Arkwright's delivered four or five years ago. It not only consumes the cotton of our own West India islands, but large quantities are imported from France, Holland, and Spain; which last, and that of Demerary, and Surinam, is the finest cotton brought to Europe.

I know but two means by which the linen manufacturers can escape being ruined by the rapid progress of the cotton manufacture. One is the invention of a means of spinning linen yarn by machines; Mr Arkwright is said to have discovered the art of doing so. But he is too old and too rich to prosecute an uncertain and laborious discovery. The other is for the linen manufacturers to betake themselves to the manufacturing of cotton. From the facility with which the Manchester people have learnt

this branch of business within these last seven years, we may presume the transition is not difficult, far less impossible. And if this supposition be well founded, it would be easy to shew that Scotland possesses other advantages, which would enable it to cope with, if not to rival, and even outdo England in cotton, as much as it has done in gauze and lawns. Every where in Scotland the access to London, by sea, is easy and expeditious. In England much of the cotton is sent, and the goods returned, hundreds of miles, by land carriage. Fuel is equally cheap, labour much cheaper, also materials for building are every where at hand, and the people are equally industrious, much soberer, and more easily maintained. Neither need we fear that the cream of the business is over, or the market in danger of being over stocked. Hitherto the demand has surpassed the means of supplying it. And will not this be the case for many many years to come, if cotton can be introduced in the place of linen? What a vast career is open for this manufacture! estimating the German linen imported into Great Britain at twenty-five millions, the Irish at fifteen millions, and the Scotch at as much, not to mention the number of woollen fabrics which cotton is likely to supplant! The immense wages earned by the cotton manufacturers is a strong confirmation of this opinion. Children of eight years old earn 2s. a week, no weaver less than that sum *per* day, many of them 30 and 35s. a week, a woman by spinning can get a shilling a day. The towns where it is carried on are increasing amazingly in population. The country no less

so. There is hardly a field in Lancashire in which you do not see built or building, a cluster of four, five, or six manufacturers houses; land round their towns lets at L. 4 or L. 5 *per* acre; and a general appearance of wealth and plenty diffuses itself where ever the cotton business is carried on. Favoured as the India cotton is, the parliament will not hesitate to impose duties, and even prohibitions, on such articles as we are able to furnish for ourselves. Not only the British market is open to us, but all Europe calls for our Manchester and cotton goods. Some states admit them freely, others, under higher duties; and the rest in a contraband way contrive to obtain them. The consumption in France, by the way of Holland, is immense. Considering how much we have got the start of other nations, considering our liberty, our industry, our capital, it is hard to say when they will be able to vie with us. It is believed there would be full employment for them all, if every parish in Scotland contained a spinning machine, five times as big as its parish kirk. The five already erected in Scotland go on with a degree of success which cannot fail to produce more.

Prudence requires us to forbear entering upon one of the most important considerations relative to this subject. I mean the proper way to proceed in order to introduce this branch most speedily into Scotland. There are certainly difficulties in the way, which would be increased by discoursing about them. The more quietly this is undertaken the better chance it has to succeed. Little should be said till we are fully possessed of every machine, whether for weaving

or spinning that is known and used any where else. I must observe, however, that the present seems to be the fittest time for the undertaking. While the profits are higher than on any other branch of business, there is wherewithal to compensate the expence of so new an undertaking, and to allow for the blunders and awkwardness of our artificers, weavers, and spinners. By and by this will not be the case. It is hardly to be doubted the profits will be gradually lessened by competition. Mr Arkwright has lowered his yarn 20 *per cent.* within this month. It will at last be reduced to the general average of the profits of trade in a free country, which, if necessary, it would be easy to prove to be equal in every branch of trade, where novelty and monopoly are excluded. The adoption of the cotton trade is not, therefore, proposed as a means which will *long* produce superior and extraordinary profits to those concerned in it; but as a resource for the inhabitants of a country who are likely to be deprived of their present means of earning their livelihood; and as a business which will not only secure to the present linen manufacturers certain bread, even when the linen manufacture shall be extinguished, but promises fair to be of a more durable and extensive nature than ever the linen manufacture has hitherto been. It is also certain of more and better encouragement from parliament, which, on account of the woollen trade, has treated foreign linens with more gentleness than any other manufacture that stood in competition with our own; besides, the Irish cannot import it as they do their linen into Great Britain. It would be a matter of

curious speculation to consider whether the cotton or linen manufacture merits best to be encouraged. To consider the subject in a public and national view, would lead to very extensive discussions, and somewhat foreign to the present subject, which proceeds on a supposition that, whether the cotton manufacture be most eligible for our country or not, it will infallibly establish itself. Suffice it to say, our West India islands will be greatly benefitted by it; our shipping and navigation to the West Indies must increase by the transportation of so bulky a commodity, and the proportionable exports to the West Indies; the heavy balance against us with the Baltic for flax will be lessened; and, should the growth of flax at home be thereby discouraged, it is a matter of some doubt if flax be a production altogether congenial to our soil and climate; and also whether the land of Scotland can be better employed than in bearing food for its people. The high price of meal for many years gives room to believe it would not. The law of the present session, lowering the duties on our home distillery, to an alarming degree, promises to be favourable to the farmer at least, if not to the health, and morals, and industry of the people at large.

G. D.

N. B. Some of the spinning mills are worked by water, raised by means of a fire engine. There is one at Manchester, the fire engine of which costs upwards of L. 1200 a year, and raises about 9000 gallons of water in a minute,—about 216,000 hogheads, or 79,000 tons *per day*.

Cotton stockings have supplanted linen thread stockings completely, and begin to be worn by many people who wore only silk before. This alone is a vast branch for which the twisted yarn of the machines is remarkably fit: some of it for stockings is made as fine as ninety hanks to the pound weight.

The African trade is supplied with a great deal of coarse British cotton goods made to imitate the Indian.

Yarn of various kinds are spun with the water machines: a pound of some thread requires eighty days to be spun with one spindle, and a pound of the coarser kinds only three days. But the most profit is gotten from spinning the middling kinds.

It is to be observed, that cotton cloth can be bleached at a fourth of the expence and time required for bleaching linen of the same fineness.

N.B. *The above written in the year 1784.*

ON MATHEMATICS.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

I ENJOY much pleasure in perusing your papers, and would long before this have attempted to contribute my aid in promoting the success of your laudable undertaking, but besides being much employed, I was very diffident of any thing I wished to communicate: this prevented me from testifying my approbation, or uniting my feeble efforts to vary the entertainment and add utility to the performance.

The design of rendering the Bee useful to the clergy, for the reasons assigned, makes it a channel of

information to them and others, and may convey to many, in quest of literature, subjects suited to please or to inform. My reason for writing to you is chiefly because the clergy are the only set of men that are to be supposed acquainted with those who pursue learning in any profession, particularly those who have the same studies in view: and such being the case, they are always considered by the Tiroes in science, as the directors of their studies, and their patrons in the pursuit of it; they are consulted in every difficulty,—they are advised of every plan,—it is then in their power to administer an advice that may prove beneficial. There is one particular branch of their study I mean to recommend,—a branch which is least of all attended to, and which I think principally demands attention, that is the science of mathematics, and all the collateral branches. It is certain that to such a piece of learning they must partly attend as a necessary preparation for their admision to sacred studies; but it is too certain that such a science is termed dry and insipid, treated with carelesness, and reckoned useles. To those who have entered fully into the study, this conduct appears foolish in the highest degree. Natural philosophy, without previous acquaintance with mathematics, is partly lost to those who attend it, and will seem as insipid as the principles calculated to illustrate it. Eminent teachers are often blamed by ignorant hearers as abstruse; and the utility of the wise is depreciated by unskilful critics, which sometimes has been the case with the science last mentioned; but when all acknowledge the value of philosophy, why trifle with

those branches of literature on which the knowledge of most of its doctrines are founded? It is an error however that too many commit; and by thus indulging an aversion at a particular study, are in danger of rivetting the principle on their own minds, and of transmitting it to those who may in future be under their inspection; thus it becomes pernicious to themselves and posterity. But I am apt to believe, were the clergy carefully to examine and attend to the studies of those under them, and chiefly to inculcate strict perseverance and attention in the pursuit of mathematical learning, especially as that, of all the rest, is least regarded, we would see rising genius arrive at greater perfection, and with joy would pre-
sage illustrious successors; and would see the chairs of literature filled with those who bid fair to bring science to maturity. Such an exertion, on the part of the clergy, will not, I hope, be reckoned burdensome: the prospect of good arising from the task, will the more excite a benevolent mind to devote time, and study, to that work, which not only promises personal advantage, but general benefit. Much is in the minister's power,--he can not only recommend the science to their attention, but may promote their progress, and can timeously have opportunity of discovering how far they are instructed in the science, and may, therefore, with precision, be able to decide, whether their knowledge in it is a sufficient preparation for entering on those parts of literature that are thereby illustrated, and contribute his assistance accordingly. If, through your influence, the clergy would be still more useful in exerting themselves in favour of those

who will in future occupy their place, and have the field of science under their review, the good effects might very soon appear. If this attempt can, by your attention, be prepared for a place in the Bee, it will highly favour your constant reader,

PHYSICOPHILOLOGUS.

ANECDOTE OF JAMES I.

JAMES, the first of England, and sixth of Scotland, who was no way deficient in sense, or knowledge, or wit, seems to have been remarkably deficient in the no less important talent of steadiness or vigour of mind. It is said he knew well enough his own defect; and that he was once told of it in a very curious manner from the pulpit. He heard of a famous preacher, who, according to the fashion of the times, was very witty in his sermons, and peculiarly happy in his choice of texts. James got this person to preach before him; who, with all suitable gravity, gave out his text in the following words: *James*, first and sixth, in the latter part of the verse. "He that wavereth is like a wave of the sea, driven by the winds and tossed." "He is at me already," said the king. The text is genuine, and the application of it witty, even independently of the pun, which seems so well suited to the taste of the times, and especially of James and his court.

* (* * *) *

POETRY.

ON FLATTERY.

For the Bee.

SINCE faults in the best heart are blended,
That I am tardy to admire,
Kind Sir, you cannot be offended,
To flatter makes our patience tire:

'Tis long since I have gone to school,
To learn the virtues of high station;
Nor shall I be the wretched tool
Of any rascal's celebration.

The closer one surveys his friend,
The less he finds himself his debtor;
All panegyrists in the end
Perceive,—the shorter tale the better.

That man who truly merits praise,
When such a man is in existence,
Seeks not to make the vulgar gaze,
But keeps all white wash at a distance:

TUMBLEDOWN.

MARTIAL, LIB. V. EPIG. X. IMITATED.

For the Bee.

YOU simply wonder how it comes to pass,
That merit when alive is oft neglected;
I tell you this dull world's a jealous ass,
And folly may for ever be expected.

'Tis Envy's triumph to prefer the past,
Still on each current hour the dæmon scowls;
As if our sires in purer moulds were cast,
And had not like ourselves been rogues and fools.

Homer, they say, whom every dunce admires,
Had but a very sorry vagrant life;
And Socrates with all his fame expires,
Starv'd by his friends, and henpeck'd by his wife.

That every future age will read with rapture
These wond'rous works, most evident appears;
Yet if my burial must begin the chapter,
I'll wait with patience for an hundred years.

THUNDERPROOF.

MARTIAL, LIB. XII. EPIG. XXXI. IMITATED.

For the Bee.

THAT grove, these fountains, this delightful shade,
 In summer's richest luxuries array'd;
 'The pear, the peach; the orange, and the vine,
 These olives I so proudly mark as mine;
 Those flow'ry meadows, yon transparent pool,
 The speckled trout, the plump delicious fowl,
 Marcella gave; from thirty years of toil,
 When, friendless, I return'd to see my native soil.
 More priz'd, more precious far than all the rest,
 She gave—that love which fires her godlike breast.
 In my chill'd veins, tumultuous joy revives;
 I live but to adorè the first of wives.

AMICUS.

THE NINTH ELEGY OF BUCHANAN TRANSLATED.

For the Bee.

TIR'D of disastrous love's insulting yoke;
 I fled my mistress, and her bondage broke,
 But Cupid's jealous eye pursu'd my flight,
 "And dare you, thus," he cried, "our empire slight?"
 He said, and wav'd his torch; the torch appears,
 Long since, alas! - extinguish'd by my tears.
 The angry boy intent on vengeance frown'd,
 And cast his rattling quiver on the ground.
 Instant at me he levell'd ev'ry dart,
 A thousand shafts are buried in my heart;
 Before, behind, his rage assails me round,
 Till my whole body seems one common wound.
 Mad that I bear his arrows undismay'd,
 He flies, dear Fanny! to demand your aid;
 Advancing boldly while asleep you lay,
 He caught your golden locks, and stole a hair away;
 And as I laugh'd,—for who could fancy harms
 From such a source? he sternly bound my arms.
 While long and hard I strove, but strove in vain,
 He forc'd me back your captive to remain.
 Ev'n I who in contempt the tyrant held,
 And vaunted that his sway for ever was expell'd,
 Now feel the pangs of love revolt again,
 And a fresh fever boils in every vein;
 But you whom Venus views with kinder eyes,
 And suffers to attain a happy prize;
 Laugh not too proudly that I thus repine,
 Your fate to-morrow may be such as mine.

CINNA.

EXERCISES IN PRACTICAL GRAMMAR.

Continued from p. 152.

Dictionary.

WIDE, adj. A term employed to denote relative extent in certain circumstances. Opposed to *narrow* and *strait*.

1. This term is, in its proper sense, applied only to denote the space contained within any body closed all round on every side, as a house, gate, &c; and differs from *broad* in this, that it never relates to the superficies of solid objects, but is employed to express the capaciousness of any body which containeth vacant space; nor can capaciousness, in this sense, be expressed by any other word but *wide*.

2. As many bodies may be considered either with respect to their capaciousness or superficial extent; in all these cases, either the term *broad*, or *wide*, may be used; as a *broad* or *wide street*, or *ditch*, &c. but with a greater or lesser degree of propriety, according to the circumstances of the object, or the idea we wish to convey. In a street where the houses are low, and the boundaries open, or a ditch of small depth and large superficies, as this largeness of superficies bears the principal proportion, *broad* would be more proper; but if the houses were of great height, or the ditch of great depth, and capaciousness is a principal property that affects the mind, we would naturally say a *wide street* or *ditch*; and the same may be said of all similar cases. But there are some cases in which both these terms are applied, with a greater difference of meaning: thus we say a *broad* or a *wide gate*; but as the gate is employed either to denote the aperture in the wall, or the matter which closes that aperture, these terms are each of them used to denote that particular quality to

which they are applied ; and as the opening itself can never be considered as a superficies, the term *wide*, in this case, denotes the distances between the sides of the aperture ; while, on the contrary, *broad* denotes the extent of matter fitted to close that aperture ; nor can these two terms in any case be substituted for one another.

3. As a figurative expression it is used as a cant phrase for a mistake ; as *you are wide of the mark* ; that is not near the truth.

NARROW, adj. A relative term ; denoting a proportional distance between the sides of the superficies of plain bodies. Opposed to *broad*.

1. As this is only applied to superficies, it is exactly contrasted by *broad*, and is applied in all cases where the term *broad* can be used, (see **BROAD**) and in no other case but as a contrast to it, except the following.

2. It sometimes is employed to describe the smallness of space circumscribed between certain boundaries, as opposed to *wide*, and nearly synonymous with *strait* ; we say, *a wide or a narrow house, church, &c.* For the necessary distinctions here, see the article **STRAIT**.

3. In a figurative sense it denotes *parsimony, poverty, confined sentiments*.

STRAIT, adj. A relative term denoting the extent of space in certain circumstances. Opposed to *wide*. See **WIDE**.

1. This term is employed in its proper sense to denote only space, as contained between surrounding bodies ; in such circumstances as to denote some degree of confinement ; and is exactly opposed to *wide*, as *a wide or a strait gate, &c.* See **WIDE**.

2. So necessary is it that the idea of confinement should be connected with this word, that, in all those cases where the space contained is large, as a church or house, we

cannot express a smaller proportional width by this term. And as we have no other word to express space in these circumstances, we have been obliged to force the word *narrow* from its natural signification, and make it express this. See NARROW.

3. In some particular cases *narrow* or *strait* may be employed to denote the same object; as *a narrow* or *a strait lane*: but here *strait* is never employed but where an idea of confinement is suggested, and where it is exactly contrasted to *wide*; nor can *narrow* be employed but in such circumstances where *broad* would be a perfect contrast to it. Therefore these two terms may be always employed in the same circumstances as those which contrast them may be. For an account of which, see WIDE.

4. *Strait* is also employed to denote a narrow opening in the land, through which the sea flows, as the Straits of Gibraltar, the Straits of Dover, the Straits of Sunda, &c. This word ought never to be confounded with *straight*. See STRAIGHT.

5. The term *strait* is likewise, in a particular manner, used to denote the smallness of the internal diameter of those small bodies which are fitted to receive or contain others, as any kind of bag, tube, body-clothes, mortises, and others of the same kind; and in all these cases this term may be employed to denote the smallness of their lesser diameter, and never the term *narrow*. But in certain circumstances the word *tight* may be substituted for it. See TIGHT.

6. *Strait*, in a figurative sense, denotes any sort of confinement of sentiment or disposition.

TIGHT, adj. A term employed in certain circumstances to denote the internal capacity of particular bodies; nearly synonymous with *strait*.

This term is confined entirely to denote the smallness of the internal dimensions of such objects as are formed to cover, or to receive, or contain other solid bodies, and can be employed in no other case. And although it agrees with *strait*, in always denoting confinement, and by being applicable to the same species of objects, yet it differs in the following respects: 1. If there be any difference of the diameter of the objects to which the term *strait* can be applied, it always has reference to the smaller; yet *tight* may be applied to any sort of confinement, whether it regards the length or the breadth. 2. *Strait* can be applied to all bodies of capacity when of small diameter, without any sort of reference to the nature of the substance which it may be capable of containing. For we can say *a strait bag, a strait sleeve, a strait mortoise, a strait gate, &c.* whereas *tight* can only be applied to any body, when it is considered as having a reference to another body which is intended to be contained in it, and is pinched for want of room. Thus we say *the sleeve of a coat is too tight for the arm, the mortoise is too tight for the tenon, &c.*; but we cannot say *the bag or the gate is too tight*, because these are fitted to receive any sort of objects. And hence it happens that, in many cases, the dimensions of the same body may be expressed by *tight* or *strait* when considered in different circumstances. Thus we may say *this sleeve is too strait*, when we look at a coat when lying on the table, and consider its proportions; but it is not till we have tried it upon the arm that it is intended to cover, that we call it *tight*. And we may say *a gate is too strait, or too tight*: but in the first case we consider it as being too confined for admitting objects to pass through it; and, in the last, as being too confined with respect to the leaves that are to shut the aperture, not allowing them space to move with freedom.

STRAIGHT, adj. A general term which denotes that the object to which it refers is not bent or crooked in any direction; always contrasted with *bent* or *crooked*, and never with *broad* or *wide*.

A straight line the shortest line that can be drawn between two points.

This word had no other signification in the English language till a few years ago, when some affected writers took it in their head to coundound it with *strait*, or to interchange the one word for the other; so that *strait* and *straight* are now frequently confounded with each other: nothing is now more common than to hear of a *strait line*, and the *Straights of Gibraltar*. This is a corruption of the language that cannot be too severely reprehended.

These examples may serve to give some idea of the plan of an English dictionary composed upon philosophical principles; but, besides the circumstances above enumerated, there are many others which would require particular attention in the execution of a work of this kind. In the English language a great variety of terms occur, which denote matter under certain general forms or circumstances, without regard to the minute diversities that may take place; as the word *cloth*, which denotes matter manufactured into a particular form including under it all the variety of stuffs manufactured in that particular way of whatever materials, colours, textures, or fineness they may be. The same may be said of *wood*, *iron*, *yarn*, and a great variety of other terms of the same nature, some of which cannot assume any plural, while others admit of it in all cases, and others admit or refuse it according to the different circumstances in which they are considered. In a dictionary, therefore, all this variety of cases ought to be clearly and distinctly pointed out under each particular article: this is the more necessary, as some of these words have others formed from them, which might be readily mistaken for

their plurals, although they have a very different signification; as *clothes*, which does not denote any number of pieces or different kinds of cloth, but *wearing apparel*. The following example will elucidate this head.

WOOD, n. A solid substance of which the trunks and branches of trees consist.

1. This term is employed to denote the solid parts of vegetables of all kinds, in whatever form or circumstances they are found. Nor does this term admit of a plural with propriety, unless in the circumstances after mentioned; for we say, *many different kinds of wood*, in preference to *many kinds of woods*; or we say *oak, ash, or elm wood*, not *woods*.

2. But where we want to contrast wood of one quality or country with that of another, it admits of a plural: for we say *white woods are in general softer than red*; or *West Indian woods are generally of greater specific gravity than the European woods*: but unless where the colour, or some quality which distinguishes it from growing wood, is mentioned, this plural ought as much as possible to be avoided, as it always suggests an idea of growing wood.

3. *Wood* likewise denotes a number of trees growing near one another; being nearly synonymous with forest. See FOREST. In this sense it always admits of a plural: as, *ye woods and wilds, whose solitary gloom, &c.*

Many other particulars would require to be adverted to in forming a perfect dictionary, which are omitted to avoid becoming tedious; our design is merely to suggest a few general notions on this subject.

SELICO, A TALE.

Translated from the French of M. Florian.

IF one would believe what some philosophers assert, that this world is governed by two powers, one who gives us

the little good we enjoy, and the other all the evil which abounds, we should be induced to think that in Africa this doctrine had its foundation. No land produces so many poisons, venomous reptiles, or wild beasts. The little we know of the history of Morocco, of the negroes of Andia, of the Jaggas, and other districts along the coast to the country of the Hottentots, appears very much to resemble the histories of lions, panthers, and serpents, so worthy to partake of this burnt up land with its cannibal kings who carry to market the flesh of their prisoners. In the midst however of these sanguinary monsters and disgusting horrors, (some who sell their children, and others who eat their prisoners,) natural equity and justice, real virtue, constancy in pain, and a contempt of death, are sometimes to be found. These examples, rare as they may be, are sufficient to interest us in these degraded beings, and to remind us they are men. Thus in the most barren desart, a few green plants, which console the distressed traveller, remind him that he is still upon the earth.

In the kingdom of Juida, on the coast of Guinea, beyond the cape of three points, and not far from the city of Sabi, in the year 1727, lived the widow Darina. She was the mother of three sons whom she had nursed with a tenderness fortunately very common in nature, but not so in these climates, where children are looked upon as objects of commerce, and sold by their unnatural parents. The eldest was called Guberi, the second Teloné, the youngest Selico. All of them had good dispositions and adored their mother, who now, aged and infirm, only existed by their attentions and care. The riches of this family were comprised in a hut, which they inhabited together, and a small field near it which supplied them with maize. Every morning one of the

brothers alternately went a hunting, cultivated the field, or attended their mother. At night they met together, the hunter brought his partridges, his parrots, or his comb of honey, the farmer his herbs and roots, and he who remained at home had the repast ready prepared; they supped all four together, contending with each other for the pleasure of waiting on their mother; and afterwards laying themselves down on straw, slept in quiet till the return of day.

Selico, the youngest of the brothers went often to Sabi to carry the earliest fruits as offerings of his poor family to the temple of the deity: this deity, as is well known was a huge serpent, of the sort called *fetiches*, which have no venom, and who devour others which are venomous; they are so much revered in Juida, that any person killing one would be thought guilty of a great crime; therefore this species of snake is increased to a prodigious degree; and, being sacred, they are found in quantities in every town or village, where they eat familiarly from their plates, and even lay their eggs in the beds of the natives, who look upon it as the most fortunate of events, and a certain presage of their well doing.

Selico was the handsomest, the best made, and the most amiable of all the negroes of Juida; he had seen, in the temple, Berisfa, the daughter of the high priest, who surpassed all her companions in elegant grace and beauty. Selico adored her and was happy in having his love returned. Every Wednesday, sacred to religion and repose among the negroes, the young lover hastened to the temple, and passed the day with his dear Berisfa, conversing with her of his mother, his love, and the happiness they should enjoy when Hymen had united them; Berisfa did not disguise her sentiments, and the aged Facullo her father, who approved of this union, promised, as he embraced them, that he would soon crown their mutual tendernefs.

At length this long wished for epocha came,—the day was fixed for the ceremony,—the mother of Selico and his two brothers had already prepared the hut for the bride and bridegroom, when the famous Truro Audati, king of Dahomai, whose rapid conquests have been celebrated even in Europe, invaded the kingdom of Andia and exterminated its inhabitants. In advancing at the head of his formidable army, he was stopped by the large river which divides it from Juida, whose king, a pusillanimous and cowardly being, governed by his wives and ministers, never thought of opposing any troops to those of the conqueror; he thought that his gods would defend his country, and ordered all the serpents fetiches to be carried to the banks of the river. The conqueror, surprised and picqued to have only such reptiles to combat, plunged into the river with his troops, and soon swam over. The gods from whom such miracles were expected were soon cut into pieces, roasted, and devoured by the conquerors. The king of Juida, not thinking any farther effort of avail, fled and hid himself in a neighbouring island. The warriors of Audati spread all over his kingdom, and with fire and sword burnt villages and forests, and masacred all without pity. Fear had dispersed what few inhabitants had escaped this butchery; the three brothers at the first approach of the conqueror, had fled with their mother on their shoulders, to hide themselves in the thickest forest. Selico would not quit Darina as long as she was exposed to the smallest danger; but he no sooner saw her in safety, than trembling for Berisa, he hastened to Sabi to inquire after her, to save her, or to perish together. Sabi had just been taken by the Dahomais;—the streets ran with blood;—the houses pillaged and destroyed;—the palace of the king, the temple of the serpent, were no longer any thing but smoking ruins, covered with carcasses, whose heads the

barbarians had, according to their custom, carried away with them. The unhappy Selico, in despair, wished for death, and dared it a thousand times in the midst of this soldiery, drunk with brandy and with blood. Selico searched all these miserable ruins, looking for, and calling, with cries of grief, on Berisfa and Faculho; but in vain! he could not discern their bodies amidst so many mutilated trunks. After having given up five days to this fruitless and melancholy search, Selico set out to return to his mother, no longer doubting but that Berisfa and her father had fallen victims to the ferocious Dahomais. He found his mother in the same wood where he had left her with his brothers. The melancholy and distracted looks of Selico, frightened and alarmed a family already miserable. Darina wept over his misfortunes, and attempted consolations which her son was insensible to. He refused all food, and seemed determined to starve himself to death. Guberi and Teloné did not endeavour to alter his resolution by reasoning or intreaties; but pointed to their old mother, who now had not any longer home or bread, or any thing in this world but her children, and then asked, if, after such a sight, he did not feel himself bold enough to live. Selico promised he would; and endeavoured to think no more of his misfortunes, but to divide with his brothers their attention to his mother. They penetrated more into the interior parts of the forest; built a hut in a sequestered valley; and endeavoured to supply, by the chase, the maize and roots which they were in want of. Having lost their bows and arrows, and other things which they had not time to carry off with them, they soon felt the effects of famine. Fruits were scarce in this forest, where the monkies disputed them with the three brothers. The land only produced grass; they had no instruments to work it, and no seed to sow, if it had been worked. The rainy season was setting in, and their dis-

treas still augmented. The poor mother continually suffering upon a bed of dried leaves, never complained, but was declining very fast : her sons, worn out with hunger, could no longer go into the woods, which were now under water : they set traps for small birds, and, when they took any, which was very seldom, they carried it to their mother, and gave it her with a forced smile ; but the mother scarce would eat it, because she could not make her sons partake of it.

Three months passed without bringing any change to their miserable situation. The three brothers obliged at last to come to some determined resolution, consulted together unknown to Darina. Guberi proposed first that they should go to the coast, and that one of them should be sold to the first European factory, in order to buy bread, maize, instruments of agriculture, and every thing necessary to support their aged parent. A melancholy silence was the answer of the two brothers. To separate,—to quit each other for ever,—to be the slave of white men ! That idea distracted them.—“ Who will be sold ? ” cried out Teloné, with a doleful voice. “ Fortune shall determine it ; ” answered Guberi ; “ Let us throw three different sized stones into this pitcher of muddy water,—shake it well,—and he who draws out the smallest shall be the unfortunate person.—No brother, interrupted Selico, fortune has already determined. It is me who am the unfortunate person ;—you have forgot then that I have lost Berissa, and that you alone hindered me from dying, by telling me I should be useful to my mother : now is the time, perform your promise, and sell me. Guberi and Teloné endeavoured, but in vain, to oppose the generous offer of their brother : Selico was deaf to their prayers, refused to draw lots, and threatened to go alone to the factory, if they obstinately persisted in refusing to accompany him. The two eldest at last consen-

ted, and it was agreed on that Guberi should remain with his mother, and that Teloné should accompany Selico to the Dutch factory, where he should receive the price of his brother's liberty, and should then return with the provisions, &c. of which they were in want.

During this agreement Selico was the only one who did not weep; but what difficulty and distress did he suffer to hide his tears when he was to leave his mother, and bid her an eternal adieu! to embrace her for the last time! and to deceive her in swearing that he would soon return with Teloné! that they were only going to revisit their former habitation, and find if they could not again take possession of it! The good old woman believed them, but she could scarcely tear herself out of the arms of her sons; she trembled for the dangers they were about to run; and by an involuntary foresight she ran after Selico, when he had disappeared from her presence. The two young brothers, of whom it was difficult to say which was the most to be pitied, arrived in a few days at the city of Sabi. The murders had ceased; Peace began to raise her head; and the king of the Dahomais, quiet possessor of the states of Juida, wished to encourage an intercourse with Europeans, and had given them an establishment within his walls. Many English and French merchants were admitted to his court, to whom he sold his numerous prisoners, and he divided among his soldiers the lands of the conquered. Teloné soon found a merchant who offered him an hundred crowns for his brother. Whilst he was hesitating and trembling at this horrible bargain, a trumpet sounds in the square, and a public crier proclaims with a loud voice, that the king of Dahomai would give four hundred ounces of gold to whoever would deliver alive a negro, as yet unknown, who had dared to profane, the preceding night, the seraglio of the monarch, and had escaped at day-break, amidst the arms of his guards. Selico, on hear-

ing this proclamation, made a sign to Teloné not to conclude the bargain with the merchant; and taking his brother aside, spoke thus to him in a firm and determined voice: "thou must sell me, and I am resolved on it, in order to preserve my mother; but the moderate price this white offers thee, will not make her comfortable. Four hundred ounces of gold will be a large fortune for her and you both. You must not let this opportunity slip; no, brother, you must bind me directly, and conduct me to the king as the criminal he is in search of. Don't be frightened, I know as well as you what punishment awaits me; I have calculated its duration, and it cannot last longer than an hour; and when my mother brought me into the world, she suffered much longer." Teloné trembled so much he could not answer. Full of alarm and tenderness, he fell at the feet of Selico, embraced his knees, and, pressing them, besought him by the name of their mother, by that of Berisfa, by every thing he held dear and sacred on this earth, to give up so terrible a resolution. "Of whom dost thou speak?" replied Selico with a smile of anguish, "I have lost Berisfa; I am anxious to meet her again;—I preserve my mother by my death, and render my brothers richer than ever they could have expected, and I save myself a slavery that may have lasted forty years. My determination is fixed; do not argue longer, or I will go and deliver myself to the king; thou wilt lose the benefit of my death, and be the means of destroying her to whom we are indebted for our existence."

Intimidated by the tone and manner with which Selico pronounced these last words, Teloné dared not to make any reply; he obeyed his brother, and went for cords to bind him. He tied his two arms behind his back, as he bathed it with his tears; and, driving him before him, went to the palace of the king.

To be concluded in our next.

FARTHER INTELLIGENCE FROM NEW SOUTH WALES.

*Continued from vol. ix. p. 80.**Sydney, New South Wales, Oct. 29. 1791.*

THE governor continues to direct his views chiefly to Norfolk island, and the settlement at Rosehill, (now called Parramatta from the native name.) The town there continues to enlarge, according to the first plan, and 200 additional acres of land are cleared of the timber. But the intense drought which has prevailed for upwards of twelve months past, has almost deprived us of water to drink, and marred our hopes of reaping any considerable increase from the harvest.

Indian corn is likely to be the most profitable grain that can be raised in this country; and our views are chiefly directed to the cultivation of that article; but how we can succeed in raising a sufficient quantity, I know not, without a more speedy method of preparing the ground is hit upon, than that by the spade and hoe.

To labour with a plough is impracticable, as the stumps of the trees and their roots still remain in the ground, and cannot now be removed without an immensity of labour. Such of the convicts whose times are out, and choose to become settlers, have small grants of land given to them, and men to cut down the trees, with eighteen months provisions from the public store. But the clearing and cultivation of the land depends wholly upon themselves. The governor has endeavoured to place them as contiguous to fresh water as possible; but that article is so scarce that there is a danger of their being without it, even with the best management. They are allowed grain also to sow their first crop, and a good many lately have made trial of the business; but some of them are already repenting of their bargains, and it is highly probable they will have greater cause ere long.

A reform of government, (if this country is continued,) is much wanted; but nothing can be so truly acceptable as freedom and a trial by jury, in all cases.

Our journies to the northward or southward, along the coast, have not as yet extended farther than Broken Bay and Botany Bay. But the country backwards has been penetrated and pretty accurately examined for upwards of thirty miles; but, as I have formerly said, it has not been commended, some few tracts excepted, that have presented a better appearance.

Norfolk island, I am informed, from the benignity of its soil, bids fair to support five or six hundred colonists very well. But a greater number it is thought would prove a burden, as a sufficient quantity of timber must be left to stand for firewood; and the whole island does not exceed 11,000 acres.

At this place, and Parramatta, bricks and tiles are made in numbers, and with ease; so that more permanent buildings than our original habitations were, are erecting as fast as possible. I wish we could fill our granaries as readily as we can build houses.

The *Mary Ann* arrived here on the 9th of July last, with 141 female convicts, after a passage of four months and twelve days from Gravesend. Since which the *Gor-gon*, and six of the transports bound to this part of the world, have come in all safety; the other four were left at the cape.

They have been very healthy throughout the voyage, and few of them have greatly exceeded five months on their passage.

These ten sail of transports will nearly land us 2000 convicts; without bringing more than a proportion of six months provisions for their subsistence; so that store ships will need to arrive shortly, or else we shall soon be sorely pinched.

The governor is authorised, by this conveyance, to inform such of the convicts as have served their terms of transportation, that they are at liberty to go where they think proper; had this been made known before, it would have prevented much murmuring and discontent among them. They all despaired of ever being able to leave this country, which operated so powerfully on their minds that labour became painful, and any chance of escaping, however dangerous, appeared to them preferable to that of remaining in perpetual slavery. Fifteen of them set out at different times in two open boats belonging to the settlement. How they will succeed I cannot devise, but the chance is certainly much against them.

The marines who have justly felt much indignation, at the treatment they have met with here, are, to their great joy, to return home immediately in the Gorgon. On their arrival, as well as captain Hunter, matters must be brought to light, and I have no doubt but the injured will obtain ample justice.

The discontent and murmuring that has already arisen in the New South Wales corps, prognosticates very little harmony in that quarter, and I believe the chiefs in politics here are heartily sorry for the exchange, but as themselves are to blame for it, they do not deserve pity.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE very elaborate and interesting essay by *John Burns* is thankfully received, and shall be inserted as soon as possible.

The critique by *A. M. M.* came safe to hand. The poem to which it refers is perhaps one of the most unequal in the English language; he might have picked out many such faulty passages. The remark seems very just.

J. M. seems to be more afraid than the subject requires, and more zealous than is necessary: "persecute us, and we will thrive," is an old remark. If the doctrines he reprehends be really pernicious, then the true way to prevent them from doing hurt is to let them fall to the ground without farther notice. The Editor of the *Bee* is no friend to persecution in any form.

Many acknowledgements still deferred for want of room.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 15. 1792.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE SOCIETY OF ARCADIA AT ROME BY
 ABBE TOURNER, TEACHER OF LANGUAGES, EDINBURGH, AUTHOR
 OF THE ANECDOTES OF POPE GANGANELLI, &c.

Continued from vol. ix. p. 281.

As I promised you in my last, I proceed in the narrative of the establishment of our Roman Arcadia.

