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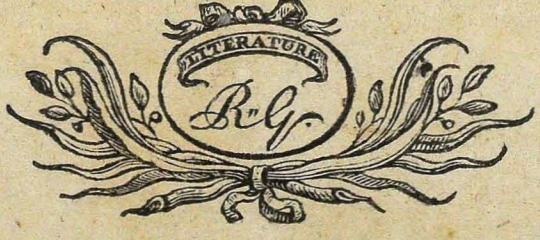
With an APPENDIX.

Ex vitio alterius, sapiens emendat suum.
P. SYRUS.

VOLUME XLIV.



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ERRATA in Volume XLIV.

Page 5. l. 10. take the comma from 'raised,' and place it after 'Lloyd.'
61. l. 8. for 'verdict,' read *result*.
91. l. 31. put a semicolon after 'sought.'
98. l. penult, for 'Dr.' read *Mr.*
257. l. 27. for 'This,' read *Thus*.
261. l. 33. for 'revival,' read *revisal*.
262. l. 32. for 'satirical,' read *statistical*.
354. l. 10. put a semicolon after 'schemes.'
383. l. 8. for 'to,' read *with*.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For MAY, 1804.

ART. I. *The History and Antiquities of Reading.* By the Reverend Charles Coates, LL.B. Vicar of Osmington, and Preston, in the County of Dorset, F.A.S. 4to. pp. 464. 1l. 10s. 6d. Boards. Nichols, Robinsons, &c.

THOSE works which belong to the class of local history may, in general, be compared to repositories, the structure of which is humble, and in which articles endlessly various are stowed, but the majority of them being of an inferior description. If magnificence and elegance must not here be sought, neatness may be attained, and convenience consulted; the building may be happily contrived, the contents exhibited in their best state, and arranged in the order which is most commodious. When the literary architect aims at more than this effect, he is sure to occasion disgust; if he falls short, offensive blemishes will be evident. The author before us appears fully to have comprehended the nature of his province; and to have spared no labour which was requisite, in order properly to execute the undertaking in which he engaged. He is intitled to praise for his diligence in collecting facts, for his judgment in sorting them, for the accuracy with which he weighs them, and for the fidelity and impartiality which throughout distinguish his narrative.

The place which is the subject of this history 'is a handsome borough town, situated on the Bath road, in the Eastern part of Berkshire, where the county is narrowest, between Oxfordshire and Hampshire; at the distance of 39 miles from London, and 67 from Bath, in longitude 0° 52′ West; latitude 51° 28′ North. It stands on the Kennet; and is surrounded, to the North, with rich meadows washed by the Thames, having a beautiful view, extending from Mapledurham to Sunning.' The first mention made of it in our early annals occurs in 871, when the Danes, under Hinguar and Hubba overcame in battle, and put to death, Edmund king of the East Angles; made themselves masters of Reading, re-

tained it during the summer, and then quitted it in order to take up their winter quarters in London. In the year 1006, in the reign of Ethelred II, Sweyn king of Denmark burnt this as well as several other towns in Berkshire.

The account of Reading in Domesday book stands thus:

"The king holds in demesne Redinges. King Edward held in Redinges the hundred. Then and now it defends itself for forty-three hides. The arable land is of forty carucates. One is in demesne; and fifty-five villeins, and thirty bordars, with fifty-five ploughs. There are four mills of eighty-five shillings, and three fisheries of fourteen shillings and six pence, and a hundred and fifty acres of meadow. The wood can feed a hundred hogs, the feed of which is worth sixteen shillings and six pence. In the time of king Edward, and afterwards, it was worth forty pounds; now forty-eight pounds.

"The king has in the burgh of Redinges twenty-eight hagas or houses, paying four pounds and three shillings for all customs; but he who holds it pays a hundred shillings. Henry de Fereres has there one haga, and half a virgate of land, in which are three acres of meadow, worth six shillings. Goderic, the sheriff, held this land for the purpose of making it inhabited. For the same purpose Henry holds it.

"Rembaldus, son of Peter the bishop, held one haga there, which he removed to Erley, his own manor. Now it is in the king's hands, and is worth sixteen pence."

On this description, the author observes;

'By this account the hundred-court, or court of judicature for the hundred, was held at Reading in the Confessor's time; and the town, both then, and at the time of the compiling Domesday Book, was taxed at forty-three hides; each hide, in the general opinion, being 120 acres. In the Confessor's time, when each hide was taxed at two shillings, Reading paid, for the demesne land only, eighty-six shillings. In five or six years after the general survey of the kingdom, the tax on land was raised by the Conqueror to six shillings a hide.