The new Arcadians continued for some time in their literary exercises, much to their own improvement, as well as that of those who frequented their assemblies and public rehearsals, which always afforded great satisfaction to the audience. But as they had it in view, from the beginning, to institute a pure and simple form of government, congenial to a pastoral nation, they went on for the space of six years, (or of an olympiad, and two years, to speak in the stile of Arcadia,) from time to time enacting such institutions as, by their conformity with the rights of nature, promised to be firm and permanent, and

were generally approved and accepted by all the members; ordering certain customs also to be introduced according as circumstances seemed to require. These regulations were several times enlarged, varied, and rejected, until, by the universal consent and obedience, it was decided which of them were to be selected for the permanent regulation of this literary republic. But as the members of Arcadia had by this time increased to an extraordinary number, it would have been difficult to make the established rules and orders be observed, unless they were collected under certain heads, which were known to every person; it was resolved to reduce them in the form of laws, and *Alfesibeo Cario*, at that time *custode*, or guardian of Arcadia, was ordered to attend seriously to this important business.

In consequence of this resolution, the *custode* collected these rules and orders, compressed them into ten tables or laws, and two *sanctions*, which, that they might claim more veneration, he caused to be written by *Opico Erimantèo* (the celebrated jurisconsult, *Gian Vincenzo Gravina*,) after the manner of the ten tables of the old Roman laws.

The Arcadian codex being thus brought to perfection, in order that no person might plead ignorance, a general assembly of the shepherds was called at the *Bosco Parrasio*, (or the Parrhasian grove,) which then existed on mount Palatine, once famous for the Arcadian *Evander* and his mother *Carmenta*, in the *Orti Farnesiani*, and were published to them on the 20th May in the year 1696. The *custode* began the promulgation of the laws, by the solemn formula *Veli-*

tis jubeatis, Arcades, &c. (which you may see at the end of the laws,) then *Palemone Licurio* (*Silvio Stampiglia*) one of the founders, with a clear voice read aloud the laws and the sanction. These had been carved on two large tables of fine marble, at the expence and by the orders of *Carisio Alantino*, (Anthony Farnese duke of Parma) at that time in Rome and an acclamated* shepherd of Arcadia. The marble tables were fixed on the walls of a little amphitheatre, which was purposely made out for the conveniency of the Arcadians, all of which exist at this day, although the Parrhasian grove has been transferred to another place:

After the reading of the laws, the marble tables were uncovered and thus exposed to the public; *Opico*, in an eloquent harangue, which is printed in his works, required the assembly publicly to approve and confirm those laws, if agreeable to their wishes. The tablets being distributed to the shepherds, who, by secret votes or ballot, gave their approbation to the laws and sanction; the *custode Afesibio* repeated the formula *Velitis jubeatis, &c.* The three who had been appointed to examine the votes answered *coetus universus scivit*.

After the publication of the laws, the *custode* read some regulations conducive to the practical observance of them, after which *Euganio Libade*, (*Menzini*), and *Erilo Cleonio*, (*Guidi*), rivalled one another in the rehearsal of two excellent Italian poems,

* I shall have occasion to speak hereafter of the reception in Arcadia by acclamation.

relative to the promulgation of the laws, which was thus concluded.

It would be depriving this narration of one of its most interesting parts, if I should omit to present your readers with the laws of *Arcadia* in their original form. They may serve as a model, on a small scale, of a truly free government. To good sense, time, and observation, unincumbered by metaphysical squabbings, and sophistical arguments, did the founders of the Roman *Arcadia* trust the permanency of their respectable literary republic, guarding by wise laws its constitution, alike against the tumults of democracy, and the overbearing influence of aristocracy. Happy were it for Rome, once the queen of nations, that she might yet emerge from the dark cloud that has covered her since the fall of that empire, which owed its origin to superior energy in a free constitution of government; and as the course of political knowledge even here, as well as in most other parts of Europe, seems to be less obstructed, and the reign of bigotry seems to be near an end, it is probable that it may yet emerge. *Hoc erat in votis, quod Dii faxint.*

As an English translation cannot sufficiently convey the beauties of the manly stile of the original Latin, I presume this will be acceptable to a great part of your readers.

Your readers, who are conversant with the Latin classics, will undoubtedly relish the beauties of the original, for the others I shall endeavour to give them a translation, which, if it does not convey that nervous masculine stile of which the Latin language

is susceptible, it will, however, inform them of the good sense, which is contained in these laws.

LAWS OF THE ARCADIANs.

I. The supreme power shall belong to the community. Every individual shall have a right to resort to the same*.

II. The *custos* for the administration and care of the public affairs, shall be created by the community every olympiad. An unfit one shall be removed †.

III. The *custos* shall have a vicar, and twelve colleagues. Of these the *custos* shall choose every year, in turn, six new ones, with the consent of the general assembly, and shall retain six of the old. He shall choose for himself two assistants. Besides these, there shall not be any other public employments. There shall be no patron ‡.

IV. The votes shall be secret. In creating or removing a *custos* two thirds shall form the majority. In other affairs, any thing more than half shall be the majority; if the votes are equal they must be repeated; after which, if still equal, the affair shall be consigned to chance ||.

LEGES ARCADUM.

* I. Penes commune summa potestas esto. Ad idem cuilibet provocare jus esto.

† II. Custos rebus gerendis, et procurandis singulis olympiadibus a communi creator, minusque idoneus removetur.

‡ III. Custodi vicarius, et collegæ duodecim adsunt. Eorum singulis annis custos consilio universono et a novis sex in orbem eligito, sex veterum retinet. Administri sibi duos adsumit. Præter hæc alia munera publica ne sunt. Patronus nullus esto.

|| IV. Suffragia secreta sunt, eaque in custode creando aut removendo trifariam dividuntur, jussusque numerus duæ partes sunt. Cæteris in

v. Whatever shall be acted or done by the college, in regard to public affairs, the *custos* shall refer it to the community to the purpose of having it established for ever*.

vi. The general assembly shall be called by the *custos*, at least twice in winter, within doors, to the purpose of hearing what there is to be said, and examining what has been done; but for the purpose of rehearsing the poems, or dissertations of the shepherds who are present, six times in the year, once for those of the absent, during the vacancies of spring and summer, in the Parrhasian grove in the open air †.

vii. Evil and satirical verses, obscene, superstitious, and impious writings, shall not be repeated ‡.

viii. In the assembly, and in treating the affairs of Arcadia, the pastoral customs shall be always used; but in the poetical, or in the prose compositions, as far only as the subject will allow it ||.

ix. Nothing shall be printed with the Arcadian name without leave from the public §.

rebus bifariam dispartiantur, quique partem dimidiam exsuperat numerus: justus esto; si paria fuerint iterantur; deinceps res sorti committitur.

* v. Quidquid per collegium de rebus communibus actum gestumve fuit quo perpetuo ratum siet ad commune refertur.

† vi. Coetus universus relationibus audiendis, actisque cognoscendis hyeme saltem bis in ædibus; carminibus autem, aut orationibus pronuntiandis, presentium quidem pastorum per annum sexies, absentium semel, vernis et æstivis feriis in nemus Parrhasium per custodem sub d.º con- vocator.

‡ vii. Mala Carmina, et famosa, obscœna, superstitiosa, impiave scripta ne pronuntiantur.

|| viii. In coetu et rebus Arcadicis pastoritius mos perpetuo, in carminibus autem, et orationibus quantum res fert adhibetur.

§ ix. Arcadico nomine typis injussu publico nequid editor.

x. As many denominations as there are of Arcadian lands, as many shall be the shepherds and the pastoral names: when any is deceased or expelled, another shall take his place*.

SANCTION.

If any person acts, shall, or should act, against these laws, or shall hinder any one from acting according to them, he shall be immediately expelled from Arcadia, and his name shall be erased by the *custode*, in the presence of the colleagues.

If any thing in these laws should be found obscure, or intricate, or not understood, the right of interpreting or supplying shall belong to the community of the Arcadians, after having consulted the most experienced amongst the shepherds according to the custom of our ancestors; and whatever shall be decreed, or judged, shall be carefully preserved by the *custos*; nor shall it be introduced in the tables of the laws. It shall not be permitted to any one to introduce new laws.

Alphesiboeus Caryus, *custos*, thus requested the general assembly: May it be your will and your command, O! Arcadians, that what is comprehended and ordered in these laws, for the government of our community, shall be, by common authority and command, deemed firm and established for ever.

And that the shepherds from hence forth shall be bound by them for ever; so that whoever after

* x. Quot prædiorum Arcadicorum tituli totidem pastores, pastorumque nomina sunt, inque mortui aut expuncti locum alius sufficitur.

this shall be received into Arcadia, shall be obliged, as by oath, to the obedience of these laws *.

The general assembly agreed.

In the third year of the six hundred and eighteenth olympiad; the second year of the second olympiad from the restoration of Arcadia, a joyful day for ever †.

Before the assembly retired they wisely decreed, to dedicate and consecrate their laws to the pope as prince of the country who was then pope Innocent XII.

By decree of the general assembly.

To Innocent XII. most good, and most high pontif, moderator of the world, defender of divine and human rights, Arcadia dedicates and consecrates her laws †.

SANCTIO.

* Siquis adversus h. l. facit, faxit, fecerit; quique facit, faxit, feceritve quo minus quis secundum h. l. faceret, fecissetve, facturusve siet confestim exarcas esto, ejusque nomen coram collegio per custodem inducitor.

Si quid in his legibus obscurum perplexumve siet, sive comprehensum non siet, communi Arcadum, consultis peritioribus inter pastores, moe majorum, interpretandi, supplendique jus esto; quodque decretum judicatumve siet penes custodem adservator; in legem tabulas ne redigitor. Nulli novas leges ferrè fas esto.

Alphesiboeus Caryus custos coetura universum ita rogavit. Velitis jubeatis Arcades ut, quæ in his legibus ad nostri communis regimen comprehensa prescriptaque sunt, autoritate jussuque communi justa rata firma perpetuo sient. Iisdemque pastores pos hac omnes perpetuo teneantur, ut quicumque Arcadicum deinceps nomen adsumserit obstrictus H. L. veluti sacramento siet.

COETUS UNIVERSUS SCIVIT.

† Olympiad. DCXVIII. ann. iiii. ab A. I. olympiad II. ann. ii. die perpetuo laeta.

EX COETUS UNIVERSI CONSULTO.

‡ Innocentio XII. pontifici optimo maximo moderatori orbis terrarum, divini, humanique juris tutelæ suas Arcadia leges dicat consecratque.

 ESSAY ON DELICACY OF SENTIMENT.

For the Bee.

Oh! teach us,—yet unspoil'd by wealth!
 That secret rare, between th' extremes to move,
 Of mad good nature, and of mean self love. POPP.

THE character of delicacy of sentiment, so esteemed at present, seems to have been unknown to the ancients. It is certainly a great refinement on humanity. Refinements are never attended to in the earlier ages, when the occupations of war, and the wants of unimproved life, leave little opportunity, and less inclination, for fanciful enjoyments. Danger and distress require strength of mind, and necessarily exclude an attention to those delicacies, which, while they please, infallibly enervate.

That tenderness which is amiable in a state of perfect civilization, is despised as a weakness among unpolished nations. Shocked at the smallest circumstances which are disagreeable, it cannot support the idea of danger and alarm. So far from exercising the cruelties which are sometimes politically necessary in a rude state, it starts with horror from the sight, and at the description of them. It delights in the calm occupations of rural life, and would gladly resign the spear and the shield for the shepherd's crook and the lover's garland. But in an unformed community, where constant danger requires constant defence, those dispositions which delight in retirement and ease will be treated with general contempt; and no temper of mind which is despised will be long epidemical.

The ancient Greeks and Romans were the most civilized people on the earth. They, however, were unacquainted with that extreme delicacy of sentiment which is become so universally prevalent in modern times. Perhaps some reasonable causes may be assigned. The stoic philosophy endeavoured to introduce a total apathy, and, though it was not embraced, in all its rigidity, by the vulgar, yet it had a sufficient number of votaries to diffuse a general taste for an insensibility of temper. It perhaps originally meant no more than to teach men to govern their affections by the dictates of reason; but as a natural want of feeling produced the same effects as a rational regulation of the passions, it soon passed among the vulgar for what it could lay no claim to, a philosophical indifference.

That respectful attention to women, which in modern times is called *gallantry*, was not to be found among the ancients. Women were looked upon as inferior beings, whose only duty was to contribute to pleasure, and superintend domestic economy. It was not till the days of chivalry that men showed that desire of pleasing the softer sex, which seems to allow them a superiority. This deference to women refines the manners and softens the temper; and it is no wonder that the ancients, who admitted no women to their social conversations, should acquire a roughness of manners incompatible with *delicacy of sentiment*.

Men who acted, thought, and spoke, like the ancients, were unquestionably furnished, by nature, with every feeling in great perfection. But their mode of education

contributed rather to harden, than to mollify their hearts. Politics and war were the sole general objects. Ambition, it is well known, renders all other passions subservient to itself; and the youth who had been accustomed to military discipline, and had endured the hardships of a campaign, though he might yield to the allurements of pleasure, would not have time to attend to the refinements of delicacy. But the modern soldier, in the present mode of conducting war, is not compelled to undergo many personal hardships, either in the preparation for his profession, or in the exercise of it. Commerce, but little known to many ancient nations, gives the moderns an opportunity of acquiring opulence without much difficulty or danger; and the infinite numbers who inherit this opulence, in order to pass away life with ease, have recourse to the various arts of exciting pleasure. The professions of divinity and law, leave sufficient time, opportunity, and inclination to most of their professors, to pursue every amusement and gratification. The general plan of modern education, which, among the liberal, consists of the study of the poets and sentimental writers, contributes, perhaps more than all other causes, to humanise the heart and refine the sentiments: for, at the period when education is commenced, the heart is most susceptible of impression.

Whatever disposition tends to soften, without weakening the mind, must be cherished; and it must be allowed that delicacy of sentiment, on this side the extreme, adds greatly to the happiness of mankind, by diffusing an universal benevolence. It

teaches men to feel for others as for themselves; it disposes us to rejoice with the happy, and, by partaking, to increase their pleasure. It frequently excludes the malignant passions, which are the sources of the greatest misery in life. It excites a pleasing sensation in our own breast, which, if its duration be considered, may be placed among the highest gratifications of sense. The only ill consequence that can be apprehended from it is, an effeminacy of mind, which may disqualify us for vigorous pursuits and manly exertions.

In the most successful course of life, obstacles will impede, and disagreeable circumstances disgust. To bear these, without feeling them, is sometimes necessary in the right conduct of life: but he who is tremblingly alive all over, and whose sensibility approaches to soreness, avoids the contest in which he knows he must be hurt. He feels injuries never committed; and resents affronts never intended. Disgusted with men and manners, he either seeks retirement, to indulge his melancholy, or, weakened by continual chagrin, he conducts himself with folly and imprudence.

How then shall we avoid the extreme of a disposition, which, in the due medium, is productive of the most salutary consequences? In this excess, as well as all others, reason must be called in to moderate. Sensibility must not be permitted to sink us into that state of indolence, which effectually represses those manly sentiments that may very well consist with the most delicate. The greatest mildness is commonly united with the greatest fortitude in the

true hero. Tendernefs, joined with resolution, form, indeed, a finished character.

The affectation of great sensibility is extremely common. It is, however, as odious as the reality is amiable. It renders a man contemptible, and a woman ridiculous. Instead of relieving the afflicted, which is the necessary effect of genuine sympathy, a character of this sort flies from misery, to shew that it is too delicate to support the sight of distress. The appearance of a toad, or the jolting of a carriage, will cause a paroxysm of fear. But it is remarkable that this delicacy and tendernefs often disappear in solitude, and the pretender to uncommon sensibility is frequently found, in the absence of witnesses, to be uncommonly unfeeling.

To have received a tender heart from the hand of nature, is to have received the means of the greatest blessings. To have guided it by the dictates of reason, is to have acted up to the dignity of human nature, and to have obtained that happiness of which the heart was constituted susceptible.

May a temper, thus laudable in itself, never be rendered contemptible by affectation, or useless by neglect!

Edinburgh, }
Jan. 26. 1792. }

MESCHEZABEEL.

ON VITRIFIED FORTIFICATIONS

IN SCOTLAND.

Continued from vol. ix. p. 216.

SINCE the foregoing account of vitrified fortifications in Scotland was written, I have examined se-

veral other hills, fortified after the same manner as that of Knockferrel, but I find they differ from each other in some particulars. At Knockferrel the vitrified crust surrounded the wall only on the outside, whereas at Tapo-noath in Aberdeenshire, where a large fortification of this kind has been, the vitrified crust is only discoverable on the inner side of the wall, without any marks of vitrification on the outside, except at one place, where the whole of the conical wall is incrustated on both sides. I apprehend, indeed, that the whole of the wall on this hill has been originally incrustated on both sides, but as the hill is very steep, and the wall has probably been built very near the edge of the precipice, the foundation has gradually given way, so as to allow the vitrified crust on the outside, to slip down the hill, at the foot of which large masses of it are still to be found in abundance; and, being thus demolished, nothing now remains on that part of the wall but the loose stones, that formed originally the heart of the wall, tumbled, in part, down the hill; whereas the vestiges of the inner crust, whose foundations remain firm, are still distinctly perceptible. The hill, on that part where the wall remains entire, is less steep than the other part of it; the green sod remaining entire to the very foot of the wall, which seems to confirm this conjecture.

On the top of the hill called Dun-o-deer in Aberdeenshire, there are also vestiges of a fortification of the same kind; but as I have observed some particulars that I did not discover in any of the other

hills of the same class that I examined, I shall describe them with some degree of accuracy.

This is a beautiful green hill, situated in the middle of the extensive vale, called the Gar o'h. This hill was celebrated by Boethius, as containing inexhaustible mines of gold in its bowels, from which there issued such a subtile effluvium, or exudation, or what you please to call it, as tinged the teeth of the sheep which pastured upon it, in his days, with a beautiful golden hue. But he lived in that age when alchemy flourished, so that it was no difficult matter for them to convert iron into gold.

On the top of this hill, besides the vitrified wall already alluded to, there are also the remains of another ancient structure of stone and lime, which is by the vulgar supposed to have been the palace of one of the kings of Scotland. It discovers no remains of princely magnificence, and has been evidently a strong hold, erected at that period when every princely baron was obliged to have such habitations, for securing himself and his vassals from the sudden attacks of his barbarous neighbour.

This castle has been originally a square, sixty feet on each side, the walls about twelve feet in thickness, with small windows, in the common stile of building in those days. It is now in rubbish, except a small part of the west wall, which was lately repaired, so as to keep it from falling, at the expence of the neighbouring gentlemen, who wished to preserve it on account of its picturesque appearance, which is seen from afar. The site of this building is marked on the plan at *H*; the part that is standing is shaded

black. There is no tradition of the time when either this structure, or the vitrified walls, were erected; but it is sufficiently apparent that the latter must have been of a date much prior to the former, and built by a nation in a very different state of civil polity; for, at the latter period, the lord of the domain having found, we may suppose, the old vitrified fortification inadequate to the purpose of defence, or inapplicable to the state of his private affairs, has purposely demolished them, and, with their ruins, erected his own habitation. This is evident from the fragments of the vitrified walls and scorched stones, which are every where discoverable in the ruins of the stone and lime building.

This circumstance, in my opinion, deserves to be particularly attended to, as it serves to throw some light upon the ancient state of our civil polity, and its revolutions, where more distinct records are wanting. In the infancy of society, perhaps in all nations, no man assumed any other authority over others than what was voluntarily yielded on account of his age, experience, or superior abilities, whether mental or corporal. But man could hardly be placed in society before he would discover that, without the assistance of his fellows, he was a weak defenceless animal; so that, although each might live independent of another while at peace, when any danger threatened they would find the necessity of uniting together for mutual defence, and of submitting, for the time, to be directed by the wisdom of some man in whom they in general placed confidence. In this state of society it would exceed the

power of any individual to render his own place of residence sufficiently strong to resist the attacks of any invading power; and, therefore, it would become the interest of the whole community to fortify, in the best fashion they could, some places of strength to which the whole community could retire for safety, in times of danger. So long as they continued to migrate from one region to another, in *bordes*, this place of strength would be only a temporary fortification, of the nature of a camp; and this seems to have been the stage to which the Germans had arrived in the time of Tacitus. But in a more barren country, where grain could only be raised with ease on those spots which had been already cultivated, and in a state of society somewhat more advanced in civilization, when some idea of private property began to take place, the man who, at a great deal of trouble, had cleared a small spot for himself, and erected an habitation that could stand for more than one season, would look out for a place of strength not far from himself, to which he could retire occasionally in cases of danger, which he would fortify in a durable and substantial manner. In this stage of society, have, in all probability, these vitrified fortifications been reared, which served, not as a place of continued residence to any one, but merely as a place of temporary retreat, when any national danger threatened which individuals were not able to repel...

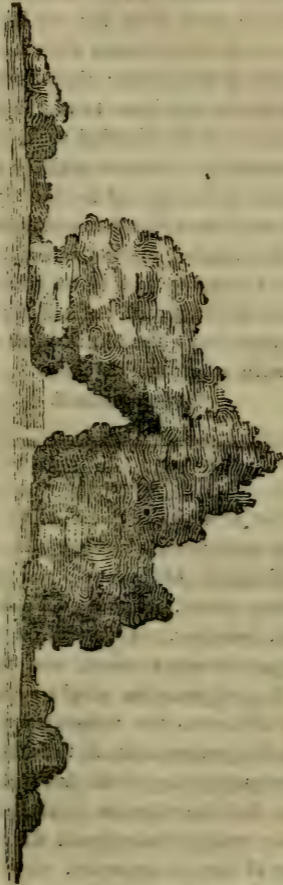
But when, at an after period, honours and fiefs became hereditary, when particular families waxed great in power, and each chieftan, at the head of his clan, became a sort of petty sovereign in his own dis-

strict, and assumed to himself the charge of protecting his vassals, and avenging their quarrels, he found it necessary to have a fixed habitation, proportioned to his own dignity, in which he could reside at all times himself in safety, and to which some of his vassals might occasionally repair for shelter. The open fortifications, which could only be defended by a great number of men perpetually upon their guard, were, in that state of perpetual alarm, by no means adapted to his wants, and therefore he had recourse to smaller fortifications of another kind, which, by the strength of their walls and gates, were not liable to be suddenly surprised, even when defended by a few only. This gave rise to those numerous strong holds, of the nature of the stone and lime tower now in question, which superseded the use of the old vitrified open forts, which were then either neglected, and suffered to fall to ruin of themselves, or were pulled to pieces, like that of Dun-o-deer, to afford materials for a dwelling better suited to the wants of the owner.

From this cause the ruins of the vitrified walls on the top of this hill, assume a very different appearance from the others already mentioned. Where the vitrified matter has been so ill compacted, as to admit of being broken into small pieces, they have been carried away, and the walls razed to the very foundation; but where these vitrified masses were too firmly united to admit of being easily broken into small pieces, they have been suffered to remain in their place, where they still exhibit to the eye of the curious traveller, venerable remains of ancient art, now mistaken by the careless for the operations

of nature, some of which assume a beautiful and picturesque appearance, as may be perceived by the faint

RUINS OF VITRIFIED WALLS AT DUN-O-DEER, IN ABERDEENSHIRE.



representation annexed, which has been perforated by a hole like a natural rock.

These ruins are indeed the firmest masses of the kind I have met with. Here, however, as was to be expected, we in vain look for the large backing of loose stones, to be found in all the other buildings of this kind that I have seen: they have been carried away to the stone and lime tower, and nothing remains but pieces of the vitrified rock, if I may venture that expression, stripped entirely naked, rising up in irregular masses round the hill: yet even here some stones are found with one end firmly immersed in the vitrified matter, while the other end projects considerably beyond it, and is only browned by the heat. This circumstance sufficiently marks that these walls must have been built after the same general plan with others of this class.

To be continued.

ON VOLTAIRE.

THEY say that if Voltaire were alive he would be of the aristocratic party, because that he loved to sign himself count of Ferney; and though incessantly reviling courts, he was still a courtier. His writings are, however, an appeal to the revolution which has been brought about, and which he had foretold. A good pamphlet might be made of all his queries and advices on the reformation of abuses in the laws, in the government, in the administration of justice, in the magistracy, in the finance, in the clergy and church. It is he who has exalted the nobleness of agriculture, and of consequence debased the truly low nobility of knight-errantry, since it was sloth crushed it from the height of its ruined towers.

There is a small pamphlet extracted from his works, which bears a great resemblance to the pamphlets of the late Jursetal. The title of this pamphlet is, 'Laws, civil and ecclesiastical.'

"In the papers of a certain lawyer are found these notes, which, perhaps, merit some examination, That no ecclesiastical law shall ever have effect, except it shall have received an express sanction from government. It was by adhering to these principles that Athens and Rome avoided all religious disputes.

"These disputes belong to nations uncivilized, or become so.

"That the magistracy alone should have it in their hands to permit, or prohibit labour, during holidays, because it belongs not to a priest to prohibit a man from cultivating the fields.

"That every thing respecting marriage should depend solely on the magistracy, and that the priests should confine themselves to the solemn function of benediction.

"That money given out at interest should be purely the object of the civil law, because that it alone presides over commerce.

"That ecclesiastics should in every case be subjected to government, because they are subjects of the state. He would have said at present, because they are subject to the law.

"That they never should have the disgraceful impertinence of paying to a foreign priest, the first revenues of those lands which have been consigned by citizens to a priest, a fellow citizen.

“ That no priest should ever have it in his power to deprive a citizen of the least prerogative, under pretext that this citizen is a sinner, because that the priest, a sinner himself, ought to pray for sinners, not judge them.

“ That the magistrates, the labourers, and the priests, should pay an equal share of the burdens of the state, because that they all belong equally to the state.

“ That there should be every where the same weight, measure, and custom.

“ That the punishment of criminals should be serviceable. A man hanged is good for nothing, while a man that is condemned to the public works, still serves his country, and is a living lesson.

“ That every law should be clear, uniform, and precise. To interpret it is generally to corrupt it.

“ That nothing should be infamous but vice.

“ That the imposts should always be proportionally.

“ That the law should never be in opposition to custom, because if the customs are good, the law signifies nothing.”

This small pamphlet presents us with a great number of reformations besides ; and which properly are so. One or two sittings of the national assembly would suffice to ratify them. It is a good thing that the sittings, in an instant, transform into laws, those eternal truths which our fathers had lost, and their sons have restored. We have opened their eyes. People there are who wish to deprive us of them, but to this we never will agree.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

THE nine books of poetical epistles which Ovid composed during the seven first years of his melancholy exile, are well observed by Mr Gibbon to possess, besides the merit of elegance, a double value.

“ They exhibit a picture of the human mind (writes he,) under very singular circumstances, and they contain many curious observations which no Roman except Ovid could have an opportunity of making*.”

I have frequently regretted, that no gentleman who united the poet and the scholar in one character, has appeared to give us at once (in English verse,) the softness and elegance of the original, and to elucidate the text with topographical and moral remarks.

With respect to the poetical part of such an undertaking, I am persuaded that no one individual should ever think of compassing above a few of those epistles, such as have often attracted his attention and engaged his poetical fancy ; and that, after a select number were written in this manner, by various hands, and *con amore*, that the book should be published with its subsidiary elucidations, that these isolated epistles should make their first appearance in literary miscellanies, and thus be subjected to the criticism and correction of the public.

I beg leave to offer you a hazardous attempt of mine to promote such a plan by a free translation of that beautiful epistle in the first book of his Pontics, which is addressed to his wife. I will not disgrace myself by decrying the merit of what I offer to the public, but content myself with saying that I hope it will at least be more acceptable to the lovers of poetry than such sing song originals, as are ungilded by the bright rays of a genuine Apollo, or unfringed with a strong ardent spirit of invention.

I am, Sir, your constant reader, PHILOTESIS.

* Gibbon, vol. iii. p. 121. note.

POETRY.

OVID'S EPISTLE TO HIS WIFE FROM PONTUS,

BOOK I. EPISTLE IV.

TIME's iron hand ploughs furrows down my face,
The frost of age hath silver'd o'er my brow;
Sorrow hath robb'd me of each manly grace,
And sports which lately pleas'd me, please not now.

Did you but see me thus to care consign'd,
Did you but mark each ruinous decay,
Your Ovid scarcely could you call to mind,
His well known form no semblance would betray.

Time, it is true, the brightest blossom sears,
But toil and grief have turn'd these temples hoar;
For by my troubles did you count my years,
Not Pylian Nestor could have number'd more.

Yon ox,—though late the sturdiest of his breed,
The constant labour of the field impairs;
And where successive harvests quick succeed,
E'en earth grows weak beneath the load she bears.

The fleetest steed that e'er the stadium cross'd,
Must falter, if to ev'ry contest driv'n;
The bulkiest vessel ocean ever tost,
Not ay can bear the storms of angry heav'n.

Thus lengthen'd woes, in sad succession join'd,
Long, ere his date, have turn'd your lover gray;
Rest cheers the body, solaces the mind,
But toil unceasing wears them both away.

See how the son of Æson's growing fame,
To distant ages brighter seems to shine;
But far inferior was his plausible claim,
His boasted toils far less severe than mine.

Pelias indeed to Pontus made him flee,
Hoping himself to wear Thesalia's crown*;
But Cæsar's mightier anger exiles me,
Cæsar, before whose nod a world bows down!

Long was my voyage, distant was my port,
A swifter passage youthful glory sped;
The chiefs of Greece to Æson's heir resort,
While all my friends in base desertion fled.

[* A liberty is here taken with the text, but not with the story!

A statelier ship than his its course ne'er run,
 In a frail bark I brav'd the tofing tide;
 No pilot Typhis,—no Agenor's son,
 To teach me where to steer, or what avoid.

Juno and Pallas made his freight their care,
 No tutelary pow'rs my track pursue;
 By love's sly arts he foil'd each deadly snare,
 Would that in these I had not aided too!

Safe he return'd;—more hard, dear wife! my fate;
 Condemn'd to perish on a foreign shore;
 To bear great Cæsar's unrelenting hate,
 And such fierce wrath as Jason ill had bore.

I left thee young,—but fancy, long since, drew
 Thy face, by my misfortunes, cloth'd in years;
 O! would to heav'n that I this change could view,
 Kifs thy pale cheek, and mingle tears with tears.

That these fond arms thy slender form could press,
 (Now grown more slender with its griefs for me)
 While all my soul pour'd forth its past distress,
 And drank the kindred tale of woe from thee!

Then would we offer at each grateful dawn,
 An incense worthy of our royal sire!
 O bright Aurora! speed that happy morn,
 And calm stern Cæsar's too insatiate ire.

T. P.

TO HOPE.

For the Bee.

SPARK of th' etherial fire, enchanting maid,
 Without thee none but conscience inly torn;
 Still let thy pow'r be felt, and still display'd,
 Where the dark vapour feels the flow'r of morn.

Friend of the friendless, comforter in woe,
 Guide of the wand'rer, and the captive's life;
 Where slav'ry decks with care the loaden'd brow,
 And tyrants spurn when suppliants ask relief.

Point to the track from which so late I swerv'd,
 Conduct me to the peaceful realms of bliss;
 Teach me to hope for blessings still reserv'd,
 And still to hope for life and happiness.

Thy sacred beam enlivens infant-faith;
 Friend of the gasping wretch, be mine till death. Q. D. C.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

If the following song tend not to depreciate the dignity of your Miscellany, by inserting it you would much oblige
 VIR.

THE LASS OF MARTINDALE.

AT Martindale, a village gay,
 A damsel deigns to dwell;
 Her looks are like a summer's day,
 Her charms no tongue can tell:
 Whene'er I meet her on my way,
 I tell my am'rous tale;
 Then heave a sigh, or softly say
 Sweet maid of Martindale!
 Sweet maid of Martindale!
 Sweet maid of Martindale!
 Then heave a sigh, or softly say
 Sweet maid of Martindale!

This nymph hath numbers in her train,
 From Hodge up to the 'squire;
 A conquest makes of ev'ry swain,
 All gaze and all admire:
 Then where's the hope, alas! for me,
 That I should e'er prevail;
 Yet while I breathe I'll think of thee,
 Sweet maid of Martindale!
 Sweet maid of Martindale, &c.

Should fate propitious be my lot,
 To call this charmer mine,
 I'd dwell content in lowly cot,
 And pompous thoughts resign;
 But if she scorns each heart-felt sigh,
 And leaves me to bewail;
 For thee, my Fair! for thee I'll die,
 Sweet maid of Martindale!
 Sweet maid of Martindale,
 Sweet maid of Martindale!
 For thee, my Fair, for thee I'll die,
 Sweet maid of Martindale!

AN EPIGRAM.

For the Bee

BEING ask'd why in Scotland they've paper for gold,
 A satirical jade who let nothing escape her,
 Made an answer at once both convincing and bold,
 Where there's plenty of rags, there is always much paper.

SELICO, A TALE.

Continued from p. 189 and concluded.

STOPPED by the first guards, he demanded to be conducted to the king;—his name and purpose is announced, and he is presented to the monarch. The king of Dahomai, covered with gold and precious stones, is half reclined upon a sofa of scarlet and gold, his head leaning on the breast of one of his favourites, clothed with petticoats of brocade, and naked from the waist upwards. The ministers, nobles, and officers, very richly dressed, were prostrated at twenty steps from him; the bravest were distinguished by a collar of human teeth, each of which was a mark of a victory. Many women, with firelocks on their shoulders, guarded the doors of the apartment: large vases of gold containing palm wine, brandy, and strong liquors, were placed indiscriminately, at a little distance from the king, and the floor was paved with the skulls of his enemies.

“Sovereign of the world! said Teloné, bowing his forehead to the ground, I come, according to thy sacred orders, to deliver into thy hands.”——He could say no more, his voice faltered, the king questioned him, but he could not answer. Selico then spoke: ‘king of Dahomai, you see before you the criminal who, instigated by a fatal passion, penetrated last night into your seraglio. He who holds me bound, was so long my confidential friend; that I intrusted him with my secret; zealous to serve thee, he has betrayed his friend. He surprised me when sleeping, bound me, and brings me here to demand thy promised recompence, give it him, for the wretch has well earned it.’ The king, without deigning to answer him, makes a sign.

to one of his ministers, who siezes the culprit, delivers him to the armed women ; and counts out to Teloné the four hundred ounces of gold. He, loaded with this gold, whose touch is dreadful to him, hastens to buy provisions, and then rushes out of the city in a hurry to carry them to his mother.

Already, by orders from the monarch, they had begun the preparations for the terrible execution, with which adultery with the king's wives was punished in Juida. Two wide ditches are dug at a short distance from each other. In that destined for the guilty wife the criminal is fastened to a stake, and all the ladies of the seraglio, dressed in their best apparel, carrying large vases of boiling water, march to the sound of drums and flutes, and pour this water upon her head until she expires. In the other ditch there is a pile of wood, above which is an iron bar supported by two stakes, to this bar the other criminal is tied, and when the pile is lighted, the extremity of the flames do but touch him, and he perishes by length of torture. The square was full of spectators. The whole army under arms formed a square battalion of firelocks and darts. The priests, in their dresses of ceremony, were waiting to lay their hands on the victims and devote them to death. The prisoners came from opposite quarters guarded by women. Selico, calm and resigned, marched with an erect countenance and firm step. Having come to the fatal spot, an involuntary movement made him turn his eyes to view his companion in misery ;—what is his surprise ? what is his grief, to see Berisfa !! He screams out and attempts to fly to her, but his executioners prevent him. Indignation directly takes possession of him ;—“wretch ! says he to himself, during the time when I was bewailing her loss, and seeking death in order to follow her, she was one of those vile mistresses that dispute the heart of a tyrant ! Not content with having betrayed her love, she

was faithless to her master ! she deserved the name of adulteress, and the chastisement with which they are punished. O my dearest mother ! it is for you alone I die ! it is you alone that I wish to think of !” At the same instant the unfortunate Berifsa had discerned Selico, she cries out, and calls the priests to her, and declares that the young man at the stake is not the person who broke into the seraglio,—she confirms this by all the most redoubted oaths. The priests are alarmed,—stop the execution,—run to inform the king what had happened, who comes in person to the great square. Anger and indignation are strongly painted on the face of the monarch, as he approaches Berifsa. “Slave !” says he with a tremendous voice, “thou who disdained the love of thy master, thou whom I wished to raise to the dignity of my first wife, and whom I suffered to live in spite of your refusals, what is thy object in denying the crime of thy accomplice ? Dost thou wish to save him ? If he is not thy lover, name him then guilty girl,—point him out to my justice, and I will immediately deliver the innocent.”

‘ King of Dahomai,’ replied Berifsa. ‘ who was then tied to the stake, I could not accept of thy heart ; mine was no longer in my possession, and I was not afraid to tell thee so. Dost thou imagine that her who would not tell a falsehood to share a throne, could be capable of it at the moment she is going to expire ? No ; I have owned every thing, I will repeat all I know. A man penetrated last night into my apartment ; he only quitted me at day break, but that prisoner is not the man. Thou asketh me to name him ;—neither my duty nor my will can consent to do so. I know nothing can save me, and I only wish to prolong these terrible moments to hinder you from committing a crime. I swear again, king of Dahomai, that the blood of this innocent man will fall on thine own head. Let him be released, and let me suffer,

that is all I request." The king was struck with the tone and manner with which Berifsa had pronounced these last words;—he remained musing, holding down his head; and was astonished himself at his own secret repugnance, for once, to shed blood. But recollecting that this negro had accused himself as being guilty, and fancying that Berifsa's eagerness to save him, was from her love to him, all his rage returned; he makes a sign to the executioner, who immediately sets fire to the pile; the women begin their procession with their vases of boiling water, when an old man, quite out of breath, and covered with blood and wounds, pushes through the crowd, and throws himself at the king's feet. "Stop!" cried he, "stop! it is I who am the guilty person,—it was I who scaled the walls of thy seraglio to carry off my daughter. I was formerly the priest of the deity who was worshipped on this spot;—my daughter was torn from my arms, and dragged to thy palace; ever since I have constantly watched to see her. This last night I got into her chamber,—she in vain attempted to follow me,—thy guards saw her, and I escaped amidst showers of arrows of which you see here the marks. I come to give myself up as a victim to you,—to expire with her for whom alone I wished to live." He had not finished, when the king ordered the two prisoners to be unbound and brought before him. He interrogated Selico,—he was desirous to know what motive could be powerful enough to make him wish for so cruel a punishment. Selico, whose heart beat with joy to find that his Berifsa had not been faithless to him, was not afraid to inform the monarch of every particular. He related his misfortunes, the indigence of his mother, and the resolution he had taken to gain the 400 ounces for her. Berifsa and her father listened in shedding tears of admiration. The chiefs, the soldiers, and the people, were affected; the king felt

tears run down his cheeks for the first time; such is the force of virtue that even barbarians adore it.

The king, after Selico had finished, stretched forth his hand, and raised him up, then turning to the European merchants, whom this sight had brought there, "tell me," says he, "you whom wisdom, and long experience have taught the nicest valuation of a man, how much is Selico worth?" The merchants blushed at this question; but a young Frenchman, bolder than the rest, cried out, ten thousand crowns of gold. Let them be given directly to Berisfa, replied the king, and with this sum we shall not purchase, but marry Selico. After this order, which was immediately executed, the king retired, surprised at feeling a sensation of joy which he had never before experienced. Faculho this same day gave his daughter to Selico. The next day they all three set out with their treasure, for the hut of Darina, who almost expired with joy, as well as his brothers, at the sight of them. This virtuous family were never again separated,—enjoyed their riches,—and in a barbarous country, were, for a long time, the brightest example under heaven, namely, happiness and opulence acquired by virtue.

ANECDOTE.

SOME time since, a young man, with two of his companions, went to Weaver's tavern, in Philadelphia, and ordered a supper to be prepared. He sent his companions about three miles on the other side of the Connestogoe, to bring in a girl who had promised to be ready to marry him that night. The young fellows returned, and informed the groom, that the girl said "she had quite forgot, and that it was then too late." The groom (who in the mean time had obtained the licence) was very much enraged at

the disappointment ; but, upon recollecting that he had another string to his bow, desired the young fellows to wait a little while, and swearing he would not go home without a wife, he rode about six miles and brought in his other sweetheart ; they went to the minister, who, upon reading the licence, told the groom that the name in the licence was not the same as that of the girl, and that there must be some mistake. “ I know that well enough, says the groom ; there is no mistake ; *this is not the same girl neither.*” The parson, upon hearing the story, had the name altered, they were married, returned to the tavern, and eat of the supper that had been prepared for the woman that made default.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE query by a *constant reader*, shall have a place as soon as possible.

The affecting verses by *Elwina* are received, and shall have a place with the first convenience.

The communication by *H. R.* has been accidentally too long overlooked. The verses, considering the situation of the composer, are surprising. The greatest fault is their length ; we will try to find room for them.

Philologus shall have a place in his turn.

The fragment by *D. P. R. S.* is received and shall be admitted.

The Editor is much obliged to *Cosmogony Secundus* ; his communication shall be attended to.

The *Tutor* is received. The attempt is not without merit ; but it bears so near a resemblance to a noted tory, and is so much inferior to that in point of composition, that the parallel, which almost every reader must involuntarily make, would prove disadvantageous to the writer. Perhaps at a future period, with a little more originality, he may succeed better.

The communication by *Phila Moris* is too long, and in other respects not suitable for the Bee. Perhaps time and experience may enable this writer also to do better. But he has many steps to advance before he could, with propriety, appear in public, in good company.

If we thought *the country school-master* would be effectually attended to, his paper should be admitted. But as this is not to be expected, and as it could prove little interesting to most of our readers, we beg leave to decline inserting it.

The remarks on *Young's tour* in France, by an old correspondent, are thankfully received, and shall be duly adverted to. As also the hints by *Biographicus*.

The hints by *Rondo* shall also be attended to ; and if the subject be not soon treated by some correspondent, some remarks upon it shall be offered by the Editor.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 22. 1792.

TIMOLEON'S THIRD LETTER.

To the people of Great Britain.

THOSE who have wished to frustrate the views of "the society of the friends of the people," seem to have rested their hopes of success upon misrepresentation alone. With this intent they have held us up to public view as enemies to all distinctions of rank, and honorary dignities: they have said we wished to abolish all orders of nobility, and have represented us as turning into ridicule the notion of having a set of hereditary legislators. Nothing can be more calumnious than such allegations. We are fully aware of the benefits that a well ordered community may derive from distinctions of rank, and honorary dignities; and it is so far from being in our mind to destroy these, that our best endeavours shall ever be exerted to preserve them. As to hereditary legislators, we are too well read in the constitutional history of Britain, and have too great respect for the fundamental principles of that constitution, not

to venerate that branch of our legislature, as that part of it which approaches the nearest to its original. We cannot forget that when the foundations of this constitution were laid, every free-man in the state, was, by birth, an undoubted legislator for the country. Hereditary legislation is, therefore, so far from being an innovation in our constitution, that it may be considered as the oldest, and the most undoubted fundamental part of it; and that part to which it owes its permanence and stability. When, indeed, a great majority of these hereditary legislators found it convenient, from a change of circumstances, voluntarily to relinquish their privilege of legislating, a new mode of supplying that deficiency, and of guarding against the power of a domineering aristocracy, became necessary to be adopted. It was this arrangement, which went to compel the people of smaller property, much against their wills indeed, still to retain a share in the legislature, that at length produced that mixed form of government we now enjoy, which possesses the advantages of all the forms of government adopted by the ancients, without the inconveniencies to which these were severally subjected. We venerate this system, and we would almost adore the wisdom that formed it, could we flatter ourselves with the idea that chance had not, at the beginning, had a considerable share in the formation of it. Without entering into this discussion, our object is, by a retrospective view, to examine that system, and to correct such abuses, as by imperceptible degrees have begun to prevail, and, acquiring strength by a continuation of habit, threaten at length, if not

adverted to, gradually to overturn that goodly fabric we so much admire. Though it now appeareth to be strong, "and the height thereof reacheth unto heaven, and the sight thereof to the end of all the earth;" yet if its basis be not firm, the foundation begins to give way, and the fabric itself must ultimately fall to the ground, however beautiful the superstructure may appear. Without, therefore, trenching so near as to be in danger of undermining it, or heedlessly pulling out any of those important pegs on which it now materially rests, our aim is, merely to take a narrow and circumspect view of these foundations; to mark those parts that are evidently decayed, and mouldering to dust; and to have these repaired in the best manner that the situation of things will admit of. These are the objects we have in view; and if we shall act up to these principles, who can deny that we shall be well entitled to the name we have assumed to ourselves, that of "the friends of the people!"

We are sufficiently aware of the delicacy of the undertaking in which we are engaged; and therefore we have resolved to proceed with the utmost caution. We know that, to external view, a particular part may appear rotten and decayed, which is still sound and entire within; and that if these parts were hastily removed, the whole might tumble down at once, and crush not only ourselves, but many others in the ruins. We know also, that if we were to attempt to lay open all the sores at once, the sound parts, by being left destitute of support on several sides, at the same time, would be in the most dangerous state. To avoid these

risks, which every sensible person who reflects upon the subject, must dread, it is our intention never to remove the smallest particle of matter that is not evidently rotten and corrupted; and never to attempt to go farther than that corruption has already evidently penetrated. Even in this work, thus cautiously conducted, we intend to proceed only by piece-meal, always repairing one defect before another be opened up. How different is this conduct from that which the enemies of this society have been pleased to represent it! But while these persons profit by the corruptions of which we complain, is it a wonder they should endeavour to prejudice the public against those who aim at removing that rottenness they so carefully endeavour to conceal?

No part of our conduct has called down such pointed animadversion, as that which respects the taking the opinion of the people at large before we proceed. And, indeed, had it been our intention to call together mobs of the lowest classes of the people, and to instigate them to madness, by alarming their fears, and inducing them by tumult and violence, to call out for alterations in government, the nature and consequences of which they are incapable of knowing, we should justly have deserved all that opprobrium they have endeavoured to throw upon us: but these intentions we utterly disclaim. We are aware that certain persons in this country, whose real object we pretend not to judge of, have disseminated writings which may, without much violence of interpretation, be supposed to be intended to operate in this manner; and as the authors of these

writings offer them to the public, under the specious idea of leading to a reform of national governments, our enemies have endeavoured to confound us with them. But as justly might they try to depreciate those who, with a pure heart and sound understanding, venerate the holy religion we profess, because some wild fanatics have perverted that religion to the worst of purposes, as to endeavour by this means to vilify us. We have already publicly declared ourselves inimical to that kind of reform; and nothing but sinister views could induce any one to put us in the same class with these persons. So far are we from wishing to encourage the populace to endeavour to force a reform by violence, that we dare not venture of ourselves, even after mature study on our part, to propose remedies for what appears to be evidently wrong. Before we do this, we wish to have the united judgement of all the *sensible* part of the nation, that we may thus guard against adopting alterations which may ultimately prove hurtful, instead of being beneficial. In the course of our deep investigations on this subject, we have so frequently seen this happen to others, that it would have been inconsistent with our principles not to take the benefit of every assistance in our power before we ventured to adopt any measure definitively. We can indeed of ourselves, easily perceive abuses; but how to correct these abuses effectually, without giving rise to others that may perhaps be worse, requires an attention to so many particulars, at once, that no individual can ever hope to do it perfectly; but which, by many temperate discussions, may be gradually de-

veloped. Can any thing be more absurd than to accuse of precipitancy those who wish to proceed with such cautious circumspection?

We have been represented as wishing to proceed with a reform in the same manner as has happened in France; and as wishing to establish in this country a similar form of government, if government it can be called, as that which there prevails. Had this been our intention, our conduct must have been very different from that which we have adopted:—we should, in that case, have proceeded with all possible precipitancy, that while the furor for innovation, which we know prevailed among the less considerate part of the community, was at its full height, we might have availed ourselves of it. So far, however, was this from being our intention, that we studiously delayed bringing forward any motion till a future day, before which time, we doubt not, such events will have taken place as to moderate the fervour of that patriotic enthusiasm, which hath seized so great a proportion of the generous and well-meaning, though ill-informed parts of the community. It is our decided opinion, that the constitution of our government will acquire much stability from the revolution in France; not by adopting the plans that nation has pursued, but by attending to the consequences of these innovations. Even already, many men who six months ago could see nothing defective in that constitution, begin to think that many things might have been more happily contrived. Those who thought that the mode of electing members of the legislative assembly was perfectly unexception-

able, and calculated to guard against every kind of corruption, begin to perceive that there may be some deficiencies. The difficulty that was found to induce the voters in Paris to come forward, even when it had the allurements of novelty to recommend it, has showed them that there, as well as every where else, "what is every body's business is deemed the business of nobody," which excites a well grounded fear that this mode of election may, in time, degenerate into a mere farce, where the great body of those who have a right to vote will disregard that right; and where of course the elections will come to be carried by a private junte, who will make it their business to avail themselves of the negligence of others. When this evil stares them in the face, and when they try to devise a mode of correcting it, they begin to perceive that it will be even a more difficult task than that of determining a Westminster election *by scrutiny*. Those who thought that a House of Peers was a wen in our constitution, which the French had happily cut off, begin already to suspect that virtue is not exclusively confined to the poorer orders of the community, and that wisdom is not peculiarly appropriated to any one class of people. They begin to advert to what they have often heard before, that a man who has much property to lose, has a stronger inducement to support a government that secures the property of every individual, than one who has little at stake; and that of course a body of wealthy men, may be expected to be at least, more cautious legislators, than men of small fortunes. They now see clearly that the French constitution is super-

lately defective in having devised no check for necessarily retarding the precipitancy of judgement in enacting laws on the moment, without a possibility of having the facts on which they proceeded duly constituted. This, if unaltered, would soon introduce a species of despotism, perhaps more to be dreaded than that of the unlimited power of any individual. They begin, therefore, to see the wisdom of our forefathers, who not only prescribed forms of procedure in parliament, well calculated to prevent a rash judgement from being hastily adopted at any time; but which, by necessarily requiring every law to pass deliberately through two different assemblies, gives time, not only for reflection to the legislators themselves, but for representations from without, that may set them right as to ill understood facts, and lead their minds to form a proper judgement. These particulars, and many more, have already occurred to almost every thinking mind. There are others of equal importance respecting the influence of the doctrine of the rights of man on the subordination of the army; the steady administration of government; and the security of property and personal freedom, which the events that are now daily occurring in that distracted country are powerfully illustrating. To the influence of these illustrations we trust for the correcting of many erroneous doctrines respecting government, that have been disseminated in this country by the admirers of the French revolution. With these ideas strongly impressed on our minds, let me ask, if we had seriously wished to propagate these doctrines ourselves, or to avail our-

selves of the temporary phrenzy of those who do, we would have put off the proposition of our intended reform to a distant day? Those who think thus must suppose us destitute of common sense indeed.

It thus appears that those who, profiting by the abuses of government, and therefore dreading any kind of reform, knowing at the same time the upright principles of "the society of the friends of the people," have found no other mode of defence, so likely to succeed, as that of calumny and misrepresentation. Duplicity is so natural to some people themselves, that they could scarcely oppose even a faulty proposition with a candid openness of conduct; but where they see nothing they can *fairly* lay hold of, in opposing a reasonable demand, there seems to be a sort of excuse for them being driven to the very objectionable mode of defence I now reprobate. This, however, will not induce the respectable body, of which I have the honour to be a member, to adopt a similar conduct. We neither court popularity by giving our support to culpable doctrines, which may be the favourites of the day; nor decline to probe with freedom the defects of a constitution we venerate. Sensible that government is no longer of use than while it tends to preserve public tranquillity, to encourage industry, and to protect the person and property of every individual alike from the power of the king, of an aristocracy, or a mob, we shall as steadily oppose every innovation that does not obviously tend to promote these objects, as we shall zealously promote the reform of every abuse

that has a necessary influence in abating the public prosperity and happiness of the people.

These are, I am satisfied, the sentiments of a great majority of the members of our society; but they are here offered only as the private sentiments of

London, }
July 12. 1792. }

TIMOLEON.

ON TASTE IN ARCHITECTURE.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

IN the prospectus of your valuable miscellany (which may be considered as the *magna charta* of your subscribers,) you have judiciously observed, that “to polish the manners and humanize the heart, are the first steps required in an attempt to inspire a taste for literary excellence, and to excite exertions for attaining the highest perfection in arts;” and as some accomplished gentlemen of France and Italy, who have lately visited Britain, have assured me, that our island has not yet reached the summit of perfection in taste and elegance, I beg leave, with diffidence, to communicate to your readers what I conceive to be the elements of beauty and excellence in architecture; after which I shall proceed, in succeeding numbers of your paper, to apply the same principles to poetry, painting, music, gardening, and all the other subjects of taste.

As I write these lines in a remote retirement from the bustle of the world, unperplexed by books, and undisturbed, as well as unsullied by vulgar society, I confide in the stores of my memory, warmed by

sensibility, and enlightened by the torch of truth, for discovering the grand outlines of an art which grew originally out of the necessities, the superstitions, and the vanities of mankind, under which three heads I shall arrange the subject of my discourse.

§ 1. Concerning the architecture of necessity, I am foolish enough to believe, in the end of the eighteenth century, that man was originally the tenant of a garden, that God was his friend and master, and reason, with dire necessity, his instructors.

The circle is the most capacious of all figures, and an arbour, formed in that figure, the most obvious and commodious of all dwellings; in which form we find the huts of the people whom *we are pleased to call savages*, in all countries; and of such forms are the old Pictish dwellings, the remains of which are yet to be seen in Rosshire, Sutherland, and Caithness in Scotland, and every where on the northern continent of Europe. “*Naturam licet expellas furca tamen usque recurrat.*” A predilection for the circular form, and the dome in the architecture of the most polished nations, still whispers from whence arose the primary idea of beauty and shelter.

The fire, where necessary, was kindled in the center of the area; and, from the top, the fumes of the fuel were emitted, while all the family had an equal share of the light and heat of the chearer of the rigid winter. As life began to be a little more oppressed with care, and the wants of men more numerous, a place would be found wanting to prepare food, and would give rise to a sort of peristyle, or adject, to the circular hut, where the Sarah of the woods would

bake cakes for angels when they came, and for mere men when angels were not so common. The smoke in this adject would be disposed of in the same manner, but at the extremity of the area, leaving room only for benches or seats of stone or turf, around which the females or servants would sit, after the labours of the day were over, and every shepherd would tell, or repeat his tale, as he had done heretofore under the hawthorn tree.

“ *Extrema per illos justitia excedius terris*
 “ *Vestigia fecit.*

Fair virtue then and freedom, blest
 Arcadian shepherds saw;
 Astrea's steps they fondly prest,
 And sought no other law!

GOLDEN FLEECE, Stanzo iv.

But the inclemency of the weather, in the more northern and antartic regions of the earth, would render it necessary to fence dwellings more effectually from cold and moisture; and, during the rainy seasons, within the tropics, these houses would be found quite inadequate to the protection and comfort of the people. They would, therefore, fix deeply in the soil, or in rock where it could be obtained, large straight stemmed trees, placed in the same circular form, at convenient distances, and wattling the interstices with oziers or withes, would coat them over with clay and mud, beat into plaister, with the admixture of dried leaves, or other decayed vegetables, to keep the materials together. This hypothesis is verified by the writers referred to in the margin, and by the testimony of all our modern circumnavigators*.

* Diodorus Siculus. lib. 1. p. 52. S. in h. in apud Euseb. p. 35. Voyage a Perou par M. Bouguer, p. 8 and 10 Plin. lib. 7. § 57. and p. 413. The travels and voyages of Banks, Solander, Cooke, &c. &c.

The roof of this improved arbour would be covered in after the same manner, and similarly fortified against the access of wind and rain, according to the circumstances of the climate. This dwelling would exhibit no mean image of an original temple, to which it would lead in the next stage to improvement, which shall be the subject of our immediate consideration.

§ II. Men protected against the injuries of weather, and the molestation of beasts, would be induced sometimes by fear, and sometimes by gratitude, if not by traditional theology, to adore or deprecate the Majesty of heaven, or the supposed power of invisible beings. He would ascend high mountains where he thought himself nearer to tranquillity and happiness, and to the seats of eternal natures. He would kindle fire in honour of the v v f ing author of day, rejoice in his approach, or mourn his departure. Some place of shelter would be necessary to perform the adoring or appeasing rites, and he would naturally adopt and amplify that mode of building which he had chosen for domestic comfort; but the object of his adoration or fear, being invisible, he would not at first think of excluding this mansion from the access of light, or of the external air,—it would be, (as we may say,) an open rotunda. On very high mountains the electric aura encompasses the head with a phosphoric nimbus, with which adject, accordingly, the worshippers of the sun were wont to be represented,—a symbol that has been adopted in the mythology of our sophisticated religion during the dark ages. As society became closer and more complicated, and its powers

increased, these places of worship, would be improved and rendered more magnificent, and to trees would succeed pillars of stone, coarsely shaped, to imitate their form; imposts of stone would be laid across these uprights, and constitute circular temples after the manner of Stonehenge*.

In process of time these uprights would be formed by the chisel to the beautiful taper of the smooth barked tree, the imposts would be channelled and grooved, to cast deep and distinctive shadows, and last of all, the obolo, and other members of the shaft and capital, would be superadded. The ornaments of the capital and the architrave, pedestals, and other refinements in architecture, belong to the age of high refinement, caprice, and vanity, which we are afterwards to describe.

In the columniation of a temple, we behold the original grove; and the adoption was natural, since, as we are informed by Herodotus, that to the temple of Diana, one of the most magnificent in his age, the approach was by an avenue of lofty trees, "trees aspiring to heaven †."

* This temple of the Belgæ in Britain, is probably alluded to in a fragment of Hecataeus, where it is recorded that certain Tyrian navigators, visited, in the plains of North Britain, a huge temple dedicated to the sun. In the epistle of Quintus to his brother Marcus Tullius Cicero, in the fifth volume of this work, a description is given of the manner in which those gigantic monuments were raised without any extraordinary efforts.

† This is represented in the structures we are pleased to call Gothic, by the basilicon or nave of the church, that by which the priests approached in procession to the sanctuary, which was placed at the east end of the building adjoining to the high altar. See the very sensible and.

In the ornament of the capital we contemplate the beauty and virtue of the Indian Lotus, which had undoubtedly given origin to the foliage of the pillar idly ascribed to the accident of the tile and the acanthus. In the decoration of the Ionic order we are to reflect on the ornaments of the Delphic altar, and of the Ammonian Jupiter; and for other improvements we are to examine the history and manners of the countries in which they were adopted; and to class those of latter ages under that head of architecture, which falls hereafter to be considered, and must occupy several successive articles in this miscellany, if, from this specimen of my feeble endeavours to illustrate a subject of so much importance, your readers shall express any desire that they should be continued. I am, Sir,

Your humble servant.

B. A.

GRAMMATICAL DISQUISITIONS.

AGREEABLE to my promise, *Bee* vol. vii. p. 171. I now beg leave to offer a few remarks on "the philosophy of grammar."

The radical principles of language being the same in all nations, one would naturally imagine that grammar would be an easy, a simple, and of course a pleasing study. The reverse of this is found in practice to be the case. If every language must have words of the same kind to express the ideas that occur in an essay on Gothic structures, *Bee*, vol. ii. p. 247, &c. This mode of architecture, I apprehend to have been of Scythic or Persic origin, and so introduced by the Hellenic Goths, afterwards called Greeks.

cur to the human mind, which cannot be denied, it would seem that nothing could be more simple or easy than the translating from one language into another, because nothing more would be wanted than to substitute one word in place of another; yet, when we come to attempt this in practice, it is found to be an intricate and a difficult task. It would be an useful enterprise to attempt to account for this seeming contradiction.

The fundamental principles of grammar are doubtless the same in all languages, and admit not of any variation. But in the primary formation of words, in their combinations, and modifications, the possible variations are almost infinite. Grammar, therefore, in the abstract, can only be one, and if the *essential* circumstances alone are adverted to, it must be both simple and easy: but in practice it may be infinitely various: and, if casual variations, and unessential modifications, be not carefully distinguished from essential principles, it will become an intricate study, a complicated chaotic mass, in which nothing but darkness and confusion appear.

This has, in fact, been too much the case; and those who have attempted to explain the principles of grammar, especially in modern times, have usually set up some one language as a standard of perfection, all the anomalies of which, they have considered as essential principles, which has introduced a confusion into that study that renders our ideas respecting it indefinite and obscure.

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The Latins, however, included more under that title than with propriety belonged to it. They included not only the objects themselves, but the qualities also which might be accidentally combined with these objects. They, therefore, divided this class of words into two parts; the first they called NAMES

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God hath been pleased to create most part of animals *male* and *female*. There is nothing therefore unnatural in denoting the male and the female of the same animal, by the same word slightly diversified. It may therefore happen, that in some languages this variation of the noun does take place, as in *prince, princeſs, peer, peeress*; in which case the NOUNS might

be said to admit of the *masculine* and *feminine* GENDER, by *inflection*. But this can in no sense be considered as an essential property of the noun. It would be easy to adopt different words for this purpose, as we in fact do in many cases, as *king* and *queen*, *horse* and *mare*, *bull* and *cow*, *ram* and *ewe*, &c. which are all distinct words. Therefore to say that nouns necessarily require a variation by *inflection* for gender, is improper; and if we were to admit that a masculine and feminine gender were required, we should still find that several other genders were necessary. Many animals have no sex at all, as grubs, caterpillars, &c. many others are of both sexes, as different kinds of worms; many others have no *apparent* sex, as snails, slugs, &c. To denote all these variations, a much greater diversity of genders than the masculine and feminine therefore would have been necessary. The truth however, is, that no variation of the NOUN whatever is required respecting *gender*, and our notions have been, as to this particular, totally perverted, by endeavouring to erect the anomalous practice adopted in a particular language into a radical principle in grammar. The doctrine of *genders* is indeed one of the most intricate, and as it has been applied, one of the most absurd, in grammar, and highly requires elucidation; but that will come to be more properly investigated under a separate head, if we should ever go so far.

The variation respecting CASE is still more absurd, and the doctrine that has been founded on it, yet more ridiculous; but this shall form the subject of a separate paper.

To be continued.

POETRY.

VERSES ON PATIENCE, WRITTEN AT THE REQUEST OF A FRIEND.

BY DR BYROM.

For the Bee.

A VERSE on patience?—Yes,—but then prepare
Your mind, friend Robert, with a *reading* share,
Or else 'twill give you rather less than more,
To hear it mentioned than you had before :
If mine to write, remember 'tis your task
To read the lines which you are pleas'd to ask.

Patience the theme?—a blessed inmate this!
The nursing parent of our bosom blifs ;
Abroad for blifs she bids us not to roam,
But cultivate its real fund at home :
A noble treasure!—when the patient soul,
Sits in the center and surveys the whole.

The bustling world, to fetch her out from thence,
Will urge the various, plausible pretence ;
Will prove perfections of a grander name ;
Sound great exploits, and call her out to fame ;
Amuse and flatter, till the soul, too prone
To self-activity, deserts her throne.

Be on your guard,—the bus'ness of a man
Is to be sure to do what good he can ;
But first at home, let patience rule within,
Where charity you know must first begin ;
Not monied love, as fondly understood,
But balm sedate propensity to good.

The genuine virtue of the modest friend,
Which you oblige me here to recommend ;
The trial this of all the rest beside,
For without patience they are all but pride ;
A strong ambition shines within its sphere,
But prives its weakness, when it cannot bear.

There lies the test,—bring ev'ry thing to that ;
It shows us plainly what we would be at :
Of gen'rous actions we may count the sum,
But scarce the worth, till disappointments come ;
Men of are then more gen'rously absurd,
Their own good actions have their own bad word.

Impatience hates ingratitude, forsooth!
 Why?—it discovers our ingrateful truth;
 That having done, for interest or fame,
 Such and such doings, she has lost her aim;
 While thankless people, really in her debt,
 Have got all theirs, and put her in a fret.

Po'sest of patience, a right humble mind,
 At all events, is totally resign'd;
 Does good for sake of good, not for th' event,
 Leaves that to heav'n and keeps to its content;
 Good to be done, or to be suffer'd ill,
 It acts, it bears, with meek submissive will.

Enough, enough!—Now tell me if you please,
 How is it to be had, this mental ease?
 God knows,—I do not, how it is acquir'd;
 But this I know,—if heartily desir'd.
 We shall be thankful for the donor's leave
 To ask, to hope, and wait till we receive.

VERSES WROTE BY A LADY IN A DEEP DECLINE TO HER
 INFANT NINE MONTHS OLD.

For the Bee.

SWEET babe! you smile unconscious in my arms
 Of all the fears which my fond heart alarms;
 Thy little hands fast wipe my tears away,
 You seem to say, be chearful, O be gay!

Ah! lovely infant little dost thou know
 Thy mother's agony, her grief, her woe;
 Her hours of care, her many restless nights,
 The thousand terrors that her soul affrights

You little know the ills that round you wait,
 And seem to threat your young, your helpless state;
 Misfortune o'er thee waves her baleful wand,
 And gloomy clouds of sorrow lowr around.

Peaceful thy father rests in death's dark tomb,
 And soon thy mother too must meet her doom;
 Soon on my palid cheek the worm will feed,
 And the rank grass wave chearless round my head.

Who, then, my child! will guide thy tender years,
 And gently lead thee through this vale of tears?
 From penury and want who will thee save,
 When both thy parents sleep in death's cold grave?

Fatal, perhaps, thy op'ning charms may prove,
 Thy cheeks soft crimson, and mild eye of love,
 When thou hast no friend to protect thy youth,
 To teach thee spotless innocence and truth.

These thoughts with wild emotions throb my breast,
 And deep despair deprives my soul of rest;
 These thoughts, O death! add horror to thy dart,
 And thrills, with anguish keen a mother's heart.

Religion come, and cheer affliction's hour,
 Ah let my bleeding bosom feel thy pow'r!
 Teach me, resign'd, to view approaching death,
 And yield without regret to heav'n my breath.

My God, though this frail form will sink in dust,
 Still in thy arm, all powerful! will I trust;
 Thou art the orphan's shield, the widow's stay,
 And thou my babe wilt guide in virtue's way.

ELVINA.

LINES WRITTEN BY VOLTAIRE ON HIS DEATH BED,
 SUPPOSED TO BE THE LAST THING HE EVER WROTE.

O DIEU qu'on meconnoit
 O Dieu que tout annonce;
 Entend le dernier mot,
 Que ma bouche prononce:
 Si je me suis trompé,
 C'est en cherchant ta loi;
 Mon cœur se peut égarer,
 Mais il est plein de toi.
 Je vois sans m'allarmer,
 L'éternité paroître;
 Et je ne puis penser,
 Qu'un Dieu que m'a fait naître,
 Qu'un Dieu que sur mes jours
 Versa tant de bienfait,
 Quand les jours sont éteints,
 Me tourmente a jamais.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I TRANSCRIBED the following article from a London periodical publication that was stilled in its cradle, after a few numbers only had been published. As it has never perhaps been seen by any of your readers, and was doubtless unknown to your correspondent, a *young observer*, when he wrote the account of the *baya*, vol. viii. p. 18. it may be considered as a proper companion for that article. Wishing success to your laudable undertaking, I am, Sir, your humble servant,

AN OLD BOOK WORM.

Account of the agamée, a singular bird.

Nothing tends so much to demonstrate the immense distance there is between man in a savage state, and man in a state of society, as the conquests which the latter has made over the wild animals. He is aided by the dog on numberless occasions; the horse, the ox, the ass, the camel, the rein deer, the lama, become his servants, and enable him to transport burdens which his own strength never could have mastered. He rears, under his own eye, fowls, turkies, geese, ducks, pheasants, and peacocks; he has domesticated pigeons, and made the bees themselves gather stores for his use. The savage pays little attention to these acquisitions, insomuch that there are few cases in which he has attempted to make any of the animals minister by their labour to his wants, still fewer in which he has thought of making them contribute to his pleasures or amusements.

Man is formed for society; he is therefore most highly pleased with those of his own species who seem to be most sensibly touched with those marks of attention which indicate a partiality for him; and he never fails to be par-

ticularly delighted with those animals which are capable of expressing an attachment to him, and of relying upon him for their protection and support. The dog, on account of the sensibility he possesses in so surprising a degree, is in every civilized country a particular favourite of man, independently of his utility. The cat, and other small animals, which admit of being tamed, are more or less esteemed as they possess this quality in a greater or less degree of perfection.

Among the feathered tribe, some have been taken into favour on account of the sweetness of their song; others on account of the beauty of their plumage, or some other singularity in their exterior appearance; but the attachment that these animals show to their master, is in general so very slight, that there are but few instances in which they can lay claim to any degree of favour upon this ground.

The only instance of any considerable degree of that sort of attachment, on the part of any of the birds we know of, is that which is manifested by a bird which the French call the *agamée*. This bird is a native of Cayenne in South America, and attaches itself to man, with as much fidelity and warmth of affection as even a dog does. If an *agamée* is admitted into any house, it attaches itself to some one person with the utmost fidelity, and affords the most unequivocal marks of the pleasure it takes in his company. It comes to its master on all occasions with evident marks of satisfaction; caresses him with eagerness, flies before, or follows after him, and expresses, by various motions, the joy it feels at seeing or accompanying him. It comes readily when called, in whatever manner it may chance to be engaged at the time: it loves to be caressed, and presents its head and neck to be stroaked by him, with a satisfaction seemingly equal to that which a cat expresses in similar circumstances. It

loves to accompany its master at table, and being extremely jealous, it never fails to drive away, if possible, all cats and dogs, or other animals, that seem to share in its master's affection, especially when it is petitioning for food; and being fierce and courageous, it seldom fails to succeed. It is entertaining to see with what art it evades the bite of a dog, by soaring above his reach, and then darting down suddenly upon him while he is off his guard. It always aims his strokes at the eyes, which it attacks both with its bill and its talons with great fury; and when it has once obtained a victory, it pursues its enemy with the most surprising obstinacy, and would never cease tormenting it till it died, if not prevented.

In short, so strong is the attachment this bird shows to man, that, in this respect, it seems to hold the same rank as the dog among quadrupeds, and, in some instances, it even seems to approach near to that animal in point of docility. It is asserted that the *agamée* can be taught to guard a flock of sheep in the same manner as the dog. Since, then, these birds love domesticity so much, wherefore should we not endeavour to rear them in abundance, employ them in such uses as they are capable of being put to, and endeavour still farther to improve their natural instincts, and render them more extensively serviceable to man?

ANECDOTES OF ADRIAN BROOR, A CELEBRATED FLEMISH
PAINTER.

I BEG leave to offer the following anecdotes of Broor, a noted Flemish painter, as another instance of the strange eccentricities of some men of genius.

Adrian Broor, or Brawer, or Brauer, was born at Quedenarde in the year 1608, and died 1640.

Of his parentage nothing is known, only that they were of the lowest ranks of the people. Without instructor of any sort, and solely by an irresistible propensity of nature, Broor, while yet in a manner an infant, used to amuse himself in painting birds and flowers, upon small bits of linen; and his mother, for a subsistence, sold them to women of the country, who employed them as ornaments of their dresses.

While he was thus employed, Francis Hals, a famous painter, went by chance to the place where the young Broor lived, and, struck by his rising talents, he proposed to instruct him. Boor, charmed with this lucky rencounter, did not hesitate to follow him. But what he looked upon as extremely fortunate, was to him the source of infinite chagrins and disappointment. The avarice of Hals and his wife instigated them to avail themselves of the talents of the young unfortunate, whose hard fortune they seemed to bewail.

As soon as they had him in their power they made him labour to excess, and made him almost die of hunger. Lean and emaciated, he had scarcely the appearance of a human being; the rags with which he was covered gave him the appearance of the utmost misery. Whilst he himself was in want of the necessaries of life, the little pictures at which he worked night and day were sold at a very great price. The greediness of his masters, only increasing in proportion as they found the means to satisfy themselves, they shut him up in a garret, that he might be able to produce more works.

That separation inspired the anxiety or the curiosity of his companions, disciples of Hals, who watched the moment of his absence to discover what Broor did in his prison. They went up each in their turn, and, by means of a small window, they saw with surprise that this poor and despised apprentice, was a great painter, and made very

pretty pictures. One of these young people proposed to him to paint the *five senses* at four sous a-piece. Broor executed them so well, that another asked of him the *twelve months of the year* at the same price.

Our prisoner thought himself very happy, and considered, as a good fortune, the purchase money of these little subjects which he did by stealth, and in some leisure moments; but the considerable profits which his works brought him determined Hals and his wife to watch him so closely that he should not have a single minute to dispose of; these unconscionable guards, not content with exhausting him with labour, diminished day by day the small pittance destined for his subsistence.