'Reading is said to have paid for forty-three hides in king Edward's time; and then follows its present measure of forty carucates. The abbreviation *car.* means both a *carucate*, and a plough, *caruca*; so that we find one, out of these forty carucates, in demesne; and, on that carucate, 55 villeins, or tenants at will, subject to base and uncertain services; and 30 bordars, such as were of a less servile condition than the villeins, having a bord or cottage, with a small portion of land, or, according to other interpretations, such as furnished the lord's board with poultry and some other provisions. On this carucate in demesne were 55 ploughs. The whole land, with the service of the tenants, three mills, three fisheries, and the feed of a hundred hogs, was worth in king Edward's time forty pounds, and at the time of the Norman survey forty eight pounds.

'The king had in Reading twenty-eight hagas or houses, which paid four pounds three shillings for all customs; but the bailiff who managed

managed it for the king paid a hundred shillings; for it was no rare thing that the person who held property under the crown paid more than he received. These expressions are not uncommon in Domesday: "Firma nimis alta est;" the farm is at too high a rent. "In firma multum perdit;" he is a great loser by the rent which he pays to the crown. Henry de Ferrariis or Ferrers had one haga, and half a virgate of land, in which were three acres of meadow, valued at six shillings. He rented this land, as Goderic the sheriff had done, "ad hospitium," in order that it might be built upon, and inhabited.

'This Henry de Ferrers was one of the commissioners for surveying Worcestershire, and other counties. William the Conqueror gave him Tutbury castle, in Staffordshire, with large possessions in that county, Berks, Oxfordshire, Wilts, Lincoln, Bucks, and Gloucester, amounting to a hundred and seventy-six lordships. His youngest and only surviving son Robert, who succeeded him, was created earl of Nottingham and Derby by king Stephen in 1138. The title continued in that family till the attainder of Robert, sixth earl of Derby, who took part with the barons against Henry the Third; and, after having been deprived of his title and estates by the parliament, died in 1278.

'Rembaldus, or Renbaldus, as he is sometimes called, is probably the same with Renbald the priest, whose name occurs several times in Domesday. He was dean of the collegiate church of Cirencester, in the body of which he lies buried, with this inscription:

"Hic jacet Rembaldus presbyter quondam hujus ecclesiæ decanus et tempore Edvardi regis Angliæ cancellarius."

'He is called the son of Peter the bishop, probably Peter bishop of Coventry and Lichfield, called Chester, on account of the see being removed by him thither.'

The first part of this volume is occupied by a narrative of those public and political events which took place at Reading; such as the residence of the court, its visits, sittings of the parliament and of courts of justice, sieges, battles in the vicinity, and others of like importance. This town is often mentioned in the history of the last civil war. The corporation adhering to the royal cause, the friends of the parliament circulated the following story respecting the Mayor:

"At the king's coming to Reddinge, a speech was made unto him by the maior of the towne; wherein, after he had in the best words he could devise, bid him welcome thither, for want of more matter he concluded very abruptly. Not long after, he invited prince Robert to a sumptuous dinner, providing for him all the dainties he could get, but especially a woodcock, which he brought in himself. Prince Robert gave him many thanks for his good cheere, and asked him whose was all that plate that stood upon the cupboard. The mayor, who had set out all his plate to make a shew, and besides had borrowed a great deal of his neighbours to grace himself withal, replied, "And please your highness, that plate is mine." "No,"

quoth the prince, "this plate is mine;" and so accordingly he took it all away, bidding him to be of good cheere, for he took it, as the parliament took it, upon the publick faith."

With regard to the origin of the corporation of Reading, Mr. Coates informs us that,

'It was the same as that of all other corporate bodies; a fraternity, or gild, that is, an association of persons united in trade, and governed by private regulations of their own establishment. The society of Gild-merchants of Reading was undoubtedly very antient; existing before the foundation of the abbey, and claiming a charter, or grant of privileges, from Edward the Confessor. All the early records concerning the gild are lost; the oldest diary of the corporation of Reading, now extant, beginning with the mayoralty of John Kyrkby, in 1432, the tenth of Henry the Sixth.'—

'Whatever claim the members of the gild might have had to any charter, or grant, of protection from the crown, it was annulled at the erection of the abbey. In the words of the charter, the royal founder says, "I have given to the said monastery Reading itself, Cholsey also, and Leominster, with their appendages;" from which it seems, that, if the fraternity paid any thing to the crown for their gild, this was virtually assigned over to the abbey with the other crown-rents of the town, which was a royal demesne; and the fine paid to the abbat at the entry of a new member of the gild-merchant reverted to the crown after the dissolution of the abbey.'

The mayor was chosen by the abbot, out of 3 persons presented to him by the burgesses: but there were almost constant disputes and frequent lawsuits between the gild and the abbot, touching the rights of the latter over the former.