This dreadful situation was like to drive him to despair, when one of his comrades advised him to make his escape, and even furnished him with the means. Deprived of every thing, and almost naked, Broor strayed through the city not knowing where to go, nor what would be his lot. After having wandered a long time, he stopt at the shop of a gingerbread baker, and bought as much as should serve him all day, paying for it all the money which he had, and ran to place himself under the organ of the great church. Whilst he was there, ruminating in his mind how he should get into a more comfortable situation, he was recognised by an intimate friend who took him back to his master, who had been at much pains to find him, and, overjoyed at recovering him, promised to use him better in time to come.

Hals piqued himself upon the performance of his promise; he bought him a suit of second hand clothes, and fed him a little better. Broor, thus encouraged, set about his work with ardour, but always for the profit of his master, who sold very dear the pictures which he had for almost nothing. Broor alone was ignorant of his talents, and the

resources which they would have procured him. Informed at last by his comrades of the price of his pictures, he escaped more effectually than the first time, and took refuge in the city of Amsterdam, where he arrived without friends or money. His good stars conducted him to an honest seller of pictures, who granted him an asylum. One may guess with what pleasure Broor learned that his works were known in Amsterdam, and that they sold for a considerable price.

He would have perhaps doubted it, if an amateur had not given him about an hundred ducats for one of his pictures. As soon as Broor, who had demanded that sum trembling, saw himself in possession of so much money, he spread it out upon his bed, transported with joy, and rolled himself upon it.

Ten days passed in a debauch with the people of the very lowest sort, who soon made him find the bottom of his purse. He then came back, rejoiced and content, to the picture merchant where he lodged, who asking him what he had done with his money: "I have got happily rid of it," said he, "in order to be more free."

This alternative between labour and dissipation was his constant plan of conduct all the rest of his life. He never dreamed of taking the pencil until he had no more money. He was continually involving himself in drunken quarrels with the dregs of the populace, after having drank freely with them. His work shop was generally in an inn, where he was often obliged to send his works to sell to the *amateurs*, to pay his expence.

Broor gave himself up with such enthusiasm when at work, that he was often heard speaking Spanish, Italian, and French, as if he had been with the persons whom he was painting,

There is nothing more diverting than the adventures which Broor met with every day. In one of his rambles he was stript entirely by robbers. Not having money to purchase a new wardrobe, he took it into his head to make himself a habit of linen, on which he painted flowers in the taste of the Indian robes. The ladies were deceived by it, and were anxious to have a similar stuff and pattern. Broor contrived, in order to undeceive them, to mount a stage at the end of a performance; and, taking a sponge soaked with water, he effaced before their eyes all the pictures on his dress.

Whilst war was entirely desolating Flanders, Broor was very desirous of going to Antwerp. Notwithstanding the representations of his friends, he could not resist his impatience, and was taken in that city for a spy. Being shut up in the citadel, he had there the good fortune to meet the duke of Aremberg, whom he informed of his profession. The duke, who received sometimes visits from Rubens, begged that great artist to give to a prisoner some materials and other things wanted for painting. Rubens had no sooner cast his eyes on the picture which the pretended spy was making, than he cried out, *This is a picture of Broor's!* and was absolutely for paying him six hundred florins.

Rubens employed all his friends to get Broor out of prison; he even became surety for him, and having obtained his enlargement, he clothed him, and took care to have him lodged, and brought him to his own table. Far from making a proper return for all these generous cares, Broor fled precipitately from the house of his illustrious benefactor in order to enjoy his liberty.

Broor perceived at length that he was despised by his relations on account of his ill dress. Sensible of the marks of their disdain, he bought a very genteel dress of velvet. One of his cousins seeing him so well equipped, begged him

cur to the human mind, which cannot be denied, it would seem that nothing could be more simple or easy than the translating from one language into another, because nothing more would be wanted than to substitute one word in place of another; yet, when we come to attempt this in practice, it is found to be an intricate and a difficult task. It would be an useful enterprise to attempt to account for this seeming contradiction.

The fundamental principles of grammar are doubtless the same in all languages, and admit not of any variation. But in the primary formation of words, in their combinations, and modifications, the possible variations are almost infinite. Grammar, therefore, in the abstract, can only be one, and if the *essential* circumstances alone are adverted to, it must be both simple and easy: but in practice it may be infinitely various: and, if casual variations, and unessential modifications, be not carefully distinguished from essential principles, it will become an intricate study, a complicated chaotic mass, in which nothing but darkness and confusion appear.

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With regard to GENDER. This also has been said to be three-fold, *viz. masculine, feminine and neuter*. The idea here inculcated has been evidently borrowed from the practice of the Latins, who, by a particular artificial construction of their language in other respects, found it extremely convenient to adopt the variations here specified; and from the Latins we have borrowed these words, without seeming to have annexed any precise ideas to them. What respects the inflection of the *neuter* gender has no foundation at all in nature; and it will be easy to show that what relates to the other genders is accidental also, and, if it were necessary, imperfect.

God hath been pleased to create most part of animals *male* and *female*. There is nothing therefore unnatural in denoting the male and the female of the same animal, by the same word slightly diversified. It may therefore happen, that in some languages this variation of the noun does take place, as in *prince, princess, peer, peeress*; in which case the NOUNS might

be said to admit of the *masculine* and *feminine* GENDER, by *inflection*. But this can in no sense be considered as an essential property of the noun. It would be easy to adopt different words for this purpose, as we in fact do in many cases, as *king* and *queen*, *horse* and *mare*, *bull* and *cow*, *ram* and *ewe*, &c. which are all distinct words. Therefore to say that nouns necessarily require a variation by *inflection* for gender, is improper; and if we were to admit that a masculine and feminine gender were required, we should still find that several other genders were necessary. Many animals have no sex at all, as grubs, caterpillars, &c. many others are of both sexes, as different kinds of worms; many others have no *apparent* sex, as snails, slugs, &c. To denote all these variations, a much greater diversity of genders than the masculine and feminine therefore would have been necessary. The truth however, is, that no variation of the NOUN whatever is required respecting *gender*, and our notions have been, as to this particular, totally perverted, by endeavouring to erect the anomalous practice adopted in a particular language into a radical principle in grammar. The doctrine of *genders* is indeed one of the most intricate, and as it has been applied, one of the most absurd, in grammar, and highly requires elucidation; but that will come to be more properly investigated under a separate head, if we should ever go so far.

The variation respecting CASE is still more absurd, and the doctrine that has been founded on it, yet more ridiculous; but this shall form the subject of a separate paper.

To be continued.

POETRY.

VERSES ON PATIENCE, WRITTEN AT THE REQUEST OF A FRIEND.

BY DR BYRON.

For the Bee.

A VERSE on patience?—Yes,—but then prepare
Your mind, friend Robert, with a *reading* share,
Or else 'twill give you rather leis than mote,
To hear it mentioned than you had before:
If mine to write, remember 'tis your task
To read the lines which you are pleas'd to ask.

Patience the theme?—a blest inmate this!
The nursing parent of our bosom blifs;
Abroad for blifs she bids us not to roam,
But cultivate its real fund at home:
A noble treasure!—when the patient soul,
Sits in the center and surveys the whole.

The bustling world, to fetch her out from thence,
Will urge the various, plausible pretence;
Will prove perfections of a grander name,
Sound great exploits, and call her out to fame;
Amuse and flatter, till the soul, too prone
To self-activity, deserts her throne.

Be on your guard,—the bus'ness of a man
Is to be sure to do what good he can;
But first at home, let patience rule within,
Where charity you know must first begin;
Not monied love, as fondly understood,
But balm sedate propensity to good.

The genuine virtue of the modest friend,
Which you oblige me here to recommend;
The trial this of all the rest beside,
For without patience they are all but pride;
A strong ambition shines within its sphere,
But proves its weakness, when it cannot bear.

There lies the test,—bring ev'ry thing to that;
It shows us plainly what we would be at:
Of gen'rous actions we may count the sum,
But scarce the worth, till disappointments come;
Men of, are then more gen'rously absurd,
Their own good actions have their own bad word.

Impatience hates ingratitude, forsooth!
 Why?—it discovers our ingrateful truth;
 That having done, for interest or fame,
 Such and such doings, she has lost her aim;
 While thankless people, really in her debt,
 Have got all theirs, and put her in a fret.

Po'sest of patience, a right humble mind,
 At all events, is totally resign'd;
 Does good for sake of good, not for th' event,
 Leaves that to heav'n and keeps to its content;
 Good to be done, or to be suffer'd ill,
 It acts, it bears, with meek submissive will.

Enough, enough!—Now tell me if you please,
 How is it to be had, this mental ease?
 God knows,—I do not, how it is acquir'd;
 But this I know,—if heartily desir'd,
 We shall be thankful for the donor's leave
 To ask, to hope, and wait till we receive.

VERSES WROTE BY A LADY IN A DEEP DECLINE TO HER
 INFANT NINE MONTHS OLD.

For the Bee.

SWEET babe! you smile unconscious in my arms
 Of all the fears which my fond heart alarms;
 Thy little hands fast wipe my tears away,
 You seem to say, be cheerful, O be gay!

Ah! lovely infant little dost thou know
 Thy mother's agony, her grief, her woe;
 Her hours of care, her many restless nights,
 The thousand terrors that her soul affrights

You little know the ills that round you wait,
 And seem to threat your young, your helpless state;
 Misfortune o'er thee waves her baleful wand,
 And gloomy clouds of sorrow low around.

Peaceful thy father rests in death's dark tomb,
 And soon thy mother too must meet her doom;
 Soon on my palid cheek the worm will feed,
 And the rank grass wave cheerless round my head.

Who, then, my child! will guide thy tender years,
 And gently lead thee through this vale of tears?
 From penury and want who will thee save,
 When both thy parents sleep in death's cold grave?

Fatal, perhaps, thy op'ning charms may prove,
 Thy cheeks soft crimson, and mild eye of love,
 When thou hast no friend to protect thy youth,
 To teach thee spotless innocence and truth.

These thoughts with wild emotions throb my breast,
 And deep despair deprives my soul of rest;
 These thoughts, O death! add horror to thy dart,
 And thrills, with anguish keen a mother's heart.

Religion come, and cheer affliction's hour,
 Ah let my bleeding bosom feel thy pow'r!
 Teach me, resign'd, to view approaching death,
 And yield without regret to heav'n my breath.

My God, though this frail form will sink in dust,
 Still in thy arm, all powerful! will I trust;
 Thou art the orphan's shield, the widow's stay,
 And thou my babe wilt guide in virtue's way.

ELVINA:

LINES WRITTEN BY VOLTAIRE ON HIS DEATH BED,
 SUPPOSED TO BE THE LAST THING HE EVER WROTE.

O DIEU qu'on meconnoit
 O Dieu que tout annonce;
 Entend le dernier mot,
 Que ma bouche prononce:
 Si je me suis trompé,
 C'est en cherchant ta loi;
 Mon cœur se peut egarer,
 Mais il est plein de toi.
 Je vois sans m'allarmer,
 L'éternité paroître;
 Et je ne puis penser,
 Qu'un Dieu que m'a fait naître,
 Qu'un Dieu que sur mes jours
 Versa tant de bienfait,
 Quand les jours sont éteints,
 Me tourmente à jamais.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I TRANSCRIBED the following article from a London periodical publication that was stilled in its cradle, after a few numbers only had been published. As it has never perhaps been seen by any of your readers, and was doubtless unknown to your correspondent, a *young observer*, when he wrote the account of the *baya*, vol. viii. p. 18. it may be considered as a proper companion for that article. Wishing success to your laudable undertaking, I am, Sir, your humble servant,

AN OLD BOOK WORM.

Account of the agamée, a singular bird.

Nothing tends so much to demonstrate the immense distance there is between man in a savage state, and man in a state of society, as the conquests which the latter has made over the wild animals. He is aided by the dog on numberless occasions; the horse, the ox, the ass, the camel, the rein deer, the lama, become his servants, and enable him to transport burdens which his own strength never could have mastered. He rears, under his own eye, fowls, turkies, geese, ducks, pheasants, and peacocks; he has domesticated pigeons, and made the bees themselves gather stores for his use. The savage pays little attention to these acquisitions, insomuch that there are few cases in which he has attempted to make any of the animals minister by their labour to his wants, still fewer in which he has thought of making them contribute to his pleasures or amusements.

Man is formed for society; he is therefore most highly pleased with those of his own species who seem to be most sensibly touched with those marks of attention which indicate a partiality for him; and he never fails to be par-

ticularly delighted with those animals which are capable of expressing an attachment to him, and of relying upon him for their protection and support. The dog, on account of the sensibility he possesses in so surprising a degree, is in every civilized country a particular favourite of man, independently of his utility. The cat, and other small animals, which admit of being tamed, are more or less esteemed as they possess this quality in a greater or less degree of perfection.

Among the feathered tribe, some have been taken into favour on account of the sweetness of their song; others on account of the beauty of their plumage, or some other singularity in their exterior appearance; but the attachment that these animals show to their master, is in general so very slight, that there are but few instances in which they can lay claim to any degree of favour upon this ground.

The only instance of any considerable degree of that sort of attachment, on the part of any of the birds we know of, is that which is manifested by a bird which the French call the *agamée*. This bird is a native of Cayenne in South America, and attaches itself to man, with as much fidelity and warmth of affection as even a dog does. If an *agamée* is admitted into any house, it attaches itself to some one person with the utmost fidelity, and affords the most unequivocal marks of the pleasure it takes in his company. It comes to its master on all occasions with evident marks of satisfaction; caresses him with eagerness, flies before, or follows after him, and expresses, by various motions, the joy it feels at seeing or accompanying him. It comes readily when called, in whatever manner it may chance to be engaged at the time: it loves to be caressed, and presents its head and neck to be stroked by him, with a satisfaction seemingly equal to that which a cat expresses in similar circumstances. It

loves to accompany its master at table, and being extremely jealous, it never fails to drive away, if possible, all cats and dogs, or other animals, that seem to share in its master's affection, especially when it is petitioning for food; and being fierce and courageous, it seldom fails to succeed. It is entertaining to see with what art it evades the bite of a dog, by soaring above his reach, and then darting down suddenly upon him while he is off his guard. It always aims his strokes at the eyes, which it attacks both with its bill and its talons with great fury; and when it has once obtained a victory, it pursues its enemy with the most surprising obstinacy, and would never cease tormenting it till it died, if not prevented.

In short, so strong is the attachment this bird shows to man, that, in this respect, it seems to hold the same rank as the dog among quadrupeds, and, in some instances, it even seems to approach near to that animal in point of docility. It is asserted that the *agamée* can be taught to guard a flock of sheep in the same manner as the dog. Since, then, these birds love domesticity so much, wherefore should we not endeavour to rear them in abundance, employ them in such uses as they are capable of being put to, and endeavour still farther to improve their natural instincts, and render them more extensively serviceable to man?

ANECDOTES OF ADRIAN BROOR, A CELEBRATED FLEMISH
PAINTER:

I BEG leave to offer the following anecdotes of Broor, a noted Flemish painter, as another instance of the strange eccentricities of some men of genius.

Adrian Broor, or Brawer, or Brauer, was born at Quendenarde in the year 1608, and died 1640.

Of his parentage nothing is known, only that they were of the lowest ranks of the people. Without instructor of any sort, and solely by an irresistible propensity of nature, Broor, while yet in a manner an infant, used to amuse himself in painting birds and flowers, upon small bits of linen; and his mother, for a subsistence, sold them to women of the country, who employed them as ornaments of their dresses.

While he was thus employed, Francis Hals, a famous painter, went by chance to the place where the young Broor lived, and, struck by his rising talents, he proposed to instruct him. Broor, charmed with this lucky rencounter, did not hesitate to follow him. But what he looked upon as extremely fortunate, was to him the source of infinite chagrins and disappointment. The avarice of Hals and his wife instigated them to avail themselves of the talents of the young unfortunate, whose hard fortune they seemed to bewail.

As soon as they had him in their power they made him labour to excess, and made him almost die of hunger. Lean and emaciated, he had scarcely the appearance of a human being; the rags with which he was covered gave him the appearance of the utmost misery. Whilst he himself was in want of the necessaries of life, the little pictures at which he worked night and day were sold at a very great price. The greediness of his masters, only increasing in proportion as they found the means to satisfy themselves, they shut him up in a garret, that he might be able to produce more works.

That separation inspired the anxiety or the curiosity of his companions, disciples of Hals, who watched the moment of his absence to discover what Broor did in his prison. They went up each in their turn, and, by means of a small window, they saw with surprise that this poor and despised apprentice, was a great painter, and made very

pretty pictures. One of these young people proposed to him to paint the *five senses* at four sous a-piece. Broor executed them so well, that another asked of him the *twelve months of the year* at the same price.

Our prisoner thought himself very happy, and considered, as a good fortune, the purchase money of these little subjects which he did by stealth, and in some leisure moments; but the considerable profits which his works brought him determined Hals and his wife to watch him so closely that he should not have a single minute to dispose of; these unconscionable guards, not content with exhausting him with labour, diminished day by day the small pittance destined for his subsistence.

This dreadful situation was like to drive him to despair, when one of his comrades advised him to make his escape, and even furnished him with the means. Deprived of every thing, and almost naked, Broor strayed through the city not knowing where to go, nor what would be his lot. After having wandered a long time, he stopt at the shop of a gingerbread baker, and bought as much as should serve him all day, paying for it all the money which he had, and ran to place himself under the organ of the great church. Whilst he was there, ruminating in his mind how he should get into a more comfortable situation, he was recognised by an intimate friend who took him back to his master, who had been at much pains to find him, and, overjoyed at recovering him, promised to use him better in time to come.

Hals piqued himself upon the performance of his promise; he bought him a suit of second hand clothes, and fed him a little better. Broor, thus encouraged, set about his work with ardour, but always for the profit of his master, who sold very dear the pictures which he had for almost nothing. Broor alone was ignorant of his talents, and the

resources which they would have procured him. Informed at last by his comrades of the price of his pictures, he escaped more effectually than the first time, and took refuge in the city of Amsterdam, where he arrived without friends or money. His good stars conducted him to an honest seller of pictures, who granted him an asylum. One may guess with what pleasure Broor learned that his works were known in Amsterdam, and that they sold for a considerable price.

He would have perhaps doubted it, if an amateur had not given him about an hundred ducats for one of his pictures. As soon as Broor, who had demanded that sum trembling, saw himself in possession of so much money, he spread it out upon his bed, transported with joy, and rolled himself upon it.

Ten days passed in a debauch with the people of the very lowest sort, who soon made him find the bottom of his purse. He then came back, rejoiced and content, to the picture merchant where he lodged, who asking him what he had done with his money: "I have got happily rid of it," said he, "in order to be more free."

This alternative between labour and dissipation was his constant plan of conduct all the rest of his life. He never dreamed of taking the pencil until he had no more money. He was continually involving himself in drunken quarrels with the dregs of the populace, after having drank freely with them. His work shop was generally in an inn, where he was often obliged to send his works to sell to the *amateurs*, to pay his expence.

Broor gave himself up with such enthusiasm when at work, that he was often heard speaking Spanish, Italian, and French, as if he had been with the persons whom he was painting,

There is nothing more diverting than the adventures which Broor met with every day. In one of his rambles he was stript entirely by robbers. Not having money to purchase a new wardrobe, he took it into his head to make himself a habit of linen, on which he painted flowers in the taste of the Indian robes. The ladies were deceived by it, and were anxious to have a similar stuff and pattern. Broor contrived, in order to undeceive them, to mount a stage at the end of a performance; and, taking a sponge soaked with water, he effaced before their eyes all the pictures on his dress.

Whilst war was entirely desolating Flanders, Broor was very desirous of going to Antwerp. Notwithstanding the representations of his friends, he could not resist his impatience, and was taken in that city for a spy. Being shut up in the citadel, he had there the good fortune to meet the duke of Aremberg, whom he informed of his profession. The duke, who received sometimes visits from Rubens, begged that great artist to give to a prisoner some materials and other things wanted for painting. Rubens had no sooner cast his eyes on the picture which the pretended spy was making, than he cried out, *This is a picture of Broor's!* and was absolutely for paying him six hundred florins.

Rubens employed all his friends to get Broor out of prison; he even became surety for him, and having obtained his enlargement, he clothed him, and took care to have him lodged, and brought him to his own table. Far from making a proper return for all these generous cares, *Broor* fled precipitately from the house of his illustrious benefactor in order to enjoy his liberty.

Broor perceived at length that he was despised by his relations on account of his ill dress. Sensible of the marks of their disdain, he bought a very genteel dress of velvet. One of his cousins seeing him so well equipped, begged him

to come to his marriage. Broor did not fail to be there, and as during the repast the company praised the good taste and propriety of the dress of our painter, he took a plate filled with sauce, and threw it all upon it, and spoiled at once with the grease all his fine apparel, saying it ought to enjoy its full share of the good cheer, since it was evident it was his dress alone that was invited, and not himself.

After this foolish action, he threw his coat into the fire in presence of the company, and went and shut himself up in an inn, where the pipe and a bottle of brandy supplied the place of riches and worldly greatness.

Tired of being possessed of nothing, *Broor* retired to the house of a baker in Brussels who had a pretty wife. He found means to insinuate himself into the good graces of both the husband and the wife, a singularity which happens every day. That baker who also followed the business of a picture dealer, lodged and boarded his new friend. *Broor*, in return, taught him to paint, and did other good offices to the lady. The connection between these two men was so close, and their characters were so like, that they were scarcely a moment asunder. They even pushed their disorders so far as to render themselves liable to legal punishment; an accident which obliged them to betake themselves to flight.

After having wandered some time, *Broor* came back to Antwerp, being reduced to the utmost misery; he fell ill there, and had no other asylum than the hospital, where he died at the end of two days.

Rubens honoured him with his tears, caused his body to be lifted from the grave where it was buried, and interred it anew with magnificent pomp; the city of Antwerp raised a fine tomb over him.

THE TEMPLE OF HYMEN.

In a letter written by a young gentleman of Philadelphia to a young lady.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

LAST night I slept, and I dreamed that I was walking on a beautiful spacious plain, in the middle of which stood a lofty magnificent temple, which appeared to be ancient and venerable: and though some people advanced in years who were present, remarked, that it was much decayed since they had first paid a visit there; yet to me, and all young persons who were in the single line of life, it appeared to be the most elegant and beautiful dome we had ever beheld. As I was admiring it, I saw innumerable crowds of people rushing forward towards it, in pairs; though, I confess, I thought them very strangely coupled; as I observed men of fifty, leading nymphs of fifteen; and widows of forty, attended by beaux of twenty-two. I stepped to a person standing near me who belonged to the place, and asked him what the dome was called. He said it was called the temple of Hymen; "and those you see pressing towards it," continued he, "are desirous of being united in the bands of matrimony; the cause of the disparity in age, is, that all these are money-matches." I then seated myself near the gate of the dome, to take a view of them as they entered. There appeared in their countenances a certain languor and cold indifference; and many of them, I thought, appeared unhappy; and the nearer they approached the temple, the more their anxiety seemed to increase. My attention was particularly taken with a handsome youth of about twenty-two years of age, who was attending an antiquated maid, who appeared advanced in life. He seemed to be gloomy and dejected;

and when he had nearly arrived at the gate where I stood, he tore himself from her, and fled precipitately, with a degree of apparent pleasure.

I felt a sincere sorrow for the lady, who appeared to be overwhelmed in the utmost consternation, grief, and anger; but my sympathy considerably abated, when the intelligent person from whom I had my information respecting the dome, told me, that she was a lady of great wealth, but small accomplishments. "She has been sought after," said he, "in her earlier years, by many who were her superiors in point of merit: but because they were inferior in fortune, she treated them with the most insolent contempt; in consequence of which she was forsaken by the sex, till this youth, falling into difficult circumstances, addressed her from pecuniary motives: and though his addresses were cold and inanimate through want of affection, she assented, and this was the appointed day for celebrating the nuptials: but as he approached the temple, a weight of anxiety pervaded his breast, and a struggle between the laws of honour, and a regard for his own felicity, rent his troubled heart with torture; till at length, his feelings overcame every other consideration. He violated the laws of honour,—he opposed the impulse of interest, rather than be bound in the lasting tyrannical chains of an unhappy matrimonial union." "She is not to be pitied," said I, "she has slighted the offers of generous love:—she has sported with the feelings of her real admirers:—she has trifled with human happiness; and has met with her reward: yet had I been her judge, I should, from a delicacy for the sex, inflicted a smaller punishment."

The crowd that had entered the temple, were united by words,——but not in heart: and then they returned

to their habitations, to wrangle out their lives in as much harmony as they could.

Next appeared a giddy throng, whether greater or smaller than the other, I was not able to discover. They were on the same errand, but acted from different motives, if motives they could be called. They appeared to be the thoughtless children of dissipation, and entered this solemn scene, with as little reflection as they use in every other action of life. They appeared to have chosen their companions, just as chance or fancy directed, without any regard to merit, or similarity of disposition. They came, were united, and returned all jovial, airy, and chearful, as if they were entering a blissful paradise.

“Ah thoughtless mortals” said I, “how soon will your fancied bloom be nipped in the bud! your idle dreams of pleasure will vanish as the morning dew, and you join the disappointed marriage train, in expatiating on the uninterrupted pleasures of celibacy.”

Next appeared a small company moving towards us slowly, and with graceful easy pace; their countenances were neither clouded with gloom, nor distorted with levity; but sweet complacency sat easy smiling on each feature, proceeding from a well grounded hope, that the most elevated degree of human felicity, would be the result of the union into which they were about to enter.

But imagine my surprise, when I saw among this happy number my friend Maria. She was attended by a most engaging, accomplished youth; his eyes were piercing and lively, his features strong, manly, and regular; his manners graceful and easy, and I discovered in his aspect, the strongest traits of an ardent, noble, disinterested, and generous affection. He behaved towards my friend with the most polite, engaging, tender attention; his kindness to

wards her seemed altogether involuntary, and as natural to him as to breathe the air. "You seem surprised," said my intelligent "friend, on seeing your amiable acquaintance at the temple of Hymen, but I can assure you she never had any objections to matrimony, provided she could meet a partner possessed of such accomplishments as she conceived necessary to render her happy in a married life; her sentiments on this subject were indeed so far refined, as to border on the romantic; this she always found to be the case, till addressed by the amiable young gentleman who now attends her. They were immediately attached to each other by the indissoluble ties of genuine affection, under the benign influence of which they are to live a most serene and happy life." O supremely blest pair! exclaimed I, and in a transport of joy awoke, but behold it was a dream.

ALONZO.

On receiving the above, the lady wrote to Alonzo, regretting that his slumbers had terminated so abruptly, and wishing they had continued till the completion of the union, on which he sent her the following lines:

When, lo! methought, I stood with heart elate,
 Near to the Hymenean temple's gate,
 Where late I saw with exquisite delight
 The fair Maria led by Mr Wright:
 Light fancy paints the recent scene anew,
 And brings the happy pair before my view;
 'They to the palace door with pleasure move,
 A pleasure wafted on the wings of love;
 A bliss which sordid souls have never known,
 Who feel nor woes, nor blessings not their own;
 For those light thoughtless souls who never prove
 The sweet uniting charms of gen'rous love.
 At length arriv'd, th' attentive Cupid waits,
 To bring the happy pair within the gates;
 He view'd them o'er;—he stopt with strange surprise,
 To see such beauties beaming from their eyes;
 The sly young rogue, with wonder stood to gaze:
 "On happy pair!" he cried in fond amaze;

" Oh happy pair! walk in, the god invites;
 " Walk in,—receive the matrimonial rites.
 " You for each other surely were design'd,
 " So like in each accomplishment of mind:
 " Your hearts are join'd, walk in and join your hands
 " In matrimonial beatific bands."

Then to the sacred shrine the pair he led,
 The rev'rend god with wonder rais'd his head;
 For many years had pass'd since he had spied
 So kind a bridegroom, or so fair a bride.
 Then sweet melodious music fill'd the dome,
 And op'ning roses shed a rich perfume;
 The hoary monarch gaz'd with fond delight,
 Then on the happy pair conferr'd the rite;
 Th' attending crowd the nuptial anthem sings:
 " Thrice happy pair!" the echoing temple rings;
 " Thrice happy pair! your choice we well approve,
 " All hail! and welcome to the dome of love!
 " You from each other's love and peerless worth,
 " Shall find a blissful paradise on earth."

Then to a garden Cupid led the way,
 Where fragrant flow'rs were dress'd in rich array;
 A happy train whom love and peace surround,
 Their heads with beauteous flow'ry garlands crown'd;
 Here pass'd away their lives in peace and ease,
 To please each other was themselves to please.
 A silver rill descending from its source,
 In mazy windings took its peaceful course:
 It added beauty to the pleasing scene,
 And cloth'd the garden in perpetual green,
 The place was shaded by the flow'ry trees,
 And fann'd by zephyrs in a gentle breeze,
 Which wafted on their wings a rich perfume,
 Exhal'd from roses in eternal bloom;
 The charming songsters on the blossom'd sprays,
 Attun'd in rapt'rous melody their lays.
 The happy train thus pass'd their hours away,
 From rising morning till the ev'ning grey
 Her curtain draws, and the bright source of light
 Yields his dominion to the queen of night;
 As o'er the world the silent darkness grows,
 The purling rill with softer murmur flows:
 No jarring sounds the peaceful tribe molest;
 But falling waters lull their souls to rest.
 Our happy pair were welcom'd in with joy,
 While tuneful airs the skilful choir employ;
 Their utmost skill the joyful bands display,
 In celebrating this important day;
 So strong and loud grew the exulting strains,
 They broke my silent slumber's silken chains;
 I woke, dissolv'd in extacy supreme;
 May heaven indulgent realize the dream!

LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

THE study of natural history has made great progress in Scotland of late, and the lover of that interesting study possesses advantages here which he did not formerly enjoy. A few years ago there was not in this place a single collection of specimens in natural history, public or private, that deserved to be noticed. Since Dr Walker was appointed professor, and read lectures on the subject, things have taken a great change. His own museum, for a private collection, contains a great variety of beautiful specimens, in high preservation, of animals, vegetables, and minerals. Lord Gardenston has imported from abroad, and picked up at home, a select and valuable collection, chiefly in the mineral kingdom, to which the amateurs in that science have a most ready access by the obliging liberality of spirit of the owner. And the museum of Mr Weir, which has been exhibited for some years past, has been a valuable acquisition to the public. That gentleman, with a public spirit that would do honour to the highest character, continues to make daily additions to his collection, which, considering his station in life, is truly amazing, and which nothing but a decided taste for that study could have produced. He has lately purchased a house in Prince's street and fitted it up in the most elegant manner for the reception of his museum, which he has just opened for the public. This will afford an agreeable and instructive morning's lounge to the people of fashion who reside in Edinburgh.

Mr Weir's museum, cannot, it is true, in point of *size*, be compared with that of Sir Ashton Lever, and many others that might be named, but in respect to the natural attitudes in which the animals are placed, and their per-

fect preservation, it is far beyond them all. Lord Gardenston, in his travelling memorandums, remarks, that after having seen the finest collections of natural history in France, Italy, and Germany, he had found none in which the objects were so naturally disposed, or so perfectly preserved, as in that of Mr Weir. His birds and fishes especially deserve particular notice. The fishes retain the plumpness and the freshness of nature, without any thing of that dried, shrivelled appearance so usual in other collections; nor ever lose any thing of it. And as to birds Mr Weir possesses the rare secret of curing them, so as to remain entirely free of vermin of every sort. Dr Walker has at present in his collection, birds which were prepared by Mr Weir upwards of thirty years ago, whose plumage is as fresh and glossy as that day they were killed; and Mr Weir with confidence asserts, that they will continue so for ages. How different this from the birds in the British, and every other museum in Europe! What a pity that a secret of such singular utility should be confined to one man! Why do not the public purchase it from him, for the general improvement of science in every part of the globe? Mr Weir is a man of too liberal principles to withhold it upon reasonable terms; but it is not to be expected that a man who is not in affluent circumstances, should part with a thing of that nature without a proper compensation.

ANECDOTES OF ALPHONSO KING OF ARRAGON.

THIS trait of his liberality is well known. One of his treasurers had brought him a sum of ten thousand ducats. An officer who was there at that time, said in a low voice to somebody, I should ask no more than that sum to be happy: *you shall be so*, said Alphonso who had heard him,

and he made the ten thousand ducats be given to him directly.

He had gone with some of his courtiers to see the jewels of a jeweller. He was scarcely out of his shop when the merchant came running after him to complain of a theft they had made of a diamond of great value. Alphonso went back to the shop of the merchant, and having made him bring a large jar filled with bran, he ordered that each of his courtiers should put in their hand shut and bring it out open. He began first. After they had all done he ordered the jeweller to empty the jar on the table: by this means the diamond was found and nobody dishonoured.

Alphonso used to say, that among so many things that men possess, or that they seek after with ardour during the course of their life, all is but vain amusement, except dry and old wood to burn, old wine to drink, old friends to converse with, and old books to read.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE Editor returns thanks to the gentleman who has taken the trouble of transcribing an article from the *table a tete*. Is much obliged to him for his kind intentions, and liberal offer of assistance. But is sorry he cannot avail himself of his kind offer. The Bee shall never be so far prostituted as to become the vehicle of scandal and lubricity.

The Editor is much obliged to Mr S——s S———le for his good opinion and kind hints, which shall be duly attended to. The *Index indicaricus* has been only deferred for a time, from circumstances which will soon have no longer any influence, when it shall be resumed, if the readers in general seem to think it agreeable: some readers objected to the list of books, which they thought occupied more room than it was worth.

The observations by *D. X.* are received. General remarks on manners, where no personal allusions are made, will be very acceptable.

Impartiality is received, and under consideration.

Several pieces deferred for want of room.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 29. 1792.

OF TASTE IN ARCHITECTURE.

Continued from p. 239.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I HAVE shown the progress of architecture from its simplest forms in the infancy of society to the rude, but magnificent efforts of superstition, to erect temples to the invisible power of heaven; and I now proceed to consider it under the influence of vanity and ostentation in the ages of luxury and refinement.

This last and copious subject of my essay, naturally divides itself into the consideration of those improvements which arose from the vanity, pride, and ostentation of princes, in the erection of public edifices, and of those which in later times have sprung from the wealth of private individuals.

In the beginning, almost all the wealth of nations was accumulated in the state. The nation, or, in other words, the prince, was very rich, and the people very poor; neither commerce nor manufactures, nor the plunder of provinces by rapacious governors,

nor the right of primogeniture, nor the accumulation of property by marriage or collateral succession, had rendered private individuals capable of erecting lasting monuments of taste and magnificence.

The whole revenues of the commonwealth, that could be saved from the exigencies of government, were employed either in the building of stately temples in honour of the gods, or in defraying the expence of public roads, bridges, aqueducts, or pleasing the populace by the celebration of spectacles and games, to feed the vanity of the public or of the prince. The extinct empire of middle Asia seems to have been the first that erected durable monuments of architectural grandeur; and as in the remains of these, lately contemplated by the truly learned and excellent Sir William Jones, in the neighbourhood of Bombay, and at Benares in Indostan, we perceive the semblance of the manners, drefs, religion, customs, and architecture, of the Gothic and Scythian nations; so we may fairly conjecture that all sciences and arts have followed the course of the natural day.

Averting our eye with a respectful smile, from the calculations of Mr Bailli on the antiquity of these nations, let us call ourselves home to objects of contemplation where we have better guides. “They, (writes the ingenious Mr Riou) who, to judge of the origin of a custom or of an art, and of its passage from one people to another, adhere to the mere contemplation of any detached circumstances which may offer certain appearances of likeness, and thus, from some particular equivocal forms, draw their conclu-

sions about the generality of an art, are grossly deceived." It is certain that Egypt was to the Greeks, what Greece afterwards became to the Romans, the pattern of imitation; the nursery of legislators, philosophers, and artists. The language, manners, and customs of the Greeks, sufficiently show that they were a Scythian or eastern people; and nothing but vague hypothesis can invite the belief that the conquering emigrants brought any thing along with them but their language, their superstition and customs, hunger and their arms, into Europe, then peopled by wandering hordes of savages and covered with marshes and forests. How many centuries elapsed from the settlement of the first colonies of the Hellenic Greeks, until the first dawn of history, it is impossible with any degree of accuracy even to conjecture; but we know with certainty, that, while the Greeks were barbarous, the arts flourished in the city of Thebes, and that they were of immemorial antiquity in Egypt.

The fable of the Troglodytes and a subterranean nation, appears evidently to be founded on the primæval custom of man's sheltering himself from danger and the inclemencies, of the weather, *in caves and dens of the earth.*

Man, endowed with reason and progressive powers of improvement, which is denied to every other animal, would, when roused from his sluggish nature, go to the wild beast of the field and consider his ways and be wise; he would first shelter himself in natural cavities of the earth, and afterwards make excavations for himself. Many of these primæval dwellings are

yet to be seen in the vicinity of Thebes, and I believe in all the anciently inhabited regions of the earth. In various parts of Britain these Troglodytic villages are to be seen, and particularly in Leicestershire, where subterraneous accommodations have been discovered fit to contain some hundred families; and such are not uncommon in Scotland, though on a smaller scale. These were the habitations of what the Greeks would have called the Autochthonoi of Britain; a people who, by Scythian and Belgic invasions, were driven into the fastnesses of Wales and of Caledonia.

In the obelisk and pyramid of Egypt, we behold the hydrometer of the Nile, and the emblem of that luminary without which the waters would have been fatal to the fruits of the earth. In the ruins of their palaces and temples, we behold a rude magnificence, unsubjected to any elegance of taste; nor are the elements of Egyptian architecture, any farther than as they are founded on nature, discernible in the Greek. It is not probable, therefore, that the Greeks copied in their buildings the architecture of the Egyptians. They had nothing to copy in the manners of the savages whom they found in the country; and, therefore, we are to look for the elements of Greek architecture in that beautiful nature which they saw every where around them in that garden of Europe.

Mr Riou in treating of the Grecian orders of architecture, has likewise very pertinently observed that the Greeks "had scarcely the opportunity of becoming plagiarists of the Egyptians; because be-

fore the reign of Psamettichus, entrance was denied to every stranger, and the art of architecture had been then cultivated by the Grecians."

Besides, in studying the beautiful remains of temples in Greece, a progress from the rude models of the highest antiquity, to the perfection of the art in the age immediately preceding the Macedonian conquest, is plainly discernible; after which the false taste for internal, and finally external, ornament on the capitals, freezes, and architraves, of columns, and the pediments of the porticoes of their temples, marked the consequences of Asiatic conquest and luxury, by the introduction of fastidious and corrupt ornament.

With respect to the architecture of the Romans, it was originally borrowed from Greece, but at a time when Rome was not sufficiently wealthy to vie with them in magnificent structures.

Before the accession of Augustus to the supreme power, Rome was chiefly composed of brick or wooden houses; and these having no party walls, were exposed continually to the ravages of fire. Few of the houses were insulated or separate from others, and these in general were temples or public edifices; and great structures for public meetings, were so few, that we observe the temples were generally used upon solemn occasions, and even frequently for the assemblies of the senate.

With respect to the houses of the private citizens in town, they appear to have been very simple, and modest, and seldom elevated above one range of apartments; though when luxury and caprice began to insinuate themselves after the end of the Carthagi-

near war, *mutatoria* or change-houses were common for variety, and these in the suburbs, which were succeeded by elegant villas in the country.

But the multiplicity of these houses and villas led to their being composed of flimsy materials, and not constructed for extensive duration.

The earliest writers in Italy after the fall of the Roman empire, give us no accounts of the ruins of rural magnificence, though they speak much of the beauty and amœnity of the situations where they had formerly existed. In short there were greater captains than Marlborough, but no Blenheims in Italy, and still less in Greece. All great magnificence was dedicated to the gods and to the public. Noble example worthy of imitation!

Neither does it appear that before the empire of Augustus, any temples of extraordinary or durable magnitude or splendour had existed at Rome; and hardly had a taste for beautiful structures been established by the munificence of the usurper, than it became vitiated by the caprice of redundant decoration. Of this we are assured by the authority of Vitruvius.

Tacitus too, that great historian of a declining age, whose faults in style have been assiduously copied by Mr Gibbons, and other writers of these times, who are thought to belong to an age and country of advancing taste and improvement, informs us, that after the battle of Actium, the *Plafsey* of the Roman arms, when a visible decline of *free sentiment* appeared among the Romans, it extended itself (*as it were*) to the understandings of individuals, whence learning

and all the fine arts which had flourished to admiration, and for so long a period in Greece and Italy, fell into disrepute, and were overwhelmed by Asiatic barbarisms, and the whims of extraordinary and sudden influx of wealth from the plunder of the provinces. Thus you see the age of fine taste in architecture, either by invention or imitation, in Greece or in Italy, extended only to the continuance of five or six centuries. All before or after is one blank or blot in the annals of art or of literature. Methinks I hear the voice of ages crying aloud to nations, "Discite libertatem, moniti non adorare reges." Sensible Sir, of the respectable prejudices of great men, I express myself with caution in an unknown language. It is fit that men who pretend to have taste should not shock the eyes or ears of the elegant elohims of the earth.

As it seems desirable, that every individual who pretends to be what was formerly understood by the appellation of a gentleman, and who are now called esquires, should be acquainted with the construction of the houses of ancient Rome, before they became accommodated to foreign luxury, I shall endeavour, in very few words, and without the interposition of quotation or of foreign languages, to describe with English phrase and idiom, the places of abode of the more wealthy citizens, who had obtained high and lucrative employments in the commonwealth.

After the frequent fires that had destroyed whole quarters of the city, and particularly after the general conflagration that occurred in the reign of Nero, the streets which before that time had been as nar-

row as they are now in grand Cairo, and other eastern cities, were made wide and spacious; and the houses which had formerly been constructed of wood or brick were built of stone; and at certain intervals, it was enacted that there should be insulated houses surrounded with courts or gardens, to prevent the communication of fire for the future. The common approach to houses of eminence, was through a quadrangular court, sometimes surrounded by piazzas, to defend the guests or visitors from the weather, and leading to the principal front; annexed to which there was a large portico, to which there immediately adjoined a salloon, which they called a seat room, as being that used for dinner, where they lay to eat on beds, three or sometimes four to a bed; which custom, during the prevalent fashion of beards, must have exhibited, especially in the use of spoon meat and liquors, many very visible and inconvenient accidents. Beyond the dining room was the servants waiting room, where all accommodations for the butler and slaves in waiting were provided, and where at all times there were slaves to give notice to their associates of any call made upon them by the family, supplying in early times the want of bells which are now used for that purpose. In this large antichamber were commonly placed in niches or otherwise, the statues of their ancestors, or of illustrious citizens; and in one such of these, supposed to be the house of Asinius Poltio, was discovered by excavation the wonderful groupe of Laocoon and his sons.

The length of the saloon was generally double that of its breadth, and the height was equal to the latter, when the nature of the building would permit.

On the right hand of the saloon were the other apartments of the family, either for state or retirement, for amusement or repose; and on the left the servants apartments. As to wine it was buried in large vessels, some of them containing a quantity equal to our pipe, in subterraneous apartments, or simply in the earth, excavated and rammed full again with sand. In the country their accommodations were much more numerous and extensive. They had apartments for all the varying seasons of the year, some with stoves for the winter, and others for only admitting an extraordinary degree of solar heat and light, in spring and autumn; reserving the cool subterraneous vaulted apartments, with small windows, for the heats of summer.

Thus far with respect to the houses of the ancient Romans. In my next, I shall endeavour to trace the luxury of the moderns, and subject it to the rules and criticism of classic elegance; without pretending to offer any opinions of my own, or venturing to excite the vengeance of the moderns against an admirer of the Greeks. I am, Sir,

Your humble servant,

B. A.

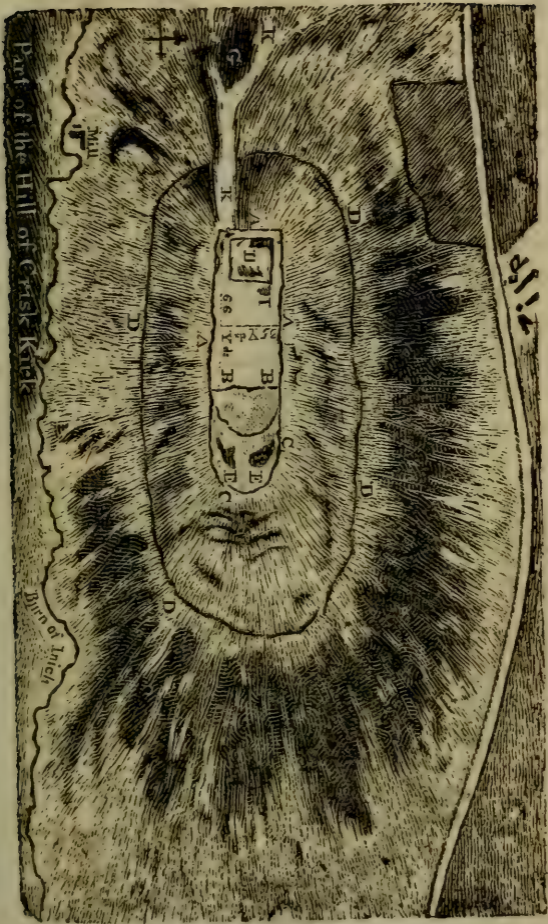
DESCRIPTION OF THE FORTIFICATIONS
AT DUN-O-DEER.

Continued from p. 212.

THE entry to both these castles has been from the west, near the stone and lime tower, where the hill is of more equal ascent than at any other place, although the descent towards the east, is, near the summit, much more gentle than towards the west, which has occasioned some additional works there, the traces of which are still sufficiently distinct, and are delineated on the plan for your inspection, (see plate fig. 1.) where A A A is the vitrified wall surrounding the whole hill; B B is the remains of another wall that has been drawn right across the hill, at that part where the descent to the eastward begins to be perceptible. No marks of vitrification are discoverable in this wall. E E is the remains of a ditch, with a rampart, stretching out beyond the vitrified wall still farther to the eastward. Beyond that, and considerably down the declivity of the hill, is the remains of another ditch of circumvallation, D D D D, seen in the perspective views of the hill at E & G fig. 2. and D D fig. 3. Below this in some parts of the hill, there are some indistinct marks of another ditch; but this is now in a great measure obliterated.

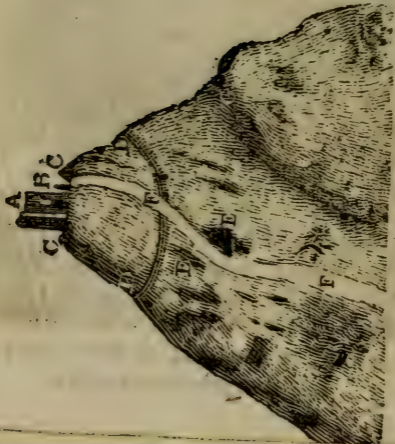
Besides these lines of circumvallation, which have been evidently intended for defence, there are several excavations in the hill, plainly artificial, the in-

DUN-O-DEER FIG: I.



GROUND PLAN OF THE HILL OF DUN-O-DEER, WITH THE FORTIFICATIONS ON IT.

Fig. 3.



NORTH VIEW OF THE HILL AND FORTIFICATIONS,

OF DUN-O-DEER; ABE:DEENSHIRE

Fig. 2.



NORTH VIEW OF THE HILL AND FORTIFICATIONS,

OF DUN-O-DEER; ABE:DEENSHIRE

tention of which is not quite so obvious; although I think it probable that they also were meant for defence. Two of these are found between the circular rampart to the east, and the vitrified wall at EE fig. 1. These hollows may be about five or six feet deep, with an easy and smooth descent to the bottom from all sides. The hill is, at this place, only of a gentle declivity, which would render the works more difficult to be defended than where it was more steep. This gives room to conjecture that these cavities might either be intended to screen the defendants on ordinary occasions, from the missile weapons of the enemy, by way of a guard-house, or to conceal a body of men by way of ambuscade. Upon examining the face of the hill, along the east side, where the ditch of circumvallation runs along a more level surface than at any other part of the hill, and where, of course, it was much more liable to be forced, four more excavations of the same kind are discovered, which are marked beyond CC; nor could I perceive any more of the same kind, on any other part of the hill, save two on the west side, marked GG fig. 1. & 2. and EE fig. 3. I leave others to conjecture what may have been the intention of these hollows. For although I do not forget that fame has placed gold in the bowels of this mountain, which might have induced some persons to dig in search of these imaginary treasures, yet there seems to be little reason to suppose that these cavities have been formed by that means, as they are greatly too wide for their depth, and as the rubbish that has been taken out of them, has been carried

clear away, which, it is natural to think, would have been tumbled carelessly down this hill from the mouth of the hole, had they been opened only in search of treasure.

It has been said, that these vitrified walls are nowhere to be found but where the rock on which they stand, is of the plumb-pudding kind ; but this I can assure you is a mistake. The hill of Tap-o-noath consists chiefly of small fragments of rotten granite ; that of Dun-o-deer is a mass of slaty iron gravel.

Many other vitrified fortifications have been discovered in Scotland, several of which I myself have examined ; but I shall here only specify one more, because of some peculiarities there observed, that tend to throw some farther light on the nature of these structures.

For many years past philosophers have been a-hunting after volcanoes in every part of the globe, and the slightest appearance of vitrified matter has been by many accounted the most undoubted proof of a volcanic origin. Hence a general prejudice prevails among those who have not examined these structures themselves, that their origin can only be attributed to that cause. I have already mentioned several circumstances, that, to the intelligent reader, will afford full conviction that these can only have been works of art ; but one circumstance, which affords a yet clearer proof of it than any of those already adduced, I had occasion to observe at the hill of *Finhaven*, in the shire of Angus, about six miles north from the town of Forfar ; on the top of which

there are the remains of an extensive fortification of this sort.

Here, as usual, the vitrified wall surrounds a level area on the top of the hill, running all round in an irregular form, so as to be every where on the edge of the precipice of the hill. Nothing uncommon is discoverable in the appearance of the walls, unless in one place, where the farmer, who occupies the hill and the fields around it, had opened up a free stone quarry, which he had accidentally discovered on the side of the hill near to the top of it, out of which he dug free stone for the purpose of inclosing his farm. In pursuing the course of the quarry, he came at length to undermine the foundations of the wall, when part of it tumbled down, and laid open the internal structure of that wall, which exhibited phenomena considerably different from any I had hitherto observed.

That part of the vitrified wall which remained there, when I visited it in the year 1788, consisted of irregular *horizontal* streaks, I cannot call them strata, of vitrified matter, and unvitrified stone, intermingled alternately between one another. These vitrified streaks were, as I said, irregular, and had evidently been produced by some cause that acted by fits and starts, and had no connection with the nature of the materials of which the wall had been made, as this consisted of a congeries of stones, of various sorts and sizes, that had been carelessly thrown together, that were evidently of the same nature in the parts that were vitrified, and in those that were only more or less scorched. Sometimes one part of

a stone was entirely vitrified, and another part of it unvitrified through every part of the wall.

This phenomenon most clearly proves, that the vitrification itself was not a volcanic production, but a work of art. And the free stone quarry, below the foundation of the wall, is the clearest demonstration, that the hill itself on which the fort stands, is not formed by a volcano; for free stone has never yet, that I know of, been suspected to be of a volcanic origin.

The appearance of the heart of this broken down wall, so exactly resembled that of a lime kiln I once saw, that had been in part vitrified during the burning of it, that it immediately occurred to me, that the phenomena in both cases might be attributed to a similar cause.—In the lime kiln, the lime stone being very much mixed with sand, and consequently very vitrescible, there were irregular horizontal layers, or streaks of vitrified matter, with spaces more or less between, in which some part of the stone had not been so much burnt as to be capable of falling down into lime, with the addition of water, while other parts of it fell down into lime, so that it remained a mixed mass, exactly resembling the other.

The cause of this phenomenon in the lime kiln, we well know was the irregularity in the force of the winds that prevailed during the time the kiln was burning. When the wind was very high, it acted as a bellows upon the fuel put among the stones for the purpose of calcining them, and by consequence, it burnt then with so much force as to

vitrify the whole mass that was on fire at the time ; but as only a small part of the fuel in a lime kiln is on fire at one time, the fire ascending gradually as the fuel is consumed, from the bottom to the top, if the weather was calm the day after a high wind, the fuel burnt them much more slowly ; so that the part of the stone immediately above the vitrified layer was not sufficiently burned. Thus it happened that the irregularity of the weather produced the disagreeable effects already described. In like manner might the fuel that was applied for the purpose of vitrifying these walls, be alternately blown up into a melting flame, by the force of a high wind one day, and suffered to burn slowly during a succeeding calm day, or more, so as to act then with so little force upon the stones, as not to melt them at all. According to this hypothesis, it would seem probable that the fuel had been here intermixed with the stones in building the wall, which does not seem to have been the case with any of the others I observed. But on this head, the facts are not so clear as to enable us to speak with certainty : probable conjecture is all that can be here offered.

On the whole, respecting these structures, the only particular that seems to be with undeniable certainty ascertained is, that they are not volcanic productions, but clearly works of art, that have been calculated for some sort of defence against the attacks of assailing foes.

J. A.

GRAMMATICAL DISQUISITIONS.

Continued from p. 245.

Of CASES, and particularly of that peculiarity in the English language which has been usually called the genitive case.

To give an idea of what is meant by CASE to a mere English reader is not very easy. He will observe that nouns may be considered as connected with the different objects that can affect them, in a great many points of view. A MAN may walk *to* or *from* a place, he may be placed *above* or *below* it, he may go *before* or *behind* another, he may talk *of*, he may converse *with*, he may be affected *by* another man. If we could suppose that the noun had a particular variation to denote each of these relations, and all the others of the same kind that can occur, these variations would be called CASES.

Merely from the announcing of these particulars, it will be obvious to the most superficial observer, that this peculiarity of language cannot be deemed essential. It is indeed so little necessary that many languages have no variation whatever respecting this particular; nor is there any language that has perhaps a tenth part of the variations of this kind, in other words CASES, that would be required. Yet so much are we attached to the practice that has been incidentally adopted by the Greeks or Latins, that most of our grammars continue to enumerate the CASE as an essential variation of the noun.

Wherever a partiality of this kind prevails, trifles are often magnified into matters of importance; and subjects which would be plain of themselves, if not warped by system, become the cause of long and intricate discussions. On this principle it has happened that our grammarians, however much they may differ as to other particulars, have all concurred in acknowledging that the English nouns admit of a particular inflection, which they in general have denominated a *genitive case*, or at least a particular *case* of the English noun. I doubt if this distinction is well-founded, for the following reasons.

For though it be allowed that in the English language, there is a certain class of words, evidently derived from nouns by a particular inflection, which words have the same meaning, in certain circumstances, as the genitive case of the Latins, such as *John's staff*, and *William's house*; in which phrases the words *John's* and *William's* are equivalent to the phrases *of John* or *of William*; and as the preposition *of*, in English, is in general the translation of the Latin genitive, it has been concluded that, as that preposition can be suppressed, and the same meaning conveyed by adding to the noun an apostrophised 's, that this forms a true and genuine inflected genitive case.

Dr Lowth, however, sensible of the difficulties that accompany this hypothesis, has hesitated about adopting the phrase *genitive*, and wishes rather to call it the *possessive case*; but this rather tends to augment instead of removing the difficulties, as I shall have occasion to show in the sequel.

1st. On the hypothesis that the particular class of words above named are real inflected genitives, it would be difficult to assign a reason why one class of English nouns should admit of this peculiar inflection and not the whole. In those languages which admit of cases in general we find no such distinction; but in English, the words *holiness, significance, dependance, diligence, exposure, numbness, idleness, chillness, enticement, arrangement, intricacy, discordancy*, and thousands of others, amounting perhaps to nearly one half the nouns in the language, admit not of any inflected genitive at all. Whence, it might be asked, arises this peculiarity? I shall have occasion to solve this difficulty in a future part of this essay, though it seems to be impossible to solve it on the fore mentioned hypothesis.

2d. If there be no other reason for calling the particular class of English words here mentioned, the genitive case of the nouns from which they are obviously derived, but merely that they have in general the same sense as the noun, without variation, with the word *of* prefixed to them, we shall find that many other words have a claim to be admitted into the class of English genitives besides those usually ranked in this class. Indeed the words having that genitive signification *, (and the same might be said

* I beg the reader will not here think that I adopt as my own, the ideas given in the text. I am fully sensible of the impropriety, to express it in no stronger language, of forming our idea of *cases* in the manner here explained, I only mean to give a candid representation of the mode of reasoning that has been adopted by English grammarians in general on this subject; and I hope it will be found that I do it very fairly in the text.

of the possessive) are so numerous, and assume so many different forms, that it would be a laborious task to enumerate the whole. I here only offer a specimen of a few.

The following words assume this genitive signification without any change at all of the noun: *marriage-contract, spade-shaft, gun-barrel, mill-wheel, hat-band, sword-blade, church-yard, day-break, cart-load, doomsday-book*; to which might be added many others.

Not essentially different in form from these, with a similar genitive signification, are the words, *ship-builder, candle-maker, watch-maker, sugar-baker, soap-boiler*, and others of the same class.

It appears under a different form in the word *French-man, English-man, Scots-man, &c.*

Another variety of this class are the words *Highlander, Lowlander, Londoner, Commoner, Laplander.*

Still more different in form, but with the same genitive signification it appears in the words *Dane, Russ, Swede, &c.*; and in *Lombard, Spaniard, Savoyard*; as also, *Italian, Biscayan, German, Persian*; and in *Genevese, Japanese, Chinese, Turk, Jew, Samoyed, Levite, Jacobite, Barnabite, cum multis aliis.*

3d. Our grammarians, who have in some instances so readily bestowed the name of *genitives* on a particular class of words, derived from some of our nouns by one mode of inflection, and refused to give that name to other words derived from our nouns by any other inflection, have, in other cases, banished, from the rank of nouns entirely, other words which have a similar genitive signification, that are de-

rived from our nouns by another mode of inflection; calling them, not nouns, but adjectives. Of this kind are some of the words above enumerated; as also the words *brazen, wooden, golden, &c.* which signify nearly the same thing as *of gold, of brass, of wood.* Thus, a *golden crown,* is equivalent to a *crown of gold;* a *brazen trumpet* to a *trumpet of brass;* a *wooden mallet* to a *mallet of wood.* If the reason usually assigned be sufficient to constitute a genitive, it would be difficult to show why this class should not be intitled to the same denomination*.

4th. If our grammarians have denominated certain words adjectives, which, according to their own mode of reasoning should have been called genitives, so they have ranked as *pronouns* other words, which ought, with still greater propriety, to have been called genitives. The words *my, thy, our, your, their, mine, thine, ours, yours, theirs, his, her, hers, its, and theirs,* are always ranged in the list of *pronouns;* though it is plain they bear exactly the same relation to the original pronouns from which they are derived, as that variation of the noun which has been called a genitive, bears to the noun from which *it* has been derived. Thus, supposing John to be the speaker, who says, in the first person, *my house,* this phrase is of the same import as if he had said *the house of me;* and differs not in the smallest degree from the phrase *John's house,* if it had been expressed in the third person by another speaker. For

* I must again repeat it that I do not contend that any of these are *genitives,* I mean only to show the impropriety of ever having adopted that term, in any case, in the English language.

both these phrases in this case would mean *the house of or belonging to John*. The same reasoning will apply to all the words above enumerated, and it will, upon investigation, be found, that they have all the same relation to their respective pronouns, as the variation of the noun, which gave rise to these speculations, has to the original noun from which it is derived; though they have not been dignified with the name of genitives.

For the circumstances that constitute the difference between *my* and *mine*, *thy* and *thine*, *our* and *ours*, &c. it is not properly our business here to inquire; nor yet to show the exact similarity in power of the supposed inflected English genitive to both these classes of words. This may with more propriety be done on some future occasion, in a separate dissertation on that subject*.

5th. If the English words which gave rise to these remarks deserve the name of genitives, merely because in some cases they are equivalent in signification to the genitive case of the Latins, we ought, by the same mode of reasoning, to allow that some English nouns admit of a dative or ablative case, as some words will be found that admit of a dative, and many more of an ablative signification. Thus, a *mill horse* means a horse for turning a mill; a *horse mill*, a mill to be driven by horses; a *hand saw* is a *saw to be used*

* This I shall do in an early number of the Bee, as, from an analysis of the class of words here specified, much light will be thrown upon a very important part of our language, which has not hitherto attracted the notice of philologists so much as it deserves. Indeed had it not been to pave the way for that dissertation, the present essay, as much less interesting, would have been suppressed.

by the hand ; a table knife, a *knife to be used at table*. To the same class belong *watch-chain, pen knife, tea spoon, slop bason, hand kerchief*, and many others which it would be tedious to enumerate ; and which would have an equal claim to the titles of ablatives, as those formerly mentioned have to that of genitives*.

It has been already remarked that Dr Lowth calls this variation of our noun a *possessive case*, and the greatest part of our grammarians term the pronouns above named, *possessive pronouns*. As to the term *possessive case*, if it should be adopted, it gives an idea of *cases*, altogether different from that which has been ever admitted among ancient grammarians, and would lead to conclusions that would produce the greatest confusion in grammatical speculations. There is no doubt, it is true, but that many of the words of this class indicate possession, as well as the words above enumerated, that have been called *possessive adjectives*; but it is not clear that either the one is entitled, in strict propriety, to the name of *adjectives*, or the other to that of *cases*. If we should admit this class of words to the rank of a particular *case*, we shall find other words derived from our nouns by other inflections that would have an equal claim to the same honour. Thus *Johnsoniana* is a word derived from Johnson by a peculiar inflection ; and as it implies a collection, we should call it the *collective case*. Even Johnson itself is a word derived from John by a par-

* Once more I must request the reader to remember that I here only reason for the sake of analogy. I by no means contend that any of these could properly be called cases.

ticular inflection denoting filiation, we should therefore call it the *filiative case*. *Cumberland*, and others of this kind, might be called words in the *territorial case*; *Londoner*, *Higblander*, would constitute other cases. In short, the variety of cases we should be under the necessity of adopting would be so great, as even to prevent a possibility of inventing names for them all; and would introduce a mode of *casation*, if I may adopt that word, so entirely different from any thing that has ever been in use, in any language, as could only prove the source of perplexity and confusion.

6th. If, however, our predeliction for the word *case*, is such, that we must at any rate adopt it with regard to any of the classes of words above enumerated, I should think they have a better title to that of *nominatives* than to that of any other *case*. My reasons for this opinion are,

In the *first* place, that, in all cases, the variation of our noun that has been called the inflected genitive, occupies the same place as a nominative. In the phrase *James's house is stately*, there is no other nominative to the verb *is*, but *James's house*: for it is evident that the word *house*, taken by itself, cannot be the nominative, as it can only make a complete sense when united with *James's*. Both together, therefore, form a true nominative. In like manner, in the phrase the *band-saw cuts well*, *band-saw* is the only nominative to the verb *cuts*; and the same might be said of all the others. I must here, however, add, that as no distinction takes place between the form of the nominative and accu-

sative of English nouns ; so this class of nominatives, like all others, becomes accusatives also, merely by a change of their position with respect to the verb.

In the *next* place, this class of nouns can be regularly declined, through all their cases, by the aid of prepositions, in the same manner as any other nouns in the English language, as thus :

Nominative,	John's house,	a hand saw.
Genitive,	of John's house,	of a hand saw.
Dative,	to John's house,	to a hand saw.
Ablative,	by John's house,	by a hand saw.

And in the same manner may be declined every other noun belonging to this class of words.

Lastly, they are always the name of some particular object, which they denote as distinctly as any other noun whatever ; and, therefore, many words of this class find a place in every dictionary as proper names. The following are a few words of this class that have been selected from Johnson's dictionary, *air-pump, ballad-singer, bee-flour, bear's breach, bird's foot, bishop-weed, blind-man's buff, bristol-stone, butcher's broom, cat's eye, Charles's wain, cheese-monger, church-yard, day-light, dial-plate, &c.* If *Charles's wain* and *bishop-weed*, be admitted as nouns, properly so called, under what pretext can we refuse the same name to *Saint Paul's church-yard*, the *queen's house*, or any other word, of which these genitives, as they have been called, form a part ?

That the phrases into which this class of words enter, are names in the strict and proper sense of the word, farther appears from this circumstance, that the names thus formed, and simple uncompounded

names, may be easily interchanged for one another; or, that an object which in one language has a simple name appropriated to it, may assume, in another language, one of these inflected genitives as a constituent part of that name. The Pantheon, in the language of ancient Rome, was the name of a particular building well known in that city. The same building still remains, and has been known by two different names, *viz.* the *rotundo*, alluding to its form; but it is now more commonly called the *church of all saints*. As these are only different names for the same object, they must be accounted words of the same class; that is, nouns properly so called.

In the same manner *scalpulum*, in Latin, is the name of a particular implement, which we call in English a *pen-knife*, both which we must equally rank in the class of nouns. Again, in English we denote a certain part of the human body by the word *toe*, which in French is called *finger of the foot*. And that part of dress which we call a *glove*, is, in the German language, called *shoe for the hand*. Who doubts, but as these different phrases convey the same idea to the mind of the persons who hear them used in either language, they are all words belonging to the same general class? Each of them is evidently the *proper name* of a particular object, and as such must be classed among nouns, each of which nouns admit of the same construction as other nouns in the same language.

It will perhaps be objected, that those words which have been called English genitives, differ not in this respect from the genitive of the Latins, in certain

circumstances. This will be granted; but the conclusion is not thereby invalidated.

It will be farther said, that in Latin, as well as in English, these genitives only assume the appearance of performing the function of a nominative, *when they are joined with another noun*. This also will be admitted without altering the conclusion.

It may be farther objected, that *adjectives*, in some cases, are so joined with other nouns, as to become a part of the *proper name* of certain objects; such as *long-shanks, strong-bow, red-head*, and others. This also is admitted. And what are we hence to infer? merely that *names, properly so called*, are often compounded of different elements, which, as in chemistry, coalesce, and form a new mixt, differing in qualities from the simple elements of which they are compounded: and if some of these elements can never be exhibited in a separate form, there will be nothing new in this circumstance*.

From the foregoing considerations, I presume it will be admitted, that that class of English words which has been usually called inflected genitives, are only, *in some particular cases*, equivalent in sense to the Latin genitive case: that many other words have the same genitive, or, according to Dr Lowth, *possessive* signification, which never have been called either *genitives*, or *possessives*: that other words are found in abundance, which have a *dative* or *ablative* signification, though they have never obtained the

* The termination, *er*, is a particular case of this kind, *Londoner, singer, maker*.

name of *datives* nor *ablatives*: that if the meaning only of words were to constitute different classes of cases, we would not only depart in some measure from the idea of cases in ancient languages, but would be under the necessity of creating an endless variety of cases that never had hitherto been thought of: and that all these different classes of words perform in language the office, and have the power, of nouns, strictly so called; and are liable to all the changes that other nouns in our language admit of. From whence I infer, that they are neither *genitives*, nor *ablatives*, nor *adjectives*, strictly so called, nor belong to any of those various classes of words in which they have hitherto been ranged; but that they form a distinct class of words by themselves, the properties and uses of which have not been hitherto distinctly ascertained. The remaining part of this essay will be appropriated to a more particular investigation of this subject.

To be continued.

DETACHED REMARK.

THE ordinary attacks of calumny and detraction ought to be looked upon as sparks, which, if you do not blow them will go out of themselves. This was an observation of the great Herman Eøerhaave's, and nothing can be more worthy of our attention and practice.

POETRY.

AN ODE TO FANCY.

For the Bee.

O WAFT me, Fancy, when you fly
To tinge with gold some azure sky;
Or when you roam through Albion's isle,
O lead me where the muses smile;
Lead me to Shakespeare's sacred tomb,
Where violets breathe, and roses bloom;
Let us the seasons charms survey,
Where nature paints the devious way;
Along the winding riv'let's side
Where Shenstone once was wont to glide;
And pensive stand by mossy cell,
Where fays and fairies us'd to dwell;
Or on the banks of Leven's shore,
The early fate of Bruce deplore;
And listen to the voice of spring,
When thy lov'd Logan us'd to sing;
While deep embow'd in Lomond's vale,
The cuckow carelefs chaunts his tale.
In Thomson's grove by Tweed's pure stream,
You wrapt me in a mystic dream,
Which mem'ry pleas'd shall oft renew,
And fondly ev'ry trace pursue:
I saw, with wonder and surprise,
Amidst a grove, an altar rise;
A spiral wreath of Mantuan bay
Entwin'd it round; and on it lay
The fruits and flow'rs of ev'ry field,
And all that earth and seas cou'd yield;
While radiant forms descending came,
And there ador'd great nature's name;
Some of those forms I instant knew,
While others scarce appear'd to view,
At distance gliding through the space,
Like misty forms in solemn pace.
The muses led the blind along,
First fathers of the vocal throng;
I heard the early Spartan fife,
Wake martial music into life;
And Ossian's harp the sounds prolong,
And Milton tune his wondrous song.
Then came a bard whom you had form'd,
Whom genius with her wings adorn'd,
Wildly to soar aloft on high,
And in the whirlwind's breath to fly;

To him you give your magic wand,
 Each human passion to command;
 To harrow up the soul with fear,
 Or to dissolve it in a tear.

Next him another form drew near,
 With all the beauties of the year,
 Depending graceful in his train,
 With which his genius seem'd to reign;
 His voice was music in the spring,
 And summer taught his tongue to sing;
 When pensive Autumn's sighing breeze,
 Blew murmur'ing through the leafless trees,
 Congenial were his melting lays,
 He warbled sweet in nature's praise,
 Till she, approving, own'd the pair
 To be her chief, her fav'rite care;
 Loud thunders roll'd, the altar blaz'd,
 Then through the clouds her sons she rais'd;
 The fleeting vision fled away,
 And left me on Tweedside to stray. R. V.

WHAT IS LOVE ?

FROM AN OLD COLLECTION OF MANUSCRIPT POEMS,
 COMMUNICATED BY A FRIEND.

For the Bev.

Love's no irregular desire,
 No sudden start of raging pain;
 Which in a moment grows a fire,
 And in a moment cools again.

Not found in the sad sonneteer
 Who sings of darts, despair, and chains;
 And by whose dismal voice 'tis clear,
 He wants not sense alone,—but brains.

Nor is it center'd in the beau,
 Who sighs by rule,—in order dies;
 Whose sense appears in outward show,
 And want of wit by dress supplies.

No;—love is something so divine,
 Description would but make it less;
 'Tis what I know, but can't define,
 'Tis what I feel, but can't express.

MARTIAL, LIB. ii. EPIG. 8. IMITATED.

For the Bee.

Ir my sagacious reader meets
 A couplet careless or obscure ;
 Or judges these immortal sheets
 From injur'd syntax hardly pure :
 Such errors never can be mine ;
 For learning you may give me credit :
I spelt and pointed every line ;
 Each bull,—the bungling printer made it :

But if you hint that I myself,
 Might into Gothic blunders fall,
 You're a profane irreverend elf ;
 I swear you have no taste at all.

And if you still pursue me close,
 With flaws I can't deny nor hide ;
 Your own transcendent page expose,
 And then I'll mortify your pride. BOMBARDMENT.

MARTIAL, LIB. ii. EPIG. 4. IMITATED.

For the Bee.

My booksellers can ne'er get done
 With wonder I have been so lucky,
 My birth-day odes are just begun
 A tenth edition at Kentucky.

The Chickesaws and Cherokees,
 No longer rush in cut-throat columns,
 But quit their pipes and scalping fees,
 To ponder these prodigious volumes.

The factor vending beads and shot,
 At Hudson's bay who thaws his shins ;
 The negro driver who minds not
 What Cortez suffers for his sins :

The centry on Gibraltar's rock,
 The pilot founder'd at its bottom,
 Of former bards if e'er they spoke,
 Have now, my fame be thank'd, forgot them.

THUNDERPROOF.

THOUGHTS ON THE PRESENT COMMOTIONS IN ROSS-SHIRE.

SOME popular commotions have of late taken place in Ross-shire, which demand the most serious attention of government, as they proceed neither from wantonness and turbulence of disposition among the people, as some will represent, nor from a cruel and oppressive disposition in landlords, as most people here seem willing to believe. They proceed entirely from a defective system of legislation that I have often been obliged to reprehend on former occasions, which has been adopted by our government, and persisted in, merely from the men in administration being unacquainted with the real state of these countries, and unconscious of the exceeding pernicious tendency of those measures, to a part of the country, which, if under proper management, would soon be productive of a high revenue to the state, instead of being a heavy deduction from it, as it is at present;—a part of a country which in some future day will be the seat of industry, of arts, of wealth, and national resources, when the other parts of it shall be sunk in vicious debility and dissipation.

It is long since I pointed out the impossibility of avoiding that very distress which now exists;—what I then said was disregarded;—what I shall now add may perhaps be disregarded also; but the urgency of the case seems to give room to hope it may perhaps in some measure be adverted to. If it should not, I shall at least have the conscious recollection of having done what was incumbent on me, to alleviate the distresses of the country. At a future period perhaps it may be reverted to.

The immediate cause of the present commotions, is the letting of some extensive farms in Rosshire for the purpose of breeding sheep, instead of having them parcelled out into small allotments among a great number of poor families, who had no means of stocking these so as to avail themselves of their natural produce, nor any other means of subsistence than that which they derived from the miserable culture of a small part of the ground, for which they were able to pay next to no rent whatever.

That I am by no means exaggerating on this occasion will appear from the following well known fact. The late Sir John Lockhart Ross of Balnagowan, having resolved to convert a small part of his estate into a sheep farm, sent for some skilful sheep farmers to go over it, and to pitch upon a place proper for that purpose. They made choice of a vale, with hills on each side, to a great extent. They computed that this farm would be sufficient to maintain throughout the whole year, *five thousand* head of sheep; but they advised him to understock it at first, till he saw how they succeeded; and therefore proposed he should put no more than *three thousand* upon it at first. At the most moderate computation any sheep rearer would have been willing to pay him *three hundred* pounds rent for this farm. On inquiry he found that it was at that time occupied by thirty-two families, with six persons in each family, on an average, who, altogether, paid to him *thirty-one pounds, ten shillings* of rent; and this rent was supposed to be so very high that these poor persons paid it with great difficulty, and could not afford to give him twenty shillings more, had he exacted it with ever so much rigour. The humane landlord foreseeing that these people would be reduced to misery if he carried his plan into execution, desisted from it, and made choice of another district for that purpose. A similar

conduct, in many instances, that consist with my own knowledge, has been pursued on like occasions by the duke of Argyll, the duke of Gordon, and many private persons, owners of lands in the Highlands; yet these men are now indiscriminately branded by ignorant speculators, as hard hearted oppressors, who grind the faces of the poor to such a degree as to deserve the detestation of all good men. That there are no proprietors of land in the Highlands, who, take advantage of the power that the state of the country confers upon them, to abuse it, will not be maintained by any person of sense. But that these instances are as rare among them, as among any other set of men, who have an equal chance of impunity, I will boldly maintain as a fact. I myself, who have no predeliction for the gentlemen of the Highlands, more than others, am clearly convinced, that there are as many, if not more, acts of disinterested generosity, practised among this set of men, from humane and patriotic considerations, as among any others in this island. But where is the man, who, as a body, will refuse to add to their income by fair means, when the power of doing it is so easy? Can any person of sense say, that in order to provide for some people, who, in their present state can only be accounted unprofitable cumberers of the ground, a man should sacrifice the interests of his family, and diminish the income of the kingdom, by preventing the improvement of his estate, merely because some ill judged laws prevent those persons who have been accidentally placed on his estate, from being able to support themselves by their own industry? If the state condemns them to unavailing poverty, why should the burden of supporting them lie exclusively upon these proprietors? Let those who are loudest in their clamours, consider for a moment, and they will see that political evils, which owe their ex-

istence to defective legislation, and not to the fault of individuals, ought to be redressed by the state ; and that if the people must be supported by charity, that charity should flow from the purses of the community at large, and not from the pocket of individuals. There can be no doubt that, in the instance above given, the 169 useless persons on the estate of Balnagowan, had in strict justice, an equal claim on any manufacturer or merchant in Britain, in proportion to their income, as on Sir John Lockhart Ross for their support.

Let us therefore turn our attention from the gentlemen proprietors of lands in the Highlands, and acquit them of blame on the present occasion, that we may be enabled the more distinctly to discriminate the real causes of this political malady, which, if not removed, threatens to be attended with very disagreeable consequences to the community.

People dispersed in separate hamlets, in a wide country, without market towns or roads, have no means of converting their industry to profit. If they are able to rear a scanty subsistence for themselves from the soil, they can scarcely in any case do more ; and where the climate is indifferent, even that scanty subsistence must be precarious. They have no inducement to rear more than enough in ordinary years, because they could not find a market for it. For the same reason they cannot convert their industry in any other way to profit. Perpetual poverty, therefore, must be the lot of these people ; and of course they can neither afford to pay an adequate rent to the proprietor for the land they possess, nor pay any taxes so as to augment the revenue of the state *. Could any

* The following account exhibits such a true picture of the state of the Highlands, and the inconveniences to which the inhabitants of these countries are subjected in the progress of industry, that I with pleasure insert

inquiry better deserve the attention of the legislature of an enlightened country than to try to discover the means of remedying this great political malady, and rendering the people happy and useful members of the community*.

it. It is written by the reverend Mr J. Anderson, minister of Kingussie in Invernessshire.

“There is no village, either in the parish, or in the whole district. This inconvenience is severely felt. Not only the luxuries, but even many of the common necessaries of life, must be sent for to the distance of more than forty miles. Tradesmen have no fixed place of residence where they can be resorted to. There is no center for the little traffic or barter requisite to be carried on in an inland country. The wool that could have been manufactured in that place, must be sent by a long land carriage to buyers invited from another kingdom. The flax that might have proved a source of wealth to both proprietor and tacksman, has been neglected, because skilful people are not collected together into one close neighbourhood, to carry it through the whole process.”

The above is extracted from Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland, vol. iii. p. 38, a book that will do honour to the age in which it was written, and lay the foundation, it is hoped, of many essential improvements in Scotland. To the above allow me to add, that even the carcase of the sheep in these situations, is of little value. What could a poor man make of ten or twelve fat sheep, if he had them? All his neighbours have mutton of their own, and no buying butcher is to be found within perhaps an hundred miles of him. Unless a flock of several thousands be kept together, these cannot afford carrying them to market. How are rents in these circumstances to be paid? How can taxes be paid, or collected?

* Too much praise cannot be bestowed upon Mr Dale of Glasgow, for his great and patriotic exertion, in relieving a number of his unhappy countrymen, from a severe calamity in which they found themselves involved at the time. Nothing but a generous philanthropic ardour, which despises to rest on little inconveniences, could have suggested the great idea.—The same philanthropy also suggested the noble idea of forming the society for bringing persons from the Highlands, to settle in the manufacturing districts of this country. Yet, however much I may honour the contriver of this beneficent plan, a regard for truth forbids me to say, that any very extensive benefit can be expected to result from it. Be-

Nature has conferred on that country one, and only one, great and obvious source of industry and wealth; but that is truly a great one. Yet, with a blindness, to say no

beneficence and philanthropy may influence some minds continually; but, in general, that regard to one's own family and connections, which prudence suggests, will prevent them, when unconnected with interest, from producing powerful effects. Unless, therefore, it were clear, that the persons who shall engage in this enterprise, would be immediately and clearly gainers by it, I fear little reliance can be had upon the continuance of that ardour. This, however, my own experience in life forbids me to expect. If children only could be brought from these countries, before they had acquired confirmed habits of any sort, and put under the management of persons, who would conscientiously discharge the duty of parents to them, at any great manufacture, the benefits to the undertaker would not be equivocal; but where can we expect to find a number of master manufacturers, who will bestow the attention and care that this requires? And if this attention be withdrawn, perhaps no profit will be drawn by the undertaker from this enterprise, nor benefit result to the state.

But if there be doubts as to the expediency of bringing *young* persons in the lowest ranks of life, from one part of the country to another, there is not, I am afraid, any room to doubt, that neither pleasure nor profit can result to the undertakers, by bringing those at a more advanced period of life from one part of the country to another. We all know the force of habits on man, and the difficulty with which he shakes them off. Those, therefore, who have grown old without being in the habit of constant exertions of any sort, find it a very difficult matter to fall into that line of life. If, however, they come *of their own accord*, convinced that they can have no reliance on any being under heaven for their subsistence, but themselves, they will, in these circumstances, do wonders; and when the earnings of industry have been experienced, we have all seen with what ardour great exertions have been made. But where one is induced to leave his home, *under the patronage of another*, the case is totally different. I have had occasion myself to experience this, and I have always found, that if you take a dependant from one part of the country to another, one of two things is the consequence. Either he thinks himself superior to those with whom he is to associate, and he becomes insolent, overbearing and extravagant in his demands. In his mind, his services can never be sufficiently paid, and eternal discord and dissatisfaction is the consequence, or, he thinks you who have carried him from his native home, have

worse, that deserves the severest reprehension, our legislature has not only neglected to avail itself of that circumstance; but has even contrived, by cruel and absurd laws, totally to preclude the people from the possibility of availing themselves of those advantages which nature had conferred upon them; and have converted that which ought to have been a blessing to these realms, into a source of distress and oppression to the people.

Those who have been long readers of the Bee, will easily perceive I here allude to the fisheries, and the salt laws respecting them, [see Bee vol. viii. p. 192.] Had the people been left at perfect freedom to catch and cure fish, and trade in them either at home or abroad, without restraint, they would naturally of themselves have established fishing towns and villages along the coasts, in which they could have provided for themselves a subsistence by industry and traffic. By the money they would thus have acquired, they would have become buyers of the natural productions of the internal parts of the country. Roads to these markets would then have become necessary; and would of course have been formed. These roads being once made, manufacturers would have gradually sat down in the internal parts of the country, to

contracted a debt, which you never can discharge:—he becomes lazy, indolent, careless of what he does, but constantly craving for more, more. In short his demands are insatiable, and his exertions nothing. To a generous mind, this is most distressing; and he submits to it as to a grievous burden he knows not how to remove. To one of less delicacy, a total breach follows, and clamorous complaints of cruelty and injustice are the unavoidable consequences.

From these considerations I am convinced, the humane exertions of this beneficent society cannot afford any radical and permanent relief to the people of that country; and that in spite of their exertions, if nothing more effectual can be done, considerable emigrations from the north of Scotland, must still continue to prevail.

avail themselves of the infinite advantages they could derive from the great falls of many streams of water, for turning machinery. These, again, would have consumed in manufactures, the wool that ought to be, and inevitably will be, in time, the chief production of these mountains, and would themselves consume the carcasses. Thus might the country support ten times the number of inhabitants it has at present, without feeling any superfluity of people. The tenants would be at liberty to stock and manage their farms, in the most economical manner, without distressing any individuals. The proprietors would draw a fair and adequate rent for their lands, without being accused of oppression. And the state would derive an ample revenue, without distressing the inhabitants, from a numerous people, who at present exhaust, instead of augmenting the national treasure; while they are at the same time oppressed with the severity of revenue laws, that tend only to alienate their affections from government, instead of conciliating their good will.

These pleasing consequences would so plainly result from the abrogation of the salt laws alone; and they are so obvious to every person of sound sense, who is perfectly acquainted with the state of that country, though they will appear to be problematical to all those who have lived in a cultivated country, and formed their opinion of things from what they see around them, that I cannot help recurring to it again and again, even at the risk of being tedious. Well I know the time will come, when what I now say will be adverted to, though I much doubt it is not yet arrived. Yet such incidents as the present, which were long ago foreseen and mentioned, ought to tend to open the eyes of those who have the welfare of the people,—the prosperity of the country,—and the augmentation of its revenue at heart.

I have already said, see *Bee* vol. viii. p. 153. that I have been informed the minister is cordially disposed to free the nation from this cruel and oppressive tax; but I fear the eyes of the people are not yet sufficiently enlarged to be ready to afford him that firm support in carrying forward this measure, that he would require. I have not forgot the saying of a sensible foreigner: "Wo be to that minister, whose knowledge goes before that of the age in which he lives." These remarks are therefore rather intended for the people than the *premier*. If they shall unanimously require the repeal of this tax, not by tumultuous clamours, which, heaven avert! but by cordially concurring in agreeing to put some reasonable substitute of equal value to the state in its stead, there is no reason to fear that he will not give his assent to the same. If that, and the coast duties on coals should be removed, then would a door be opened for augmenting the prosperity of this kingdom, to a degree that neither we ourselves, nor foreign nations, can at present form an idea of. I shall venture, in a future paper, to throw out some hints on this truly interesting subject, in the hope that the public, by considering it with attention, will in time fall upon some unexceptionable device for attaining the objects in view.

HINTS TO THE GENEROUS PATRONS
AND LEARNED CORRESPONDENTS OF THE BEE.

For the Bee.

THE rapid advancement of Scotland in agriculture, manufactures, arts, sciences, polite literature, trade, and navigation, since the peace of Aix la Chapelle, has excited so great attention in political economists, and seems so striking an example of the benefit to be derived from the improvement of the soil in precedence to the establishment of manufactures, and from the general excitement of industry, arising from

connections formed with a generous, active, and industrious nation, to which it had been formerly hostile, deserves to become the subject of minute discussion by those rare spirits who know how to analyse the causes of the wealth and happiness of nations, and to connect the discussion with brilliant and entertaining remark and reflection.

I know of no method so likely to place such interesting disquisitions in a proper point of view, as the lives of those illustrious and worthy citizens who have contributed signally to the melioration or ornament of their native country; and among such I shall beg leave to suggest a few, whose lives might afford the description of the progress made in the various classes and departments of useful knowledge and art, during the present century.

Cockburn of Ormiston is an article under which every thing relating to the improved agriculture of East Lothian might be arranged, and under which due honour might be done to the memories of all his cotemporaries, who in Scotland have promoted the judicious culture of land; and this article should have for its decoration, portraits of Cockburn, lord Kaims, and others, whose characters come into the fore ground of the landscape.

In the line of manufactures, lord Milton, and the establishers of spirited works at Glasgow, Paisley, Aberdeen, Carron, and Leith, well deserve to be chronologically described, under such names of the principal subjects that may be most agreeable to the compilers.

In architecture, Sir William Bruce of Kinross is well worthy of the highest place, with a portrait, and an exact catalogue of all his works; and after discussing the elder Adam Milne, and others entitled to notice, to give a view of the introduction of a new taste in building, wherein the late earl of Marr's beautiful designs, and the

part he had in suggesting the plan of New Edinburgh; and other national designs, will fall to be mentioned and described. And lastly, under the article of Robert Adam, will arrange themselves every circumstance relating to the present state of civil architecture; as under that of general Roy every circumstance relating to military, wherein general Watson, the reverend Mr Bryce of Kirknewton, and others, will fall properly to be commemorated.

In the art of engraving, now rendered an object of commerce to the extent of more than L. 100,000 a-year to Britain, Sir Robert Strange will afford an article not only containing a list of his valuable works, but the present state of that beautiful art, not only in respect of ornament, but use, in the advancement of arts and sciences by diagrammatic elucidation.

The article of George Drummond, lord provost of Edinburgh, may contain almost every thing relating to the state of the flourishing city of Edinburgh, with its port of Leith, and call forth the remembrance and mention of useful citizens in the same station, who have followed out the laudable designs formed during the magistracy of Drummond.

In the improvement of useful arts, Messrs Smitoun and Watt, and above all the worthy Roebuck and Dale, will fall to be celebrated without encomiums, and by only enumerating the good consequences of their zeal and ingenuity. In the sciences, polite literature, and the other departments, which I now forbear to accompany with the designation of names, many will fall to be discussed; and I shall only subjoin at present, that without encomium or criticism, it will be best to state matters of fact, connected with the honour and prosperity of the

country, and leave the rest to the reflections of the reader.

These surely are noble and useful subjects to employ the leisure of my intelligent countrymen, and let me at least glory that they are numerous*.

“Hæ mihi erunt artes pacisque imponere morem.”

BIOGRAPHICUS.

EXPERIMENTS ON GYPSUM.

BY R. PROCTOR ANDERDON, OF HENLADE, SOMERSETSHIRE.

[From *Young's annals of agriculture.*]

Henlade, Dec. 28. 1791.

LAST spring I procured two hundred weight of alabaster, or gypsum, from a rock at Hurcott, near Somerton, in this county, at 2 s. 6 d. *per* hundred weight at the quarry, which I got beaten to powder with hammers, and ran it through a fine hair sieve, or cleansing range, and then through a malt mill, which was not injured by the operation; but to pulverise it on a large scale in this manner would be too expensive for the farmer's practice, if it were to be much used for a manure.

The two hundred weight produced about ten pecks in powder; a peck of powder weighed twenty-one pounds ten ounces. At the rate of six bushels to an acre, it

* The Editor will be much obliged to such of his readers as have had access to be well informed with respect to any of the above mentioned particulars, for such hints or memorials as they can furnish, particularly respecting Cockburn of Ormiston; and will be glad to know if there be any genuine portrait of him, and where it is to be found; as also of Sir William Bruce of Kinross; and any of the others of whom portraits have not been already engraved.

A head of lord Milton, from an original painting in the possession of Mr Macmillan, is now in the hands of the engraver, which will be accompanied by memoirs of that distinguished personage, by a gentleman to whom the Editor of the Bee lies under very particular obligations.

would be $1\frac{3}{8}$ oz. $\frac{3\frac{5}{8}1\frac{1}{2}}{4\frac{1}{8}}$ to a square yard; at that rate five hundred weight is sufficient for an acre, and forty-one pounds allowed for waste. The rough material at the quarry 12 s. 6 d. *per* acre; but there are rocks against the sea, in this county, near Minehead; in Devonshire, on the south coast, near Sydmouth; and most likely on the sea coast in most parts of the island, which may probably be come at on more easy terms. The difficulty will be, to reduce it to powder at a small expence, if it should be found answerable.

In April and May last, at different times in gentle rains, on five different places on a clayey soil, on a pasture laid down more than twenty years ago with rye-grass, I sowed in each place one peck of the powder; also one peck on sanfoin in its fifth year's growth; one peck on young oats; and one peck on spring vetches or tares; all at the rate of six bushels *per* acre, and it has had no apparent effect on either of those places.

But on the same day on which I sowed four pecks of the above experiments, *wiz.* April 13. I sowed $1\frac{3}{8}$ oz. of this flour of gypsum on a square yard of grass ground, where no stock goes, which was laid down sixteen or seventeen years ago, partly with Dutch *clover* seed. *There* (the soil an heavy loam,) from the middle of May to the end of June, when it was mown, the grass was greener than that around it. In the beginning of July, slight rains falling, it appeared greener, and by the end of August, the grass on that spot was not only greener, but thicker and higher, and the leaves of the Dutch clover broader than on the outsides of it. August the 31st it was mowed again, and the same appearances ensued and continued until the 10th of November, when it was mowed again. It is observable, that, at the time of sowing the gypsum powder, the wind blew S. E. and it is visible to an inch how far beyond the line, and from peg

to peg, the powder was blown towards the N. W. From hence I conclude, so far as my experiments go :

“ That on many plants, or in many soils, or both, gypsum powder will have no effect ; but that it has an effect on old clover in a loamy soil ; and that a greater effect may be reasonably expected from it, when applied to younger plants of the same sort or nature.”

I forgot to remark, that trying to boil a small portion of the powder over a wood fire, to prove its goodness, it got into a state of fusion, and admitted a straw to be thrust to the bottom of an iron pot (in which brimstone used to be melted,) which it would not admit of before it was put over the fire. It was then removed, and put over a stronger coal fire ; the appearance and the substance continued as nearly the same as could be ; the vessel in which it was put, became red hot.

I have about a peck of the powder left, which I shall be ready to try in the spring, in any manner you may recommend. Pray do you know any thing of the truth of the experiment of applying this powder to seed oats, steeped in water, by a farmer near Epping, last spring, of which there was an account in the public prints*?

I have ordered some pounds of chicory seed. I look hard in your annals for a plan of a threshing machine.

It gives me pleasure to observe your midland tour. I will not despair of seeing you again in the west ; but I despair of introducing you to such adventures as form the top society. Yours, &c. R. PROCTER ANDERDON.

A LETTER FROM ONE OF THE FRIENDS OF THE PEOPLE.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I HAD prepared for your Miscellany another paper in continuation of those I already sent to you ; but the late

* I am not informed of any such experiment. The experiment to be recommended, is for common broad clover.

transactions in France have made me suspend the farther prosecution of that subject for the present.

I fear these alarming incidents will not tend to make it a favourite subject with the people of Britain at this time.

I will be candid, and frankly own, that they have made a strong imprefion on my own mind: they have excited doubts about the propriety of adopting certain modes of conduct that did not appear liable to objection before; and till these doubts shall be removed I have thought proper to suspend my remarks.

I never was disposed to allow the suggestions of reason alone, unaided by experience, to have that weight which some others gladly have done; but the awful transactions now before our eyes, have inspired a respect in me for practices that have been sanctioned by *experience* that I did not formerly feel. I even feel a sort of dread at touching the parts of our establishment that appear to be evidently faulty, lest the fabric may be so deranged as to go to ruin:—and from my own feelings I judge of others.

I am induced to believe that the cause of freedom has received a deeper wound by the late transactions in France than it could have received from any other quarter. The tide of popular prejudice, without doubt, ran too high among a great many individuals, even in Britain, in favour of democratical principles; and one object of our association was to moderate that ardour. These transactions have given it a sudden check, and there is now reason to fear that the tide may take an opposite run; and if it should rise as high in support of the crown against the people, as it has already done on the opposite side, who can say what may be the consequences? I have thought that the writings of Paine and his associates had too rapid a circulation here; and I now prepare myself for an inundation of writings of an opposite tendency,

that will bear every thing before them for a time. Under the influence of this apprehended phrenzy, much mischief may be done. Pray heaven my fears may prove groundless! As a sincere friend to the human race I shall, in that case, deplore in secret, what I cannot perhaps effectually prevent.

Candour required me to make these acknowledgements to you, Sir, and to thank you for the readiness with which you inserted my remarks in your valuable Miscellany. I wish it success with all my heart. From what I have already observed of you, I have no doubt but you will preserve that steady and unbiassed conduct which a sincere desire to promote the welfare of society will naturally inspire. If ever a proper opportunity occurs, and not before, you shall hear farther from

London, }
Aug. 22. 1792. }

TIMOLEON.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I HAVE been long a lover of natural history, and a great admirer of Mr Weir's preparations of birds and fishes, which I am sorry to say I think in a great measure lost in this place, because unknown. I was therefore highly pleased with the notice you have taken of that elegant collection in the late number of the Bee. I could, however, have wished, that you had expressed the last sentence in a different manner; as it may by some be understood to convey an insinuation that I am convinced you yourself never intended. Mr Weir is a man of indefatigable assiduity in business, and only appropriates what time and attention I am certain he can well afford to spare, on the embellishment of this favourite object.

My design in writing this is merely to suggest a single hint, which I think, if diverted to, might prove grateful to Mr Weir, and useful to the public. Many individuals chauce at times to get some rare articles in the line of natural history, which they cannot properly preserve themselves for want of conveniencies, and every one who makes a collection must sometimes have duplicates of the same thing. Some ladies are curious in foreign birds; and rare animals are sometimes brought here:—when any of these die, were the carcasses, or other articles that can be easily spared, sent to Mr Weir with care, they would tend to augment this collection without expence to any one; and preserve for the use of the public, what would otherwise have been lost.

AN ADMIRER OF THE WORKS OF NATURE*.

* The Editor is much obliged to this correspondent for his correction. It is not men in easy circumstances, but nabobs from India who ought to sport their money in public services, without thoughts of private emolument.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 29. 1792.



SPANISH RAM.

SPAIN has, for about an hundred years past, supplied Britain, and the greatest part of Europe, with fine cloathing wool, without so much as an attempt having been made, in that time, to regain this once staple commodity of this island. Of late, by the patriotic exertions of Sir John Sinclair, a society has been established for endeavouring to regain the commerce of fine cloathing wool to Britain. And their exer-

tions have been crowned with greater success than there was any reason to expect. Wool, under the patronage of that society, has been already reared of so fine a staple as to be made into *superfine* cloth of the best quality; and there is every reason to believe, that wool of a much finer quality than has hitherto been here produced, will be obtained by a continued attention to this important object.

It was one of the first objects of the attention of the society, to obtain some of the best breeds of sheep that are known on the globe; and among these the Spanish breed was one of the chief. By the obliging liberality of *M. d'Aubenton* in France, some sheep of the Spanish breed that had been reared in France were obtained. Our gracious sovereign himself, who has for some years past propagated the Spanish race of sheep in England, has, with the most obliging condescension, presented the society with a Spanish ram; and, from the liberality of Lord Sheffield, they have obtained a considerable number of a mixed breed from South Down ewes crossed with a Spanish ram. The wool of all these sheep has evidently not grown worse since they came into the possession of the society; and it is the opinion of the best judges who have examined it, that it is both finer and softer than before: but of this we have not yet unequivocal proofs.

Measures have been adopted for obtaining some of the finest sheep of the Spanish breed. And the society have reason to believe, that some of the Thibet breed of sheep are now on their passage from India.

In the mean while, to satisfy the curiosity of the public, the portrait of a Spanish ram is given above. The horns are the most striking peculiarity of this breed of sheep, which are very faithfully represented in the plate. The remarkable closeness of the fleece, which is peculiarly striking to those who have seen them, though not so obvious from the drawing, is the next and most valuable peculiarity of this breed. The sheep are, in other respects, firm and healthy. The other peculiars of the breed will be best known by the following comparative trials made by Arthur Young, esq; who also obtained a ram in a present from his majesty.

Account of Don, a Merino ram, extracted from the Annals of Agriculture.

“ How many millions of men are there that would smile, if I were to mention the sovereign of a great empire, giving a ram to a farmer, as an event that merited the attention of mankind ! The world is full of those who consider military glory as the proper object of the ambition of monarchs ; who measure regal merit by the millions that are slaughtered ; by the public robbery and plunder, that are dignified by the titles of victory and conquest ; and who look down on every exertion of peace and tranquillity as unbecoming those who aim at the epithet *great*, and unworthy the aim of men that are born the masters of the globe.

“ My ideas are cast in a very different mould ; and I believe the period is advancing, with accelerated

pace, that shall exhibit characters in a light totally new; that shall rather brand than exalt the virtues hitherto admired; that shall place in the full blaze of meridian lustre, actions lost on the mass of mankind; that shall pay more homage to the memory of a prince that gave a ram to a farmer, than for wielding the sceptre—obeyed alike on the Ganges and the Thames.

“ I shall presume to offer but one other general observation:—when we see HIS MAJESTY practising husbandry with that warmth that marks a favourite pursuit;—and taking such steps to diffuse a foreign breed of sheep, well calculated to improve those of his kingdoms;—when we see the royal pursuits take such a direction, we may safely conclude, that the public measures which, in certain instances, have been so hostile to the agriculture of this country, have nothing in common with the opinions of our gracious sovereign: such measures are the work of men, who never felt for husbandry; who never practised; who never loved it:—it is not such men that give rams to farmers.

Measure of the royal ram.

Girt,	-	-	42 inches.
— at chine,	-	-	36
— of neck,	-	-	20
— of leg,	-	-	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
Thickness,	-	-	11
— at chine,	-	-	9
Length of carcase,	-	-	23
— of neck,	-	-	7

Breadth of loin, - 6 inches.

Weight, - 91 lb.

“The thickness, *hardness*, and closeness of his coat, are singular; the colour to the eye very dark, dirty, and even blackish, arising from that superior degree of closeness; but when opened, for examining the wool, the extreme beauty of the staple is at once apparent. The fibre fine; twisted; full of that yellowish waxey grease, that distinguishes the Spanish fleeces; the skin oily to an extraordinary degree.

“In regard to the thriving quality of this breed, it is a point of such importance, that I was anxious to ascertain it: of the wool, none could have any doubt; but from certain points, which predominate in Spanish sheep, this was certainly a question. I had it not in my power to make a trial absolutely complete; but I formed a comparison, the result of which follows:—I tied him up in stalls during a part of the winter, and the rest of it he was in the field, fed exactly (during the whole) as other rams that were compared with him. In stalls, he beat the Norfolk breed.

No. 1.	Dec. 31, Don weighed	-	84 lb.
2.	A ram $\frac{1}{2}$ South Down, $\frac{1}{4}$		
	Norfolk, $\frac{1}{4}$ Bakewell,	-	141
3.	A South Down, from Mr		
	Ellman,	-	136 lb.

These were fed abroad together till March 20th, when they weighed

No.	lb.	Gain
1,	100	16
2,	148	7
3,	144	8

“ This was a superiority, which, I confess, I did not dream of.—The comparison is not exact, because the ages are not the same. No. 1, has eight broad teeth; No. 2, has six; and No. 3, has only four: but it seems to imply, that this ram is of a thriving race.

“ Another comparison of ram hoggets, proved favorable to the Spanish blood.

No.	Jan. 14.	Jan. 31.	Mar. 20.	G
1, Half South Down, $\frac{1}{4}$ Bake- well, and $\frac{1}{4}$ Norfolk, -	lb. 97	lb. 94	lb. 82	lb. α
2, Ditto, - - -	99	102	100	11
3, $\frac{1}{2}$ South Down, $\frac{1}{4}$ Spanish, $\frac{1}{4}$ Ryeland, - - -	99	104	108	9
4, Ditto, a late lamb, -	37	50	48	11
5, Seven whole bred South Down; average weight,	80	81	94	14

“ *It should seem*, from this, and various other trials, that so small an addition as one-fourth of Norfolk blood does a marked and essential mischief. Of these, No. 4 much exceeds the rest, a sheep of 37 lb. gaining 11 lb. is in the proportion 23 lb. gain by one of 80 lb. instead of which it is only 14 lb.

“ Speaking generally, I believe the Spanish blood will be found to have a good disposition to fatten; if not in the same class as some of our long woolled breeds, at least much superior to some of our fine woolled ones.

“ I put him to forty of my finest woolled South Down ewes, and therefore may expect to breed some

rams well adapted for propagating fine wool, and some ewes, which, covered two years hence by Don, will give me a yet nearer approximation. A. Y.

GRAMMATICAL DISQUISITIONS.

Continued from p. 245.

On the supposed English genitive case.

LANGUAGE, in whatever way the idea of it was first communicated to man, has evidently been modelled by him, so as to suit his circumstances. Necessity has often whetted his invention, and given rise to new words, as new ideas dawned upon the mind; in the choice of which words, chance, rather than philosophical principles, has influenced him. In all situations he must have felt a great want of words, which might be employed as names to distinguish the various objects of perception, for the want of which he would be forced to adopt many contrivances to assist him in conversation. To develop all these contrivances would afford matter of curious speculation; but this is beside our present purpose.

Particular words, appropriated as the name of general classes of objects, would be adopted at an early period: and we find such terms in all languages that have hitherto been discovered. Such as *animal, vegetable, &c.*

Names also, at an early period, would be assigned to the greater subdivisions of these classes, as *man, horse, tree, plant, &c.*

Individuals also, among such of those classes as were most under the eye of man, would obtain parti-

cular appropriated names, as *Cæsar, Pompey, Alexander*. In bestowing which names men would sometimes be influenced by chance, or accidental circumstances; though we know that these names were frequently compounded of distinct words, which had originally a reference to the powers or appearance of the object to which they were applied, though they were afterwards used without any reference to these appearances; as *red-head, bare-foot, bairn's-father, &c.*

But as the diversity of individual objects is so great, that no man can know them all by name; or, if he himself did know them, could he make others know at first sight, the name by which each particular object had been distinguished, among different classes of men, it must frequently happen, that objects will occur, with whose appropriated name a man is entirely unacquainted. When such a case occurred, what would he do? He would naturally first refer it to that general class of objects to which it obviously belonged, and then would have recourse to description to supply the want of an appropriated name. Let us suppose, for example, that a man had seen an ox for the first time, he would naturally say to another, *I saw a large animal with four legs, and two horns*, and so on, till he had finished the description in the best way he could.

But as this mode of communicating ideas is both tedious and troublesome, he would have recourse to some contrivance to avoid these difficulties, and shorten his nomenclature; and with this view would lay hold of such particulars as accident, or the circumstances in which he found himself placed, first suggested to him,

Among these peculiarities, the circumstances that denoted relation, or necessary connection, between one object and another, would be soon observed, and would afford a hint for forming a general class of words, that might be employed for this purpose. In a civilized country, as soon as an idea of property begins to prevail, it will naturally occur to every one on seeing any unknown object, that it must in general belong to, or be appropriated to the use of some person : and, as we have bestowed such a particular attention to man, as to confer an appropriated name upon each individual, we naturally make use of that proper name to serve as a help for identifying those objects that peculiarly belong to him. Thus, for example, I see a house for the first time ; and as I know that house must have an owner, or an occupier, I enquire who that owner is, and upon being answered, *John* or *William*, I lay hold of that circumstance to distinguish it from others, and ever afterwards call it *John's* or *William's house*.

In like manner, as every whole must consist of parts, by referring that particular member of any body we wish to identify to the whole, of which it forms a constituent part, we can readily distinguish it from other members of the same kind, as a *horse's hoof*, a *sheep's foot*, a *bullock's head*, and so on : or still more particularly, *James's hand*, *George's head*, &c.

The above examples furnish us with one instance, out of many thousands that might be produced, of the shifts that mankind have been obliged to adopt, in forming languages, by stretching general prin-

ciples, so as to make them comprehend several collateral ideas without altering the form of the words employed. Thus, if we were to suppose that property was the idea that first gave rise to that variation of nouns, denoted by the addition of an apostrophised 's, it has been found so convenient as to give rise to its being extended to denote possession also; for we equally denote a particular house in this manner by the name of the *possessor* or the *proprietor*. In like manner it has been extended to denote totality, when considered with relation to the parts of which it consists. We even go farther, and make the same inflection denote neither *possession*, nor *property*, nor *totality*, as above defined, but a sort of a complimentary relation, for which I do not know any appropriated name. Thus, St Andrews Square does not imply that the square is either the *property* of St Andrew, or is *possessed* by him, but merely that, in honour of that saint, it is called after his name. This particular variation of nouns, does not therefore in all cases denote *possession*, as has been alleged by some eminent grammarians, but expresses many different relations, all of which it would be tedious to enumerate, but all tending to the same purpose, *that of identifying a particular object*; other circumstances, about which I at present enquire not, have been laid hold of, and employed for the same purpose.

Such, then, is the origin and use of this class of words, about which grammarians have hitherto been so much puzzled. These words evidently all belong to that class which Harris has, with great propriety, called *definitives*. Of these, a small number

have been separated from other words, and classed by themselves, in modern languages, under the name of *articles*; but a much greater number of them have been pushed into other classes, without order or discretion, which has occasioned a confusion in grammar that requires to be rectified.

DEFINITIVES, as their name imports, are all such words as, without conveying an idea of any peculiarity inherent in the object itself, to which they refer, serve merely to separate it from others of the same kind, so as to distinguish it from them.

The words of course can only refer to nouns: and so intimate is their connection with that class of words, that they can on no occasion appear in language without a noun, whose more general meaning they serve to *limit* and *define*; and so intimately do they unite with that noun, as both together to stand only as one proper name.

Definitives, considered as a distinct class of words, are formed by derivation from words of almost every other class: from *nouns*, *pronouns*, *adjectives*, *verbs*, sometimes with, and sometimes without any variation of the original word*.

They are, in all languages, a very numerous class of words, and of very common use; every particular

* Definitives from nouns, with alterations, *James's*, *William's*, *David's*—without change, *hand-gun*, *mill-wheel*, *horse-mill*, *mill-horse*, *arm-pit*, *hair-breadth*, *straw-breadth*, *iron-mallet*, *powder-horn*, *wheel-barrow*;—from pronouns, *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, *their*, &c.;—from adjectives, *red-head*, *grey-beard*, *green-bank*, *true-man*;—from verbs, *maker*, *turner*, *baker*.

language having its own mode of derivation, and of compounding them with other words.

It has been already shown how it happens that definitives, under that form which has been called *genitives*, are naturally derived from all nouns which denote corporal substances, or *beings possessing sensible qualities*; because all these may be conceived either as belonging to some individual, or as being affected in some sensible manner, either in whole, or in part: but with regard to intellectual existences, or those objects of which we form an idea only *in the abstract*, we find no particular on which we can lay hold, from which a definitive might be formed. Such nouns, therefore, though, like others, they admit of a regular genitive case, according to the analogy of the language to which they belong, do not admit of that particular inflection which has been called the English genitive. That this is the real cause of the exception taken notice of in the beginning of this essay with regard to abstract nouns, and not, as some imagine, the harsh sound of the apostrophized 's, is evident when we advert that the word *James's* is as harsh as *conscience's*, and more so than *enticement's*, *arrangement's*; though the first is common, and the last never permitted in our language.

The limits to which I must here confine myself, do not permit me to trace this numerous class of words through all their divarications, or to give even an idea of the different ways in which they may be employed in forming compound nouns. They on some occasions so intimately coalesce, and form so com-

fact a word as not to be distinguishable from an uncompounded noun. In process of time, the idea which gave rise to their original composition being lost, the name of the object only which the word stands for, comes to be attended to, and it is then employed as a simple word in forming new compounds. A noted instance of this kind occurs in the word *midwife*, from which is derived the singular compound *man-midwife*. *Doomsday-book*, and *pocket-handkerchief*, belong to the same class.

I shall only farther observe, in regard to the use of this class of words in compounding others, that all our patronimic names, are formed by their assistance; such as *Williamson*, *Johnson*, *Davidson*, in English. The same may be said of the Irish *Mac's* and *O's*, the Welch *Up's*, and the *De's* in French and modern Latin. To which may be added the names of places ending in *burgh*, *hill*, *ford*, *burn*, *dam*, *dike*, *haven*, *mouth*, and many others which it would be tedious to enumerate.

For the distinction between this class of words and *adjectives*, which in some particulars they so nearly resemble; for the rules that have been observed in regard to their derivation; the modes that have been adopted in respect of their composition with other words; and other particulars relating to them, I must leave these to be ascertained by others who have talents better adapted to such investigations, and who have better opportunities of prosecuting such studies than myself: and will be happy if these cursory hints shall have a tendency to induce some one better

qualified than I am to undertake the task, which they will find not less entertaining than instructive*.

* This essay having been read in the Royal Society of Edinburgh, a very imperfect abstract of it was given in the first volume of these transactions, which called forth the following critique from the reviewer, in the Gentleman's Magazine for June 1788. April 19. Dr James Anderson read observations on a peculiarity in the English language, usually called the genitive case. He is of opinion, "that the English noun admits of no inflection by cases, and therefore that the term genitive is improper." He contends, that "the addition of the letter 's, with an apostrophe to a noun, as *John's staff*, is not an inflection of the noun, and therefore cannot be termed a case." He affirms, that "when a noun undergoes a change of this sort, it ceases to be itself a noun, and becomes immediately a definitive."

"If," adds this elegant critic, "this be not absurd, it has much the appearance of absurdity; and we would advise Dr Anderson, before he ventures again to read any thing in the society, about *nouns ceasing to be nouns, and becoming definitives*, to pursue with attention, the *diversions of purley*," &c.

Perhaps if Dr Anderson advised this profound critic, before he again ventured to criticise works of this nature, to have recourse to his grammar, or any common dictionary, he would make a very proper return; for he will there find, that, so far is it a wonderful case, that *a noun, by a slight variation, ceases to be a noun, and ranges under some other part of speech*, that he can scarcely read a sentence in which something of that kind does not occur. And the same thing happens with regard to verbs and adjectives. He will admit that *flight* is a noun;—he cannot deny that *flighty* is the same noun with a small variation;—but this he will find by his dictionary is no longer accounted a noun, but an adjective. The same *adjective*, by another slight variation into *flightiness*, ceases once more to be an *adjective*, and becomes again a *noun*. Such mutations in grammar are so common, as to be familiar with every Tyro in grammatical rudiments. Sometimes these mutations are made without any change of letters; as *haste* a *noun*, to make *haste*, a *verb*; as also from the same root, *hastily*, *adverb*; *hasty*, *adjective*; *hastiness*, *abstract noun*. Examples of this sort might be multiplied without end. Where then is the absurdity of saying that the same thing may take place in the formation of definitives as takes place in regard to verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and nouns? there surely would be no impropriety in saying, indifferently, either this is an *absurd* critic; or he writes *absurdly*; or he utters an *absurdity*; in which case the same word *absurd*, with very slight variations, is made to stand as an *adjective*, an *adverb*, and a *noun*.

ON REVENUE LAWS.

Continued from p. 61.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

IN my last paper I pointed out, in some degree, the evils accruing to the community from importation smuggling, which has been found to be an inseparable attendant on high duties. The effects that these produce on the revenue of government, and the expediency, in that respect, of reducing them, come now under consideration.

High taxes produce smuggling, in a degree of comparison, much above the rates of the duties: for instance, if a duty, in one case, is twice as much as in another, it will produce a great deal more than twice as much smuggling.

To illustrate this more fully, the following sketch of the risk in smuggling gin, is submitted to the consideration of the reader.

A cargo of gin of 500 ankers, will cost at Flushing about 17 s. *per* anker, of the strength of 20 *per cent.* below Hydrometer proof, which is, L. 425 0 0

The expence of freight of such a cargo,

will be to the smuggler, exclusive of

the risk of seizure, about

75 0 0

Landing charges, bribes to labourers, &c.

50 0 0

Amounting in all to

L. 550 0 0

The value of the vessel will be about

300 0 0

Total sum to be risked

L. 850 0 0

If the duty on spirits was 3 s. *per* gallon, proof, the current price of Geneva, legally imported, would be about 4 s. *per* gallon, of the small strength; of course 500 ankers, of $9\frac{1}{2}$ gallons each, if lawfully imported, would be worth - L. 975 0 0

But as purchasers of smuggled spirits run a risk, the smuggler would not procure so much; there must therefore be deducted an allowance for that, suppose 10 *per cent.* - - 97 10 0

So the produce of the cargo which cost, L. 550 is - - L. 877 10 0

Yielding a clear profit, if the cargo be clearly got off, of L. 327, 10 s.; and there is L. 800 subjected to the risk of seizure at sea; and L. 550 at land. Now, supposing this risk to be in the proportion of two-thirds at sea and one-third at land, which I would apprehend to be about a just computation, the average sum hazarded would be L. 717 so that the smuggler would save himself in getting clearly away with $2\frac{1}{4}$ cargoes for every one he loses.

The duty on gin is at present 5 s. 10 d. *per* gallon, proof; and spirits of the strength mentioned, usually go off, at the Customhouse sales, at about 5 s. 8 d. *per* gallon; and as the purchasers must have a good profit, in consideration of the trouble, time, and intrigue, employed about the business, I suppose that smugglers can sell at the same rate; in which

case, a cargo of the above description would bring

L. 1381 5 0

And the cost the same as before

850 0 0

So that, in this case, there is a profit of L. 531 5 0

With not a farthing more risk than in the other instance; so that a smuggler now saves himself, if he can get clear away with 1³/₄ cargoes for every one he loses.

The inference to be drawn from the above, is, that if, by their exertions, the servants of the crown could seize two vessels and their cargoes, out of three and one-fourth, and no more, smuggling would be entirely annihilated, in the case of the duty being 3s. *per* gallon; but in the case of its being 5s. and 10d. as it is at present, there would be a profit of very nearly 25 *per cent.* on the stock so employed; and the money, would be turned over completely in the space of three or four months.

This statement may be erroneous in some particulars (as I am no smuggler,) but that the general principle is founded in truth, I do not think will be denied.

Hence it appears evident that there is a certain rate at which the duties ought to be fixed, in order to prevent smuggling; and that if they were fixed at that rate, that branch of trade would infallibly fall to the ground.

It is very certain that the duty is by no means low enough at present to prevent smuggling, unless we establish yet more revenue cruizers, excise officers, &c. (with which we are far too much clogged

already,) for there are at present lying in Leith harbour, ten vessels that have been condemned for smuggling spirits, many of which must, agreeably to the law, be broken up and the materials sold. And there is scarcely a week passes without a prize of some denomination being brought up by the honourable captain Cochran of the Hind, captain Ogilvy of the Royal George, or captain Elder of the Royal Charlotte, the laudable exertions of whom I cannot refrain from taking notice of on this occasion.

At the same time it must be observed, that the duty cannot at present be *greatly* above the standard at which smuggling, during the present establishment, would be thrust out; as the observing reader will remark, that a very small sum in the duty makes a very great difference in the profits of the smuggler. And, moreover, I know from my personal information from smugglers themselves, that it is now what is termed a bare trade, yielding little pay for much labour, although the great allurements held forth by the prospect of considerable gain does still keep it up.

In short I am confident that if the duty were reduced to 4 s. 8 d. *per* gallon, which is the present duty on rum, all illicit trade in spirits worth noticing would fall to the ground.

This part of the subject will be continued in the next paper of

TRADER POLITICAL.

Leith, 1792.

ON WISDOM AND WEALTH, AN ALLEGORY.

O dea certe!

VIRG.

IN the beginning of things, before experience had instructed either celestial or terrestrial beings in the consequences attending the indulgence of different passions and affections, a dispute arose for precedence between Wisdom and Wealth. The contest was to be decided before the throne of Jupiter.

In advancing to that awful tribunal, Wealth was the foremost, and assumed to herself the right of first addressing the god. She was preceded by two gorgeous lacqueys, who were known to be Pride and Arrogance; and was followed by the revel rout of noisy and tumultuous Luxury. She was herself sumptuously, but not elegantly apparelled. Her robes were of cloth of gold, adorned and embroidered with a profusion of gems and colours. She wore on her head a most splendid tiara, loaded with gold and jewels. "I," said she, "O! Jupiter, have the best right to precedence. By me man shall enjoy all the pleasures of life. By me he shall dwell in magnificent palaces, be carried in superb carriages, be arrayed with the finest raiment, feed upon the most dainty viands, and live upon earth even the life of the gods. Let me add, O Jupiter! that by giving me precedence thou wilt study thine own interest; for by me man shall be enabled to do thee homage in lofty temples and with costly oblations." She ceased, scarcely deigning to yield obeisance, even to him who sat on the throne of Olympus.

Meantime Wisdom advanced, arrayed in white robes, and having over them an azure mantle, as a symbol of the consistency and permanency of her benefits. She wore a veil. Her approach was modest and respectful to the Divinity. She was attended by an old man, whose hoary locks deserved veneration, and whose piercing eye seemed as if it would dart its beams into the darkest obscurity. He was known to be Learning, the tutor of Wisdom, and who attended her at present to support her in her contest, to invigorate her address, and abash Wealth and her vain-glorious attendants. "O! Jupiter," said Wisdom, with composed but modest speech, "if I may trust the indications of my own mind, and the suggestions of this venerable sage, I shall contribute largely to the improvement of the human race. Of their pleasures I make little account; but by promoting their improvement I shall enlarge their happiness. By the invention of useful arts, I shall enable them to overcome all the difficulties of their condition. By me, they shall, with perfect security, traverse the billows of the boundless deep. By me they shall obtain that opulence which is so much extolled; and not only so, but by me alone they shall be able to enjoy it. Without me, it will be to them only a source of discord, of strife, and of anxiety. By me too, though they should not obtain riches, they will learn to be happy without them. By me they shall obtain tranquillity, peace of mind, and contentment. By me they shall live in friendly society; and by me they shall at length arise to celestial mansions."

Wealth, during the speech of Wisdom, felt herself so much abashed, that she would have anticipated the decree of Jupiter, and retired. But by the suggestions of her two menials, she assumed, in her departure, an air of pretended confidence and superiority; and said, “she set no value on the award of Jupiter; for that by her own means she would readily obtain from innumerable votaries and admirers, sufficient superiority.”

The beams of celestial favour issuing from the throne of heaven, in the form of a radiant crown, invested the head of Wisdom.

JULIANA.

HINTS ON THE PROSPERITY OF STATES.

IT is commonly remarked, that “nothing permanently great can be expected from a nation enjoying the means, and in the habits of luxury.” Reflecting on this remark I have been led to the following observations.

Amongst rude nations, even those who have least of all shaken off their native barbarism, an attention to the obligations of virtue is no common qualification. Indeed it is difficult to discover what virtue is practised in uncivilized states, or even in those in which civilization hath made but small progress. A promiscuous commerce of the sexes obtains in uncivilized states in general, and is found in the rudest nations which pretend to civilization. A free use of spirituous liquors is common to all countries which are acquainted with distilling. Ornaments in dress are more sought after than even useful

covering, in nations of no refinement in science. Honesty is not the virtue of savages, as captain Cook hath shewn us, by his observations on the natives of the South Sea islands; nor indeed can there be any honesty where the distinction of *private property* is not known. Let no one, therefore, when he observes dissimulation, intemperance, and debauchery, in highly civilized nations, conclude that these are all the children of luxury and refinement; or believe the descriptions of poets, who paint the manners of rude nations free from every taint of crime. Let us inquire how luxury, and what degree of it, tends to destroy the consequence of nations and states.

This can only be in the following ways: First, by totally debasing the moral principle; or second, by destroying the health, and consequently the strength and energy of men.

There are two ways in which luxury tends to debase the moral principle, *first*, by the means which rich and luxurious people enjoy, of corrupting the moral principle, by presenting temptations to men which overcome their power of resistance. And, *secondly*, by the power which riches give a man of indulging every desire and appetite. But the second of these sources operates directly in destroying the health, and therefore must be considered under that class which we have before pointed out as tending to destroy the energy of man.

The tendency of wealth to corrupt man, by bribing him into crimes; is of the most alarming nature, and threatens the ruin of kingdoms. But this is most felt where wealth, or the means of luxury, is in few hands; and nations which are enriched by conquest

are most in danger of experiencing the effects of this evil. This application of the means of luxury, and their being thus procured, and in few hands, was the real cause of the ruin and downfall of the Roman empire. *Commercial nations* are not subject to so *speedy* a destruction from this cause; for commerce diffuses the means of wealth into many hands, and by that means prevents the fatal influence of individuals of overgrown fortune. Commerce being much attended to by many, divides the profit of it, and consequently lessens this effect. In England, commerce has got the very best tendency; for the lands are many of them held from the lords by long leases; and the riches of commerce enables the tradesman to purchase, and thus to emancipate himself and family; and many of the lands are held, from the feudal tenure, by payment of an arbitrary fine on the death of lord and tenant; and commerce enables the landholder to buy his lands free. As the means of corruption were formerly, and are greatly yet, in the hands of the lords, commerce operates in its effects as a check to such corruption, as it enables the inferior class to emancipate themselves, and act an honest and independent part. The lordly fortunes from India indeed, in the hands of a few individuals, are an objection to this reasoning; and it is perhaps doubtful whether this source of luxury and corruption be a good to England.

I do not consider the luxury, or rather the means of luxury, of any nation of Europe, at all threatening at present in this view of the subject. For where riches are in the hands of a few, and but a very few, the danger from this quarter seems greatest.

We are now to consider the second great source of injury from luxury, namely, its destroying the health and energy of men. As the danger is greater in the former view of the subject, when riches are confined to a few persons; so, in this view, the danger is greatest, when the greatest number of individuals possess the means of luxury. Now, I do presume that the health and energy of man, (and consequently his power of defence) can never be destroyed by luxury, until the means of indulgence can be procured by him, without that *exercise* which is necessary to keep his frame in proper tone. Now when we consider the very great numbers who are cut off with too severe labour in this, and every other nation, and the labour necessary to procure the means of life, from the bulk of the people, I think we have not yet much to fear from this quarter. Besides, great refinement, and an advanced state of knowledge, has been found favourable in preventing one kind of fatal intemperance in some degree, namely, the excessive use of spirituous liquors.

We are not to estimate the national luxury, and national character, from the inhabitants of London or Paris, or other large towns. Except in the large towns, the means of luxury have little existence in France, England, or America, or few other countries. More perish through the want of food and cleanliness, than by luxury. At present, then, we need not tremble for the state on account of luxury: let us attempt political reformation; and count upon many centuries of dignity and consequence, before luxury shall overturn our empire. N. N.

POETRY.

THE DISAPPOINTMENT.

Spem sefellit. VIRG.

I.

FROM the long toils of travel I return'd,
Well pleas'd at length to see my native shore;
For Betsy still my faithful bosom burn'd,
For Betsy's heart was all her sailor's store.

II.

With eager steps I sought the rural cot,
Where dwelt my love in peaceful lowly state,
And liv'd contented with her humble lot,
Far from the cares and grandeur of the great.

III.

Silent and leafless was the neighb'ring wood,
Torn by the fury of the raging winds;
And the gay spot where once the cottage stood,
Lone and forsaken by the rural hinds.

IV.

The swelling main urg'd by the boist'rous wind,
With wide spread billows swept th' adjacent shore;
No trace of the lov'd cot was left behind,
Save the old oak that grew beside the door.

V.

As o'er an elm I bent in silent woe,
And gaz'd with sorrow o'er the dreary scene;
An ancient shepherd from the mountain's brow
With tottering footsteps pass'd along the green.

VI.

"Oh lonely vet'ran of the plain," I cried,
"Tell, if thou can'st,—alas! 'tis all I crave,
"Is Betsy safe?"—his tears alone replied,
And pointed to the yew that nodded o'er her grave.

King's college, Aberdeen.

ACADEMICUS.

THOMSON TO MISS YOUNG * WITH A PRESENT OF THE SEASONS.

For the Bee.

ACCEPT, lov'd nymph! this tribute due
To tender friendship love and you;
But with it take what breath'd the whole,
O! take to thine the poet's soul.
If fancy here her power displays,
And if a heart exalts these lays,—
You fairest in that fancy shine,
And all that heart is fondly thine. }

* Amanda.

MARTIAL, LIB. XII. EPIG. 21. IMITATED.

For the Bee.

WHO could believe, Marcella, that thy birth
 Had dignified this humble nook of earth?
 That so much wit, and eloquence, and taste,
 Had sprung untutor'd from this lonely waste?
 Ev'n Rome, proud empress of the world, would claim,
 Were half thy talents known, her portion of thy fame.
 Not the whole daughters of her ancient line,
 Can boast a single spouse of worth like mine;
 For Rome, and all I lov'd, no more I mourn,
 In thee concentr'd all her charms return.

EMILIUS.

MARTIAL, LIB. XII. EPIG. 34. IMITATED.

For the Bee.

THREE ten revolving years at least,
 Dear Julius have we been acquainted;
 And both upon the whole been blest,
 Though daily with vexation tainted.

When foes revil'd, or friends betray'd,
 Our hearts have wrung perhaps with sorrow;
 But a firm effort always made
 Complete resources for to-morrow.

The way to shun a thousand woes,
 Entail'd by nature on existence;
 Is to let neither friends nor foes
 Intrude within a guarded distance.

For why repine at vice elate,
 For injur'd worth our courage drown;
 Let us who cannot alter fate,
 Mind no man's business but our own.

SQUARE TOES.

AN EPIGRAM FROM A COLLECTION OF POEMS NEVER PUBLISHED.

For the Bee.

CRIES Celia to a rev'rend dean,
 What reason can be given,
 Since marriage is a holy thing,
 That there are none in heaven?

There are no women, he replied.
 She quick returns the jest:
 Women there are; but I'm afraid
 They cannot find a priest.

HINTS RESPECTING THE PROGRESS OF MANUFACTURES,
AND THEIR PRESENT STATE IN SCOTLAND.

THE manufactures of Scotland continue to prosper in a surprising degree. Every day produces some new improvement on the old, or some useful invention for laying the foundation of new manufactures there. It is a pleasing thing to contemplate these progressive improvements, in the low and populous parts of the country. How much is it to be regretted, that it does not extend over the whole!

Cotton manufacture.

It is scarcely fifteen years since the first yard of cotton cloth was woven in this country; and only about twelve years since the first mill for carding and spinning cotton wool was erected; now, there are at least a dozen cotton mills on a large scale, containing from three to four thousand spindles each, going both night and day, besides an indefinite number of smaller ones in every part of the country. Yet such is the demand for the cotton manufactures of Scotland, that all these are insufficient for keeping the weavers at work; so that cotton yarn, to the value of more than L. 500,000 is annually imported from England. Riders from the continent are now seen frequently in Scotland, not for the purpose of taking commissions for their own manufactures, but for commissioning the manufactures of this country.

Woollen carded and spun by machinery.

The difference between the mode of manufacturing cotton and animal wool is so small, that, after the successful operations on cotton by machinery, it was not to be expected attempts would not be made to card and spin animal wool in the same way. For some time these at-

tempts were not successful; the exact variation that was required on the machinery, could not at once be precisely ascertained. Successive trials, however, at last brought about the discovery. Many machines for carding and spinning wool have been erected in England, and some in Scotland, which have been found to succeed extremely well. This branch of manufacture is, however, still in its infancy, and we only here note it to mark the progress of improvements. One machine has been erected at Dundee, for coarse wool chiefly. Another has been just set agoing at Edinburgh, for the finest kinds of wool, which performs its operations with amazing delicacy and accuracy; so that there seems to be no room to doubt, that our fine woollen fabrics will be very much improved by that circumstance, the price of goods thereby diminished, and the extent of sale of course proportionally augmented. Both these machines are on a small scale, and being established in places where running water cannot be had, as a moving power, they can be considered only as experimental essays.

Linon yarn spun by machinery.

This is a farther extension of Mr Arkwright's discoveries. It was long doubted whether it would be possible to get flax spun by machinery;—the success of several trials both in Scotland and England, have fully established its practicability. Some time ago a machine was erected in the neighbourhood of Dundee for spinning coarse tow, (the short stuff that comes from flax in the dressing) which has been found to answer extremely well. Another mill has been erected near Leven in Fife, for spinning fine flax. This is an improvement on the original machine erected at Darlington in England, which was not found to answer at first the expectations of the undertakers. That at Leven, we are assured, makes yarn of such an excellent

fabric, that the demand for it far exceeds the quantity they can produce.

Weaving by machinery.

This has been attempted in several places, we are told with success; and it is here mentioned barely to mark the period when this improvement began to be adopted; for it has not yet been carried to a great extent any where. There can be no doubt but in time it will become universal, in regard to all fabrics that consist of a strong chain or warp.

Glass manufacture.

About thirty years ago there was only one glass house company in Scotland; the hands working half the year at Leith, and half the year at Glasgow; and their operations were so languid, that one house now will perform more than double the work this could then execute; there are now six glass houses at Leith alone, besides a great many others in different parts of the country.

At the time I first mention, nothing else than bottles of coarse green glass was made there; and to that article, the glass house company at Leith confined their efforts, till about a dozen years ago, when they began to make fine glass for phials, and other articles of that nature. About four years ago, they introduced the manufacture of crown glass for windows, which they now make in great perfection, and in considerable quantities.

After they began to manufacture white glass, they fell into the way of cutting it for ornament, and engraving upon it. In this last department they have reached a higher degree of perfection than it has perhaps any where else ever yet attained. A young man who was bred to that business, having discovered a taste in designing, and an elegance of execution that was very uncommon, the proprietors of the work were at pains to give

him every aid in the art of drawing that this place can afford. and he has exhibited some specimens of his powers in that line, that are believed to be unrivalled.

It is but of yesterday that this glass house company, who are in a very flourishing state, encouraged by their success in other respects, introduced the art of preparing glass in imitation of gems, and of cutting it in *facets*, and working it into elegant forms for chandeliers, and other ornamental kinds of furniture. In this department their very first attempts have been highly successful;—and they have now executed some pieces of work, that they need not be ashamed to compare with the best that can be procured elsewhere.

Iron manufacture.

It is about forty years since the Carron company was established near Falkirk. Their object was to smelt iron from its ore, and to cast it into various utensils. They also carry on the branch of making forged iron. This was the first manufacture that was seen in Scotland, carried on upon a large scale, and it was resorted to from all parts of the country to be viewed as a wonder. It continued the only wonder of its kind in Scotland for many years, and possessed a kind of monopoly of that branch of business; but gradually some private undertakers ventured into that business on a smaller scale, and with less variety of undertakings. Some contented themselves with barely smelting the ore, and making pig iron, while others, buying that pig iron ready made, confined their views entirely to the making utensils or articles of utility from it. In this way small founderies are established in many parts of the country, where innumerable articles that are wanted for the accommodation of the people, are made at a less expence, and perhaps in greater perfection than at the larger works. The effects of monopoly are thus done

away. Individuals have an opportunity of getting their small orders executed to their mind, and the public are thus properly served.

To supply the demand that thus arises for pig iron, smelting houses are daily starting up in parts of the country, where nothing of this kind was ever before thought of. Coal and iron stone, in the internal parts of the country, which were formerly of no value to the proprietors, become the sources of opulence to him, and of wealth to a numerous people, whose industry is thus exerted, where only poverty and indolence must otherwise for ever have prevailed. Roads and canals, for conveying these articles to market, become necessary; so that efforts are now making for carrying these into effect, in parts of the country where otherwise nothing of this kind could ever have been dreamt of.

One iron work has been lately established by Mr Edington, on the banks of the Clyde, on such an extensive scale, as bids fair for rivalling that of the Carron company itself. And another at Muirkirk, in conjunction with the making of coal tar, in an inland part of the country, where, without that valuable discovery, both the coal and the iron stone, which there abound, must have remained for ages of no use to the proprietor or the public.

A NEW AND IMPORTANT DISCOVERY.

THE Editor was lately shown two samples of flax, one parcel of each of them was in the state it had been left by the dreser; another parcel of each was of the same quality, but white and well bleached. He was assured that these were parts of the same flax and hemp with the unbleached parcels, and that the operation of whitening had been completely effected in the space of

half an hour, without the aid of acids of any sort, either dephlogisticated or otherwise, or alkalis. He was farther assured that the process was extremely cheap and easy: and upon examination he perceived that the strength of the materials was not sensibly impaired by the process.

In a short while he will be at liberty to communicate farther particulars respecting this useful discovery. At present the above is all he is permitted to say.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE communication by *Benignus* is received, and shall be attended to. The future correspondence of this gentleman will be very acceptable.

The hints respecting ambassador Lockhart are thankfully received. The Editor will thank any of his readers for whatever authentic memoirs they can furnish respecting this distinguished character.

The observations of a *schoolmaster pro tempore*, are received, and should have readily had a place, were it not for their great length, and the fear that they might lead to a long discussion, that would prove uninteresting to most of the readers of the Bee. The Editor indeed regrets that he was inadvertently induced to give a place to the former observations on that head, as he perceives they would give rise to long altercations which he is determined as much as possible to avoid. Should any thing short, and particularly conclusive, on that side of the question, appear, it shall be inserted as a final close to that discussion.

The above will equally apply to the communication by a *lover of our young Sects*, for whose opinions the Editor has a great respect. This elaborate essay would, indeed, be much better suited to form a pamphlet by itself, than a paper in a periodical work. As a separate publication, it might be read with profit by many persons who have the welfare of this country at heart. The manuscript will be preserved for the use of the author, if ever he should choose to demand it.

The Editor regrets, that *Jupiter Justice* should have put himself to so much trouble in transcribing so much of a performance that he can make no use of. The Bee shall never be employed for propagating scandal, or encouraging lubricity.

Valeria is received; as also the curious remarks on the Chinese language.

The beneficent effusion of *Liberalis* is received. He will observe that it has been in some measure anticipated by some papers lately inserted in the Bee. We must not dwell too long on any one subject. He forgot to pay the postage of his letter.

The letter to *Hortensias* came to hand, and shall be duly attended to.

The performance of *Gnatho* is received, and shall not be overlooked.

The anonymous publication on the *borcugh reform* is received. This is a subject the Editor wishes to avoid, for the same reason as he has avoided many other popular topics, because he fears it might give rise to warm and acrimonious altercations. The Editor, however, entertains great respect for the intentions of the writer.

SHORT CHRONICLE

OF EVENTS.

July 25. 1792.

FOREIGN.

India.

The Bombay gazette, dated 29th February, states, that major Cuppage's detachment was encamped at the foot of the Guzeraty Pass, where he was joined daily by a number of deserters from the enemy, who report that there was a general disaffection among Tippoo's troops; that Tippoo had found himself under the necessity of making certain concessions to Comora Odin Khan, who, on the other hand, deemed it prudent to sacrifice feeling and honour upon the altars of ambition and avarice; and that they are now friends, at least in appearance. The same advices mention, that the rajahs on the Malabar coast had declared an intention to throw off the tyrant's yoke, and earnestly desired his overthrow.

Letter from L. Cornwallis to Sir Charles Oakeley.

Camp near Seringapatam,

SIR, Feb. 8. 1792.

" On the 5th inst. I encamped about seven miles to the north-

ward of Seringapatam, from whence I saw that Tippoo had, according to my information, taken a position on the north bank of the river, with its fronts and flanks covered by a bound hedge, and a number of ravines, swamps, and water courses, and likewise fortified by a chain of strong redoubts, full of cannon, as well as by the artillery of the fort, and of the works on the island.

" It would have cost us a great many men to have attacked the camp in the day, and perhaps the success might not have been quite certain; I determined, therefore, to make the attempt in the night, and for that purpose I marched on the 6th, as soon after sunset as the troops could be formed in three divisions. The right division commanded by general Meadows, and the central division, under my immediate direction, were destined for the attack of the enemy's camp, and the division on the left, consisting of four battalions, under lieutenant colonel Maxwell, was ordered to

attack the works that the enemy were constructing on the heights above the Karrigat Pagoda.

“The officers commanding the leading corps in the right and center divisions were directed, after driving the enemy from their camp, to endeavour to pursue them through the river, and establish themselves on the island; and it was recommended to lieutenant colonel Maxwell, to attempt to pass the river, if, after having possessed himself of the heights, he saw that our attack on the camp was successful.

“The left and center divisions were so fortunate as to accomplish completely the objects proposed. Lieutenant colonel Maxwell gained the heights, and afterwards passed the river, and the first five corps of the center division crossed over to the island, leaving me in possession of the camp, which was standing, and of all the artillery of the enemy’s right wing.

“The division of the right, by some of those accidents to which all operations in the night are liable, approached much too near a very strong detached work, which it was not my intention to assault that night, and which must have fallen into our hands without giving us any trouble, if we succeeded in forcing the enemy’s camp.

“The advanced guard enga-

ged in the attack of this work, before they could be prevented by the officers in the front of the column, and the latter who had been used to carry forts with great facility, did not think it necessary, or, perhaps, creditable, to oblige them to desist; but the garrison of this redoubt conducted themselves very differently from those which we had lately met with, and their resistance was so obstinate, that it was not carried without costing us several lives, and a very considerable delay.

“By this time the firing at the center attack had entirely ceased, and general Meadows, concluding from that circumstance that I was in complete possession of the whole of the enemy’s camp, and apprehending that a part of his corps might be wanted to support the troops on the island, wished to communicate with me as speedily as possible.

“Some guides, who undertook to lead his division to join mine by a direct road, conducted him to the Karrigat Pagoda without his meeting with me, and day-light was then too near to admit of his undertaking any farther operations.

“These untoward circumstances did not deprive us of any of the solid advantages of our victory, for we are in possession of the whole of the enemy’s redoubts, of all the ground on the north side of the river, and

of great part of the island; but as the force with which I remained in the enemy's camp did not much exceed three battalions; and as I found from parties that I sent out, that the left wing of Tippoo's army kept their ground all night, I could not bring off any trophies from the field, except those which were near the spot where our impression was made.

"I have not yet been able to ascertain, with precision, the number of guns that have fallen into our hands, but I understand that of brass and iron it amounts to upwards of sixty of different callibres.

"I shall take up my ground to-morrow as near to the chain of redoubts as possible, without being exposed to the fire of the fort; and as our posts upon the island are now nearly secured against any attempt of the enemy, I shall soon be ready to proceed with vigour upon the operations of the siege.

"It has been hitherto impossible to collect the returns of killed and wounded, but I have every reason to hope that our loss in Europeans will be under 200. Major Close will send to Mr Jackson a list of the officers that were killed, in order to prevent the anxious alarms of the friends of the survivors. I am," &c.

Letter from L. Cornwallis to Sir Charles Oakeley, bart. Camp near Seringapatam, SRB, Feb. 24. 1792.

"Being very much hurried, I have only time to tell you, that preliminaries were settled last night; that a cessation of hostilities has taken place this day; and that two of Tippoo's sons are expected in our camp this evening.

"I transmit a translation of the preliminary articles, and request that you will be pleased to forward copies of them both to Bengal and Bombay.

"If, by any accident, the Vestal should not have sailed before this letter reaches Madras, you will be so kind as desire captain Osborne to remain until he hears farther from me. I am," &c.

Copy of the preliminary articles agreed upon and exchanged, dated Feb. 22. 1792.

1. One half of the dominions which were in the possession of Tippoo Sultan at the commencement of the present war shall be ceded to the allies, adjacent to their respective boundaries, and agreeably to their selection.

2. Three crores, and thirty lacks of Sicca rupees, shall be paid to the allies, agreeably to the following particulars, viz.

First, one crore, and sixty-five lacks shall be paid immediately in pagodas, or gold mohurs, or rupees of full weight

and standard, or in gold or silver bullion.

Second, the remainder, one crore, and sixty-five lacks, at three instalments; not exceeding four months each, in the three coins before mentioned.

3. All subjects of the four several powers, who may have been prisoners from the time of the late Hyder Ally Khan to the present period; shall be fairly and unequivocally released.

4. Upon the due performance of the three articles above mentioned, two of the three eldest sons of Tippoo Sultan shall be given as hostages, on the arrival of whom a cessation of hostilities shall take place.

5. When an agreement, containing the articles above written shall arrive, bearing the seal and signature of Tippoo Sultan, counter agreements shall be sent from the three powers; and, after the cessation of hostilities, such a definitive treaty of perpetual friendship, as shall be settled by the several parties, shall be adjusted and entered into.

Poland.

Warsaw, June 20. The Russians after the actions near Mir, attempted to take possession of the castle there; a place belonging to prince Radzivil; but the artillery mounted on its walls forced them to retire with considerable loss.

June 22. On the 20th inst.

an account was received from the camp of prince Joseph Poniatowsky, that he had retired farther within the country. The official detail of this retreat is not yet published; but the following is said to be the substance of it:

The rear-guard of the Russian army advanced by forced marches for a day and a night with such rapidity, as to turn both our flanks without being perceived. The rest of their troops they moved forward, and we saw ourselves surrounded on all sides.

Our general collecting courage in proportion to the danger, immediately resolved to open his way over the bodies of the enemy. His orders were instantly issued; our troops moved boldly forward; attacked the Russians on the flank of our camp, broke and marched through them with our baggage and cannon.

Nothing could resist the Polish impetuosity; and this retreat was made with an order and regularity that would have done honour to the most illustrious general.

In the mean time, the Russians in front of our camp, informed of what was passing, moved in a body to succour their broken wing; but they came too late.

Prince Joseph Poniatowsky covered his rear with two battalions of the flower of his ar-

my: 500 men almost renewed the spectacle of Thermopylæ, and made the enemy pay dearly for the advantage of occupying the ground which we were obliged to abandon, but not till we had bathed it with their blood.—Of these 500 brave men, not one thought of retreating after the army: but each covered with his body the spot on which he had fought.

June 23. The following intelligence is just received from the camp of prince Poniatowsky, near Zaclaw, dated the 19th instant:—

The two armies began the cannonade on the 17th instant, two miles from Zaclaw, which lasted from seven in the morning till five in the afternoon. At last our troops got the better, broke into the right wing of the enemy, and put them entirely to flight. Soon after the left wing left the field of battle, and our troops being masters of the same, continued there for two hours, and then withdrew to the camp. We lost 800 men and 300 horses. The enemy's loss is said to be more considerable.

This day Warsaw gazette, however, mentions, that 500 men, who were to protect prince Poniatowsky's rear-guard, were defeated by the enemy.

We have accounts here, that

prince Poniatowsky attacked general Kutusaff, chased the Russians twice from a village near Daslaw, defeated a great number, made some prisoners, and took a pair of colours. Our loss was not so considerable; 150 infantry, and 400 cavalry were killed. M. Wielohorsky lost 700 infantry, and three or four hundred cavalry. We also lost several guns.

June 20. Some days ago, the account of the Russians entering Wilna was made public here.

Two battles have taken place; the one on the 10th of June, where we lost seventy men; and the second on the 11th, which did not last long. We were obliged to retreat, which we effected in the best order. Both battles were fought near Mire and Swirzen.

The king will go this week to Kozimice, and from thence to the camp at Lubor, in order to act in conjunction with general Poniatowsky.

Minsk is in possession of the Russians.

The following letter from the camp of prince Poniatowsky, dated the 14th instant, has just been received:

“We have just received accounts of a battle fought near Sienjawka, under major Perakladowsky, who encountered 200 Cossacks and beat them; but pursuing them too far, he

fell in with two other parties of Cossacks. While he was retreating he was attacked in flank by a party of Cossacks. Some hundred men were killed on both sides, and the major himself taken prisoner. The result of the battle of Mire in Lithuania, was, that our troops retired in good order to Niewiez. The Russians entered the city, but were repelled by the ramparts of the castle; on which occasion a great number was killed.

An armistice is talked of here, during which negotiations will take place, in order to make up matters if possible without farther effusion of blood.

Miscellaneous.

We are informed, that in the town of Basfeterre, about the middle of April last, the inhabitants were visited with the most tremendous hurricane ever remembered; that the storm continued several days, and proved very detrimental to the lives and property of all those residing on the island, that "whole sheets of rain" fell with such impetuosity, as to cause the overthrow of buildings; that the water from this unexpected deluge was several feet deep in all the streets; that casks, logs of wood, cattle, and even men and women, were swept away promiscuously in the torrent; and that many lives and estates

were totally destroyed. It is impossible to conceive the horrors arising from the cries of the unhappy sufferers, the whites and blacks perishing without distinction by the same calamity.

About 300 negroes perished in Basfeterre alone; and there is scarcely a mile of the island but what has visible marks of this visitation of providence.

In Nevis, St Eustatia, and all the adjacent islands, the rains were experienced, although not in such a dreadful degree; neither do we learn that any lives have been lost in these last mentioned places.

It is thought that some years will be necessary to repair the damages sustained.

It is with pleasure we mention, that the inhabitants of the town of Basfeterre, and other parts of the island, have been plentifully supplied with provisions, and necessaries of all kinds.

In la Fayette's account of the attack made by the Austrians on his advanced guard at Maubeuge, it is said, "that the enemy suffered considerably from his cannon, and particularly from four pieces of *artillery on horseback*." This truly singular species of ordnance is, we understand, the invention of an ingenious gentleman of Glasgow, and

was communicated by him to M. la Fayette in summer last.

The free cities of the republic of Poland, have presented twelve cannon, twenty-four waggons of four wheels, and 150 horses to the Diet.

The king of Hungary's intended visit to Coblentz and the combined army against France is given up. The duke of Brunswick is to command that army, and it was thought inconsistent with his majesty's dignity, to visit an army not commanded by a subject of his own.

Letters from New York, by the Betsey, captain Mesnard, mention the particulars of a severe and wide-spreading calamity, which has occurred there in consequence of an excessive speculation in the funds of the United States. Two hundred failures have occurred there within these last two months.

The six *per cents*, which lately sold at 24s. 6d. the pound, have been as low as 19s. The three *per cents* and deferred debt, fell in the same proportion. Half bank shares, which about two months since sold at 210 *per cent*, have been sold at 95. In consequence of this fall, some of the first people there have been sunk at once from opulence to beggary. Its general effect has reached to every description of citizens.

This intelligence will forcibly operate against the credit of their intercourse with this country.

“At no time since the fatal 23d of August 1791, have the affairs of Hispaniola been in a more distracted state than they are at the present moment. The innumerable factions into which the people are divided, weaken every effort for the general good, and all is confusion and dismay.

“The situation of the town of Cape François was, by late advices from that quarter, reported to be so perilous, that in the dark nights the sentinels are sometimes stabbed at their posts; so great is the temerity of the revolvers, encouraged without doubt, by the discord and disunion which reign among the inhabitants.

“By the last account however from St-Mark's, in Hispaniola, we learn, that peace and order were again established at that place, a number of the most turbulent and refractory having been arrested and thrown into prison, with the approbation and assistance of the chiefs of their party. The exportation of cotton, therefore, from that quarter, which had experienced a temporary interruption, is again likely to be renewed.”

Letters were received by the mail of 16th from Holland announcing the demise of prince

Ferdinand duke of Brunswick, who died a few days since of an apoplexy in the 72d year of his age.

Vienna June 23. The fortress of Choczim is still in our possession; it is by some believed, that in consequence of the war between Russia and Poland, we shall still remain for an unlimited time in possession of this place; other persons say that at the peace of Czistove, it was agreed, that the prisoners of the two powers should be exchanged; our court scrupulously conformed, and restored all the Turks, but some thousands of Austrians who fell into the Turkish captivity are still missing.

As the Porte does not appear disposed to restore them, our court, it is said, has declared, that till the Divan shall have faithfully executed this article, the fortress of Choczim will be kept in possession.

DOMESTIC.

On July 6. came under the review of the Court of Session, a reclaiming petition, the action at the instance of the York Buildings Company against Mr Alexander Mackenzie, writer to the signet, for reducing and setting aside the sale of two lots of the estate of Winton, purchased by that gentleman in 1779;

the court, by their first interlocutor, had dismissed the action, and found Mr Mackenzie entitled to a certain part of his expences. But upon reviewing that judgement their lordships, by a majority, (six to five,) reduced the sales in question, thus altering their former interlocutor. They were all clear that there was no fraud in conducting the sales, but the majority were of opinion, that a common agent was barred from becoming a purchaser of an estate, the management and sale of which was committed to him by the court; and that it was incompatible for a person acting as agent for others, to be at the same time seller and purchaser. On these grounds chiefly the sales were reduced. There were two votes put,—the first Adhere or Alter, which stood as follows; Adhere 5, Alter 6. The next vote was, Whether the reduction should be *in totum*, or the sale sustained, and damages given? and it carried that the reduction should be *in totum*.

The president, whose vote is only admissible in case of equality, gave his opinion in favour of Mr Mackenzie.

The cause is again to come under the review of the court at the instance of Mr Mackenzie.

SHORT CHRONICLE

OF EVENTS.

August 15. 1792.

FOREIGN.

France.

QUEM Deus vult perdere prius dementit. The national assembly of France at present seems to be seized with a wonderful degree of infatuation. While a powerful confederacy is formed to invade their dominions, and while tumult and disorder reign in every part of the empire, instead of deliberating upon the measures that ought to be adopted for allaying these ferments, and repelling the attacks of invading foes with vigour, their time is taken up in listening to the most frivolous accusations from all parts against the king, the ministers, the generals of the army, and a variety of other individuals. Every man seems to distrust his neighbour; and no sooner does he entertain a prejudice against him, than he runs to the bar of the national assembly, where he utters his rage in the most vehement terms he can conceive; and, let the grounds of his complaint be ever so frivolous, or

the object he aims at ever so ridiculous, the most important discussions must give way to it. He is heard with patience to the end, and invited to the honour, as they call it, of the sitting. Never in this world was there exhibited such an humiliating view of an assembly of men who assume to themselves both the legislative and the judicial powers of a great nation. Every true friend of rational freedom must deplore this extraordinary infatuation, which threatens to overturn all that has been there done in the cause of liberty: for unless they shall lay their domestic animosities aside, and cordially unite to repel the invading foe, their efforts must be feeble and unavailing; and, should the enemy obtain power, who can say that they will not abuse it, in favour of that cause which kings must naturally deem peculiarly their own? The only effort that the national assembly has seriously made to counteract the operations of their enemies is,

that of endeavouring to induce their troops to desert, by holding out a premium to those who shall abandon the combined army. This they do without having provided effectual funds for even paying their own troops, or taking measures for establishing the permanency of their own authority, on which alone the permanency of the pensions they proffer can depend. They seem to forget that their own private dissensions must tend, in the most unequivocal manner, to weaken the confidence that ought to be reposed in them, and by this means to counteract the operation of this proclamation.

General Luckner, as well as Fayette, leaving the army he commanded, has appeared at the bar of the national assembly. His secretary has also appeared at the bar to deny the truth of the accusations against Fayette.

The combined army of Prussia and Austria, in the mean while, is forming, and preparing vigorously for an attack; while the French generals are fortifying themselves as well as they can on the frontiers.

A report prevails that Britain and Holland have made offer of their mediation to settle the difference between the contending parties; but the conduct of France with respect to the king, affords no room to hope that any reason-

able terms of accommodation will be there listened to, for the present.

The king of Prussia published a *concise exposition*, as he styles it, though it is too prolix for our bounds, of the reasons which have determined him to take up arms against France, dated at Berlin the 24th of July 1792. It consists, as usual, of complaints against the French for infraction of treaties, and a desire to preserve the balance of power in Europe, to free the king from prison, and to destroy the anarchy that unfortunately prevails in that kingdom, &c.

This was followed by a DECLARATION by the duke of BRUNSWICK LUNEBURG, commanding the *combined armies* of their majesties the emperor and the king of Prussia, to the people of France, dated Coblentz 25th July.

In this declaration he says, that, "convinced that the sober part of the French nation detest the excesses of a faction which has enslaved them, and that the majority of the inhabitants wait with impatience the moment when succours shall arrive, to declare themselves openly against the odious enterprises of their oppressors, his majesty the emperor, and his majesty the king of Prussia, earnestly invite them to return without delay into the paths

of reason and justice, of order and peace."

With that view he declares that the allied courts disclaim all idea of conquest for themselves; that they do not intend to intermeddle in the private government of France; but only to set the king at liberty; and put him into a place of safety, where he may summon a free convention of his subjects to settle such a form of government as they shall approve. He promises to protect the villages, and the persons and property of those who shall submit to the king; but that those towns or burghs which shall oppose them, shall be treated according to the most rigorous rules of war. He tells the inhabitants of Paris, that, "If the least violence be offered, the least outrage done, to their majesties, the king, the queen, and the royal family; if they be not immediately placed in safety, and set at liberty, they will inflict on *those who shall deserve it, the most exemplary and ever memorable avenging punishments, by giving up the city of Paris to military execution, and exposing it to total destruction*" He concludes thus:

"In fine, I declare and promise in my own individual name, and in my above quality, to cause to be observed every where, by the troops under my command, good and

strict discipline, promising to treat with mildness and moderation those well disposed subjects who shall submit peaceably and quietly, and to employ force against those only who shall be guilty of resistance or manifest evil intentions.

"I therefore call upon, and expect all the inhabitants of the kingdom, in the most earnest and forcible manner, not to make any opposition to the troops under my command; but rather to suffer them everywhere to enter the kingdom freely, and to afford them all the assistance, and shew them all the benevolence which circumstances may require."

Aug. 2. The following decree was passed by the national assembly, on the proposition of the extraordinary committee for the encouragement of persons coming over from the enemy.

"The National Assembly, considering that whatever is connected with the success of the French arms can admit of no delay, decrees that there is urgency.

"The National Assembly, considering that freemen alone have a country; that he who abandons a land of slavery to take refuge in a land of liberty, only avails himself of a lawful right; and that, on the part of a man deprived of his natural rights, no obligation can

exist towards the man who has wrested them from him :

“ Considering that no means ought to be neglected of terminating a war which the French nation has undertaken for the sole purpose of defending her constitution and her independence, and that among those means she ought, above all, to prefer such as, by tending to spare the effusion of human blood, are therefore most accordant with her principles :

“ Considering, in fine, that if the cause of liberty be the cause of all men, and if it be the duty and the best interest of all men to devote themselves to its defence, the French nation ought nevertheless, if it were only under the title of an indemnification, to give marks of her gratitude to those warriors, who shall come to range themselves under her colours, or quit those of her enemies in order not to be forced to turn their arms against a people, all whose wishes and whose principles are directed to the universal peace and happiness of mankind.

“ Desirous, moreover, of making known to foreign nations the principles of justice which always direct its conduct, decrees, as follows :

1. “ The non-commissioned officers and soldiers of the enemy’s armies, who, zealous to live in a land of liberty and equality, shall abandon the colours of a power at war with

France, and present themselves at any military post to any of the constituted authorities, or to a French citizen, shall be greeted with friendship and fraternity ; and to receive in the first instance, as a sign of adoption, a cockade of the three national colours.

2. “ The non-commissioned officers and soldiers, after declaring their wish to embrace the cause of liberty, shall receive as an indemnification for the sacrifice which they may have made, a brevet for a pension of a 100 livres a year, during their residence in France, to be paid in advance from three months to three months, by the receiver of the district in which they shall reside. They shall be admitted to take the civic oath, and a copy of the minute of their having taken this oath shall be delivered to them.

3. “ They shall receive a gratification of 50 livres to be paid by order of the military or civil officer, before whom they shall have made the declaration prescribed in article second.

4. “ They shall not be obliged to enter into any military engagement ; but such of them as chuse to do so, shall be admitted into any of the French corps in service without distinction.

5. “ Such of them as shall enter into these corps shall receive the usual bounties over

and above the gratification and pension.

6. "A list of them shall be formed, and a general aggregate of their pensions, which shall continue to be divided among the survivors of them in the manner of a tontine, till the pension of each amount to 500 livres a-year.

7. "The pension of a hundred livres shall be continued to the widows of such of them as shall marry in France.

* * * * *

14. "The National Assembly grants, as a security, the produce of the estates of the emigrants, the sale of which has been decreed, and collaterally the revenues of the state for the payment of the annuities above promised."

Several other provisions of less consequence are omitted.

Of all the violent steps that have been adopted in France since the commencement of the present disturbances, the following seems to be the most extraordinary, and clearly evinces what are the real views of the faction.

DEPOSITION OF THE KING.

The envoys of the commonalty, of Paris, with M. PETION demanded in the name of the forty-eight sections, that the KING should be excluded from the throne, that the management of affairs during the interregnum should be entrusted to responsible ministers,

until the election of a new KING in a national convention.

M. PETION supported his petition, by exhibiting a view of the KING's conduct since the revolution. "He has always," said he, "shewn himself an enemy to the people,—an enemy to the new laws,—and an enemy to France."

Evening sitting.

Mess. Ricard and Lewinte announced addresses from Avalon and Falaire, requesting that the king might be deposed. Several members moved that the address, presented by M. Petion in the morning from the forty-eight sections of Paris, should be printed.—Ordered

The king sent to the assembly dispatches which he had received from his ambassadors to the elector of Cologne and the duke of Wirtemberg. His majesty notified, that these two princes were preparing hostilities against France, and that no confidence was to be placed in the promise of neutrality made by the duke of Wirtemberg.

Mess. Thuriot and Grange-neuve, exclaimed against the treachery of the executive power, who assured the assembly, that nothing was to be apprehended from the petty princes of Germany. Thursday next was fixed by the assembly for determining the important question respec-

ting the deposition of the King.

Poland

The brave and unfortunate Poles are still suffered to fight their own battles, without the assistance of any foreign state. Since our last several skirmishes have taken place of no great consequence. The Poles have been in general obliged to yield to superior numbers, and old disciplined troops. Being obliged to act entirely on the defensive,—as is usual in such cases, the party who attacks has carried their point to a certain degree; but not an inch is gained without a well disputed contest. The progress of the Russians is thus extremely slow. In the mean while the Polish army is augmenting daily, and the most cordial unanimity seems to prevail among all orders of the state.

Private subscriptions are opened in London, and many other parts of Britain, for the relief of the Poles; and several considerable sums are said to be already raised by that means. But we hear of no public national interference in their favour.

Warsaw June 30th. Since the action of the 17th, at Zaslav, the Russians have made no further progress in Volhynia. From what we can learn, it seems the commander in chief is displeas'd with the conduct of prince Michael Lubomirski

and general Czapski, who each commanded a brigade in his army; he is of opinion that, had those two officers done their duty, the advantage over the Russians would have been still greater. They are in consequence to be tried by a court martial. This action at Zaslav is the first occasion on which the king has made use of the new order which his majesty has created for military merit. This order will consist of three classes: the first for general and staff officers, who will wear a gold cross suspended round their necks, by a red ribband; the second for subalterns, who will wear a gold medal with a red ribband through their button hole; the third for officers of an inferior rank, and soldiers, will be a silver medal with the same decorations. The king has sent seventeen crosses and a hundred medals to his nephew prince Joseph Poniatowski, to distribute among those who deserve them.

From the motions of the Russians Warsaw appears to be the place to which their chief attention is directed; his majesty, therefore, in consequence of the danger which threatens his capital, instead of joining, as was his attention, the army of the prince his nephew in Volhynia; is now anxious only for the safety of that in Lithuania. He has in consequence ordered his baggage

part of which was on its way to the Ukraine, to be sent back, and has given orders for a camp to be formed beyond the Vistula near Warsaw, to cover that city, and to be ready in case of necessity, to re-enforce the armies of generals Zabiello Judycki. The camp, it is supposed will consist of about 10,000 men. The regiment of Lithuanian horse guards, and some other corps, cavalry and infantry, arrived at the spot pitched on, yesterday.

East Indies.

By the arrival of the Northumberland from Madras, has been received a full confirmation of the treaty with Tippoo Saib; and though that prince has showed some inclination to procrastinate, yet it is not doubted but the steadiness of lord Cornwallis, will ultimately compel him to fulfil the stipulated conditions:

The definitive treaty was signed on the 19th of March, and the first payment, viz. one crore and sixty-five lacks of rupees has been already made by him. Part of that money it is said has been given to our troops.

Tippoo's sons, one ten and the other eight years of age, are very accomplished princes.

The present state of things in India will appear by the following extract of a letter to the Editor, dated Fort St Geo. 17th March 1792, which contains the most distinct account

of Tippoo's dominions that has ever yet appeared in print.

Our army is still at Seringapatam; there has been considerable delay in ascertaining the value of the money that has been paid. At last it has been agreed to take it at its current value. The ascertaining the value of the countries to be ceded, has also been the cause of much discussion, as it is supposed Tippoo has falsified the accounts of the revenue; all which might easily have been prevented by naming the countries to be ceded. The settling of this last point may detain our army some time at Seringapatam, where the barrenness of the surrounding country, the scarcity of forage for the cattle, the sickness that is gaining ground in the army, produced no doubt by the filth of so numerous an host encamped so long on the same ground, causes every delay to be of serious moment.

It is not yet certainly known what countries we shall keep; but it is supposed all his possessions on this side, below the Gauts or mountains, viz. Baramaal, Coimbatore, Dindigul, &c. countries, and Osore as a garrison in the Mysore country; the Malabar coast to be guaranteed to the different rajahs, by which we shall get all the trade of that coast, which will be of more value to the company for the European and China market, than most of their other possessions. The Mahrattas to have Sannore and Darwar; the Nizam, Canoul, Adoni and Cudapah.

The Mysore country would never have defrayed the expence in our hands of the establishment that must have been kept there; it is by no means capable of the same cultivation that the Carnatic is; the country, as far as I have seen, and I believe the whole of it, is undulated or gently waved in a wonderfully regular manner; and it is only in the hollows where the rain water can be retained by banks, that rice can be cultivated, which is the great crop, and, where it can be got, the only food of the natives; the cul-

ture of the small grains is more precarious, and they are less nourishing; for being on the high grounds, they can only be watered from the heavens, whereas the whole of the Carnatic, (by the regular slope from the Gauts to the sea, which is supposed by Dr Anderson to be ten feet in every mile,) may be cultivated by only raising sufficient banks to the eastward, to retain the rain that falls in the monsoon, which is so considerable, that in the course of six weeks, by accurate measurement, it was found near fifty inches had fallen at Madras; more afterwards fell, but the quantity I do not know; our last monsoon however was uncommonly severe, more so than had been known for many years.

“The elevation of the Mysore country above the sea must be very great. The passes on the Malabar coast have been ascended by the Bombay army with much difficulty; and on this coast on ascending the Padnadurgum pass one hundred miles from the sea, in an hour’s walk, I got into a country fifteen degrees cooler than the Carnatic.

“Tippoo, by all that appears, has been the friend of the poor; the rich he always took the liberty of plundering, and he had introduced many valuable and extensive manufactures in the pettah or town of Bangalore. Before our army came there, it is said 10,000 weaving families were maintained; and we found long streets, with almost every house filled with cotton; but the Mysore country can never maintain a great power, though an excellent one to defend, being every where protected by almost impregnable forts. Biddanore is the country with Coimbatore, that made Hyder so powerful; and as Tippoo is allowed to keep Biddanore, he is still very respectable.

“Our joy at the peace was very much damped by an unlucky circumstance that happened to general Meadows, whose zeal and personal bravery, being always foremost in every danger, had endeared him to the whole army. He had appeared unhappy ever since the attack of the lines, when the right wing which he commanded, after taking Lal-

ly’s redoubt, which was desperately defended, lost their way, by which they were unable to co-operate with lord Cornwallis, which they would have done had they pushed through the enemy’s camp to the river, before they turned to the left, by which it is supposed we should have entered Seringapatam along with Tippoo, at least we must have taken every thing he was possessed of out of the fort.

“On the 26th ult. when the two hostages were delivered, and every thing was settled, he went to his tent, and was with difficulty prevented from doing a rash deed, that all the army, and almost every person in India would have long deplored. It seems he imagined that the army conceived this mistake on the 6th, was done on purpose to prevent the complete victory that lord Cornwallis would otherwise have gained; and that he could not convince them to the contrary but by this rash act. I am very happy, however, to tell you, that he has recovered, and is now out of danger, and easy in mind, being convinced that the army have always given him the greatest credit for his cheerful and zealous co-operation with lord Cornwallis on all occasions. You will observe that in these circumstances there is a peculiar delicacy in lord Cornwallis’s public thanks to the army, in which he mentions Meadows in the most handsome terms.

“We are now all enjoying the happiness that peace gives, and it took place most opportunely for the collection of the crops; for in our northern circles there is a most dreadful famine raging; one half, nay three fourths of the inhabitants destroyed, the country every where being covered with human bones. The failure of the crops in some measure in Bengal, which obliges the government to lay an embargo on the exportation of grain, has made the devastation so great; and if the Carnatic had been reduced to similar distress, which might have happened at this time by the invasion of a few horse preventing the collection of the crop, we should have been but little benefitted by our conquests.”

Yours, &c.

SHORT CHRONICLE

OF EVENTS.

August 29. 1792.

FOREIGN.

Poland.

THE struggle in Poland is now over. Justice has been obliged to give way to force. The Russian troops, supported by continual reinforcements, bore every thing before them, so that necessity constrained the king and the nobles of that unfortunate kingdom to submit to the laws the empress has thought proper to impose upon them. The particulars have not yet reached us; but it is probable that her eagerness to join the confederacy against France, may induce the empress to be more moderate in respect to Poland, than she otherwise would have been. Should the confederated armies prove successful in France, it is not at all impossible but they, at a future period, may differ among themselves as to the final settlement of the constitution of Poland.

The Warsaw gazette of the 25th July informs us, that the combination of three powerful

neighbouring states, while the Poles were left without the aid of a single ally, reduced them to the mortifying necessity of agreeing to an accommodation with Russia, to prevent a partition of their territories among their unfeeling, and, we may say, treacherous neighbours.

The king, finding not only that his ally the king of Prussia had deserted him, but that he had joined the empress in her ambitious and tyrannical views, called a meeting of the deputies of the different provinces upon the 23d of July, to deliberate on the best measures to be pursued for the welfare of the country. Of two evils they were obliged to choose the least; either to have their country entirely destroyed by the immense armies which were overrunning it, and perhaps to have their existence as a state annihilated, or to agree to the haughty terms imposed upon them by their too powerful neighbours.

The king was obliged to an-

nal, not only the constitution of 3d May 1791, and agree to the re-establishment of that which existed before the revolution, but even to order the army under prince Poniatowski to be delivered up to the Russian general Brinicki. This was to take place according to the agreement on the 29th July.

Many people, however, have dissented from the general resolution. Malachowzki, Potocke, Sapiheat, Soltik, &c. refused to sign the reconferation. Upwards of 4000 nobles, and several others, assembled, calling out, "*The constitution without the king!*" They sought after Malachowzki, prince Sapiheat, Potocke, and Soltik, and carried them round in public.

In the grand dukedom of Lithuania in particular, a spirit of resistance still seems to manifest itself. What a disgrace to the policy of Europe, that not one state could be found friendly to a cause so honourable to humanity!—It is not many months since Europe was on the eve of a general war for a barren territory between the Bog and the Dneister, to preserve the *balance of power*; and now a whole kingdom has been allowed to fall a victim to the ambition of Russia, without a single suspicion being thrown out by any one power that the same *balance* would be thereby endangered!

The following are additional circumstances:—the empress of Russia, desirous, as she pretended, of stopping the farther effusion of blood, sent orders to her generals to propose an armistice, which was accepted. She afterwards wrote a letter with her own hand, to the king of Poland, in which she pointed out the folly of his attempting to defend the new constitution by the force of arms, as she was resolved to double and even triple her army, if necessary, in order to overturn it. She at the same time informed him, that the courts of Berlin and Vienna, *fully agreed in sentiments with her*; and that farther obstinacy on his part would induce these powers to unite their forces against him.

This letter made such an impression on the mind of Stanislaus, that he immediately resolved to sign a renunciation of the new constitution; and this intention he communicated to the diet of Warsaw, which will even be dissolved to give place to that of Tangowitz.

It is, however, stated with much confidence, and we believe on good authority, that the new constitution will not be entirely annulled, but undergo considerable alterations. One article is, "That the succession to the throne of Poland shall be settled on prince Con-

stantine Paulowitz, second son of the grand duke of Rufsia, and his heirs male.

This sudden change in the political hemisphere, has been communicated by express to every court in Europe. The king, it is said, deeply affected in being thus disappointed of carrying his beneficent views into execution, has resolved to retire from the supreme management of affairs, and even from the capital, where in future he can experience nothing but mortification. With regard to the elector of Saxony this event proves that he acted like a wise and prudent prince, in not rashly accepting the crown which was offered him.

Prince Constantine Paulowitz, who has been named to the Polish succession, was born on the 8th of May 1779; and his appointment will, no doubt, at any rate prevent the dread of a partition. The empress after settling this affair, it is not impossible, may think of extending her territories more southward, and even her good friends and allies, Austria and Prussia, by their *wavering* actions, may one day be engaged in a war of her kindling.

France.

Critical as the situation of France has been for many months past, it is, at the present moment, still more critical than ever: nor is there an instance in the annals of past history of a great nation ever be-

ing similarly circumstanced. The constitution established by the last national assembly, and sworn to by every individual of the nation a few months ago entirely set aside; the king superseded, and in prison, and under order for trial: all the judges of the land displaced, and a new set of judges elected by the people to take cognizance of the crimes alleged to have been committed by many hundreds of citizens recently cast into prison; three great armies on the frontiers already entered, or ready to enter the dominions of France; the generals who command the armies that are to oppose them, superseded by the party at present in power, and ordered into confinement for trial; one half of these armies declared for the former constitution, and the other half for the present order of things. Such, in a few words, is the present situation of affairs in France. That order may soon come out of confusion, and that peace may follow, with a settled form of government, that shall be calculated to protect the lives and property, and secure the liberties of the people, ought to be the wish of every good man!

Our limits prevent us from giving a detailed account of these transactions; but the following particulars will mark the nature of them with sufficient distinctness.

Thursday Aug. 9. Midnight, the alarm bell sounded in every quarter; *the general* was beat, and the citizens hurried to arms.

Soon after, the Assembly were informed that M. Petion, who had gone to the palace for the purpose of preserving tranquillity, was detained there as an hostage for the KING's safety.

The Assembly ordered M. Petion to appear at the bar—he soon appeared, and reported the different measures which he had adopted for the public safety. He was applauded, and desired to return to his duty.

Friday morning, Aug. 10. As day-light approached, the minister of justice entered the hall, imploring for the king that protection from the Assembly, which, from the outrageous conduct of the mob assembled in the Thuilleries, he had but little reason to expect from the affections of the people.

While they were deliberating upon the most proper measures to be adopted in this awful and alarming crisis, some municipal officers announced, that a *new provisional administration* had been formed at the Commons Hall; that the people, assembled in their different sections, had named commissioners, who, in virtue of their powers, had denominated

themselves, a *general council of the community*; and that the municipality had been suspended during the continuance of this temporary authority; Mefs. PETION, MANUEL, and DANTON, being the only members allowed to remain in the exercise of their functions. They added, that M. PETION was surrounded by a numerous body of the people, who had conducted him to his house, in order to protect his person and property; and that the *provisionary administration* had placed M. SANTERRE at the head of public force, forbidding him to obey the staff-officers, or any other authority but theirs.

The assembly resumed the discussion of the main question; but were again interrupted by the news of atrocities committing in different quarters of the city.

About nine o'clock in the morning, almost every person who could procure arms, hurried towards the Thuilleries, calling for the dethronement of the king—adding, that he was a traitor, and had forfeited the confidence of the nation.

The king, alarmed at the furious dispositions manifested by the people, left the Thuilleries; and, attended by the Swiss regiment of guards, proceeded to the National Assembly, accompanied by the queen, his sister, and the royal children. He first placed himself by the side

of the president, and afterwards retired to the bar with his family; but as, according to the terms of the constitution, the assembly could not perform the functions of a deliberative body while he was present, he was desired to remove into one of the boxes set apart for the use of the editors of newspapers.

The assembly then sent ten commissioners to endeavour to appease the people.

In the mean time, detachments from the national guard, citizens armed with pikes, and a number of the Marseillèse and Federates, ranged themselves in the *Place de Carouzel*, and proceeded to attack the palace, which was guarded by a body of Swifs.

The Swifs having been insulted, and hard pressed upon by those who came against them, were at last obliged to fire in their own defence, and, at first, the mob were put to flight; but, being reinforced by the Marseillèse and Federates from Brest, as well as by a great number of Parisians, they rallied again, and commenced a heavy fire against their opponents.

The gates being at last voluntarily opened by the Swifs, or violently forced by the mob, an obstinate combat ensued; the Swifs defending themselves with signal bravery, and the populace continuing the attack with the most sanguinary fury.

At last, horrid to relate! the Swifs were obliged to yield to superior force; and, almost to a man, were inhumanly butchered! They, however, sold their lives dear, and did not yield till they had killed several hundreds of their opponents.

Among the victims sacrificed on this occasion, to popular frenzy, besides the Swifs guards, and their colonel M, d'Affry, were the abbé Bouillon, Messieurs Carle, Mandat, and many others.

After the mob had got possession of the palace, an immense crowd burst into the different apartments; some of whom carried to the Assembly the queen's jewels, valuable effects, money, and important papers. The furniture was taken to the sections, after an inventory of it had been made, and the papers were sent to the committee of safety.

The statues of Louis xiv. and xv. were destroyed.

During this tumult, while the noise of cannon was heard in the assembly, and several shots even entered the windows, the members still continued their deliberations, the Jacobin party exclaiming, *Liberty! Equality!* and all raising their hands towards heaven, swearing they would die to save their country.

It was observed, that many members, either through fear, or from some other motive,

were absent: It was, therefore, considered as of importance to make a call of the house to determine who were present: this being decreed, each member took the following oath:

“ I swear, in the name of the nation, to maintain liberty and equality, or to die at my post !

DOMESTIC.

Lord Cornwallis has signified his intention of returning to Europe in January next,—his lordship will be accompanied home by general Meadows.

General Meadows at his re-

turn, is to be invested with one of the vacant knightships of the bath.

Lord Macartney succeeds earl Cornwallis as governor general in India,—his lordship will, after concluding his embassy to China, embark from thence to Madras.

The mayor of Leeds has issued orders to the manufacturers adjoining, to send patterns of their commodities to lord Macartney, to be shown by his lordship in china. Halifax, Huddersfield, Wakefield, Bradford, and almost every manufacturing town in the kingdom, are adopting the same measure.

Whitehall Aug. 21.

The definitive treaty with Tippoo Sultan, was received at the India house overland yesterday from Bombay.

ABSTRACT OF THE ARTICLES IN THE TREATY.

I. The treaties of 1770, with Hyder Ally Khan, and of 1784, with Tippoo Sultan are confirmed.

II. The fourth article of the preliminary treaty, by which Tippoo agrees to yield half the country, and pay certain sums of money therein stipulated, and deliver two of his sons as hostages, for the performance of these stipulations is ratified.

III. The general abstract of the countries ceded by Tippoo, are hereunto subjoined, and the detail of them is inserted in a separate schedule, bearing the seal and signature of Tippoo Sultan.

Districts ceded to the honourable English Company.

Calicut 63 talooks	—	—	—	—	848765	5	4
Palgancherry	—	—	—	—	83000	0	0
Dindigul and Pulnaveerpachry 2 talooks	—	—	—	—	90000	0	0
Salem	—	—	—	—	24000	0	0
Koosh	—	—	—	—	8000	0	0
Namkool	—	—	—	—	16000	0	0
Sunkagherry	—	—	—	—	40000	0	0

Carried forward,

1114765 5 4

	Brought forward,		
Barab Mekul, 9 talooks, viz.		1114765	5 4
Barab Satal	64000	0	0
Covesaultun	10000	0	0
Verbudderdroog	8000	0	0
Pipcootah	8000	0	0
Kangoondie	6000	0	0
Daranpoury	8000	0	0
Pennagar	10000	0	0
Tengrycottah	12000	0	0
Coverypoor	8000	0	0
		<hr/>	
Ahtoor Arruntgurry		134000	0 0
Permuttee		18000	0 0
Shadmungul		14000	0 0
Vamloor		20000	0 0
		<hr/>	
		16000	0 0

<i>Districts ceded to the Nawwab Afsoph Jah Bebauder.</i>		1316705	5 4
Jalook Herpan, 61 talooks		853649	3 3
The Doab 15 talooks		1648099	0 0
Deduct as follows.			
In the Peihwa's share,	1306666	6 10	
Remains with Tippoo Sultan, Anagoody	61101	0 0	
		<hr/>	
		1366767	6 10

Remains to the Nawwab Afsoph Jah		281331	6 3
Bangupilly and Chinchumulla, 2 talooks		41804	9 8
Singputtun and Chilwara		20000	0 0
Oak		20000	0 0
Hanwantgooud		15000	0 0
Winipilly vemla		12565	0 0
Moaka		12162	6 14

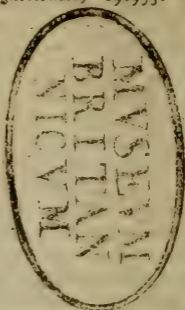
<i>In Gooty 4 talooks, viz.</i>			
Tarpatry,		19055	0 4
Tamurry		13072	8 0
Velanoor		8800	0 0
Singunmully		10855	0 0
		<hr/>	
		51782	8 4
Biswapoor		5000	0 0
Buthary, Koorkoor, &c. 2 talooks		35000	0 0
Deduct			
Remains with Tippoo, 2 talooks, Koorkoor and Dammoor		12000	0 0
In Koorkoor		23000	0 0
		<hr/>	
		370	2 5

<i>Districts ceded to Row Pundit Purdbaun Bebauder.</i>		1316666	6 11
The Doub, 15 talooks		1648099	3 2
Deduct remains with Tippoo Sultan, Anagoody, 1 talook			
	60101	0 0	
In the share of the Nawwab Afsoph Jah.			
Kopul, 8 talooks	106137	3 9	
Kaneckgurry do.	79100	0 0	
In Gajendergur	96094	2 55	281331 6 8
		<hr/>	
		341432	6 8

Carried forward,

1989531 9 10

<i>Remains to Row Pundit Puradhaun, viz.</i>		<i>Brought forward,</i>		1989531	9	12
Dawar 8 talooks,	138536	8	5			
Hawanoor, 2 do.	30604	2	5			
Dummoor —	15394	6	6			
Bankapoor, 16 do. —	250426	6	7			
Sirkully 4 do. —	64843	7	10			
Keloor 11 do. —	143397	4	3			
Godduck 4 do. —	45297	1	9			
Jaliekal, 5 do. —	73185	0	14			
Dummul 4 do. —	49090	5	12			
Shanore 26 do. —	340946	7	13			
Lamgurry Soudunhy	148953	8	0			
<i>In Gujenderghur</i>						
8 talooks	101977	9	6			
<i>Deduct in shire of</i>						
Nawaub Afsoph						
Jah	96094	2	5			
		5883	6	7		
				1306666	6	10
<i>From Gooty.</i>						
Sundoor, —				10000	0	0
				1316666	6	0
Districts ceded to the honourable English Co. brought down,				1316765	5	4
Districts ceded to the Nawaub Afsoph Jah Behauder, ditto				1316660	6	11
Districts ceded to Row Pundit Purdhaun Behauder, ditto				1316666	6	0
Grand Total in pagodas,				3950098	8	9



iv. Provides that exchanges shall be mutually made of such parts of the above ceded districts, as shall be inconveniently situated for either party, for others of equal value in a more convenient situation.

v. Provides for the easy delivery of forts, and avoiding disputes about outstanding balances respecting them, the delivery of prisoners, and the removal of the allied armies.

vi. Whatever guns and shot shall be left by Tippoo Sultan in the forts which the said Tippoo Sultan has agreed to cede to the allied powers, an equal number of guns and shot shall be left in the forts which the allied powers have agreed to restore to Tippoo Sultan.

vii. Zemindars and Aumildars in balance to either party, shall not be sheltered by the other; and provides for the adjustment of disputes that shall arise.

viii. The Polygars and Zemindars of this country who in the course of the present war have attached themselves and been serviceable to the allies, shall not on that account, in any shape, or manner, be injured or molested by Tippoo Sultan.

Signed and sealed in camp near Seringapatam, this 18th day of March, 1791.

CORNWALLIS.

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Transf. P. B. A.