On the dissolution of the abbey, the corporation was made independent. It had its governing charter from Charles I.; in which, however, a few slight alterations have been made by those of the 1st and 10th of Charles II.

The details of what may be considered as the internal affairs of this borough are given under three heads, forming the several histories of the three parishes into which it is divided, namely those of St. Mary, St. Lawrence, and St. Giles. The parochial histories severally include accounts of the sacred edifices, antient religious foundations, monumental inscriptions, the incumbents, the terrier, benefactions, registers, meeting houses, and the parish books.

Among the vicars intitled to notice, stands the name of Peter Mews, who died Bishop of Winchester; and who, according to A. Wood,

'Was a prelate eminent in the duties of his profession, and remarkable for his hospitality, generosity, and justice; but bishop Burnet is pleased to describe him as a man of no abilities nor learning, whom obsequiousness and zeal raised to the height of his preferment.

ferment. He died at Farnham castle, November 9, 1706, aged 88, and was buried in Winchester cathedral in a vault belonging to the lord-treasurer Weston, with a short inscription on a small square stone. A neat marble monument has since been erected to his memory, by Dr. Butler, president of Magdalen college, Oxford, and principal registrar of the diocese of Winchester; with a Latin epitaph, composed by William Lowth, B.D. his lordship's chaplain, the commentator on the Prophets, and father of the late bishop of London.'

We find also William Lloyd raised, afterward to the see of Worcester, distinguished by the share which he took in the Popish controversies, and by his being one of the seven Bishops:

'Bishop Burnet speaks of Bishop Lloyd with the greatest warmth of friendship, and in the highest stile of panegyrick. In reality he was indebted to Dr. Lloyd for a great part of his own fame, having undertaken the History of the Reformation by his persuasion, and being furnished by him with a large share of the materials: he likewise revised every sheet of the whole work, during the printing. The world is likewise obliged to bishop Lloyd for that stupendous work, Pole's Synopsis; which was undertaken by his advice, as appears by a letter of that prelate addressed to Mr. Henry Dodwell, and communicated to Mr. Granger by his son, the late Dr. Dodwell, archdeacon of Berks. Bishop Wilkins, in his preface to "An Essay towards a real Character and a Philosophical Language," acknowledges himself obliged to "the continual assistance of his most learned and worthy friend Dr. William Lloyd," and expresses the highest opinion of his "great industry, and accurate judgment, in philological and philosophical matters."

Among the incumbents of St. Lawrence, occurs the name of Simon Ford, who was appointed to it during the troubles; and connected with whose history is an anecdote which affords no very favourable specimen of the liberty of those times, nor of the independence and purity of that clergy who had so loudly inveighed against the servility and corruption of the episcopalians, whom they supplanted, and whom they appear to have exceeded in the very vices against which they had complained. The author gives an account of a funeral sermon preached by Dr. Ford on the death of Colonel Hammond, and observes:

'This Colonel Hammond had been governor of the Isle of Wight; and was the person to whom Charles I. surrendered himself, after he withdrew from Hampton Court in 1647. He was much in the confidence of Cromwell; and, by his advice, had been married to a daughter of John Hampden, whose memory he adored.

'At the time of his death, Colonel Hammond had been "called to an eminently civil and military trust in Ireland, and chosen high steward, and burgesse in parliament," says the author, "for this corporation."

'Dr. Ford had been very active in supporting his election; the circumstances of which occasioned the following ludicrous account of it, in a publication of that time: "An admirable speech made by the maior of Reading, upon the occasion of the late choice of a burgess for that town, June 28, 1654; with a true and impartial narrative of the whole proceedings thereupon. Wherein is discovered the design of the said maior, with the aldermen and priests of the said town, to deprive the inhabitants of their right of voting." A small 4to. of six pages, printed at London, 1654.

'According to the narrative of the author, "the sheriff of the county having proclaimed the writ for summoning a parliament to meet at Westminster the 3d of September next, Mr. Frewen, the maior of Reading, appointed Wednesday, the 28th of June last, at ten of the clock, for the inhabitants of the said town to meet in the town hall, in order to the choice of a burgess; and that, at the day and hour aforesaid, the writ for choice should be read. The people met accordingly, between nine and ten of the clock. The maior and aldermen withdrew themselves in private (as did appear), to chuse a parliament man; for, as soon as the clock had stricken ten, his worship, with all his retinue, came into open court, which being full of inhabitants, the cryer proclaimed silence, and then the town-clerk, with an audible voice, did read the writ for a choice of a burgess as aforesaid; which being done, the maior made a speech to the people; such a one as it was, however, it was not much unlike his actions: which speech (for the singularity thereof) I have here inserted; and it is as followeth:

"Why d' yee hear me? Here is a writ directed to me to chuse a burgess to serve in parliament, and we have chosen Colonel Hammond; and him we will have, and I will return the writ for him." "What, right or wrong, Mr. Maior," said a gentleman that stood by. "I," said Mr. Maior; "we have chosen him, and will return the writ for him; and therefore you may go home again (said he to the inhabitants). Is not the writ directed to us (said he, meaning himself and aldermen); and we have chosen Colonel Hammond, and we will have him." It was then said that a considerable part of the electors excepted against Colonel Hammond, and had made choice of Captain Castle; "a man of conscience, wisdom, and valour;" and there appeared five to one for Captain Castle.

'The mayor still affirmed that the power of election lay in himself and the aldermen, and refused a poll; but "drew the inhabitants into a field called the Forbury; and in the said field the difference remained for matter of number, as before, on Captain Castle's side." The mayor still refused a poll, and returned to the town-hall, where he took such names as were brought him; "parson Fowler standing up above the people, in the maior's presence, vaunting as in a stage play, and persuading the people to subscribe for Colonel Hammond."

The same Simon Ford declared in an assize sermon that, "In the little town of Reading, he was verily persuaded, if Augustin's and Epiphanius's catalogue of heresies were lost, and

and all other modern and antient records of that kind, yet it would be no hard matter to restore them, with considerable enlargements, from that place. *That one of the most eminent church-livings in that county was possessed by a blasphemer, and one in whose house he believed some there could testify that the devil was as visibly familiar as any one of the family.*"

Fowler was a noted fanatical preacher of these times, and one of those called triers, persons invested by the parliament with power to eject from their livings those clergymen whose principles or conduct they chose to disapprove. There was no appeal from this inquisitorial tribunal; and had not the interference of Dr. Owen been successful, the excellent and most learned Dr. Pococke would have been driven from his cure by a set of these ghostly judges.

In this parish, once stood the famous Abbey of Reading: but it is supposed that there had been religious foundations in this town prior to that which king Henry I. began in 1121, and 'to which he annexed the lands of Cholsey, in Berkshire; of Leominster, in Herefordshire, and Reading itself; with all their appendages, woods, arable and pasture lands, meadows, waters, mills, and fisheries; together with their churches, chapels, cemeteries, tithes, and oblations; and with a mint, and one mintmaster at Reading.' The Abbots of this house were distinguished by very large prerogatives, privileges, and immunities. They were invested with a general judicial authority within their district, administered justice among their tenants, conferred knighthood, and coined money under certain restrictions.

'There are various instances in which the abbats of Reading claimed and exercised judicial authority. One William Brun, found in the act of hunting in Windsor forest, was pursued to Reading, and imprisoned by the abbat, who refused to deliver him up to Galfridus de Pickford, constable of Windsor castle; which refusal was sanctioned by Edward I. as appears from a precept, dated at Caermarthen, July 18, in the eleventh year of his reign. In a case of murder, Edward I. issued a precept to the abbat, to deliver up the criminals, taken at Reading, to the sheriff of the county; but with this express provision, that it should not be made a precedent in future.'

This foundation experienced a large share of the liberality of Henry's royal successors, by whom it was enriched with numerous grants.

'According to Tanner, the abbey was finished in about four years; but the church was not consecrated till the reign of Henry II. in 1164, as is said by Matthew Paris; on the octaves of Easter, as the Wollascot MS. expressly mentions. The ceremony was performed by Archbishop Becket, attended by his suffragan bishops;

the king himself being present; as a charter of king John, which recites the donation of 40 marks out of the manor of Hoo, says it was granted by Henry II. on the day of dedication. Henry I. past the latter part of his reign between England and Normandy: during the turbulent times that followed his decease, it cannot be surprising that structures, sacred or profane, should lie neglected; therefore it seems more reasonable to conclude, that the abbey-church was not dedicated till 1164, than that it was then dedicated a second time.

'The monks of this abbey were of the Benedictine order, or rather of that branch which is called Cluniack; for they are so styled in several of the papal bulls. Henry of Huntingdon and Ordericus Vitalis tell us the abbey was originally endowed for two hundred monks; but, at the election of abbat Quappelade in 1305, there were only 65, two of which were incapacitated from voting: John de Sutton, said to be excommunicated, and John de Boxe, reported to be an idiot. By an inquisition taken in the 50th of Edward III. the number was one hundred only.

'The abbat of Reading was a mitred abbat, and a peer of parliament: he took place, it is said, next to the abbats of Glastonbury and St. Alban's. In the account of Henry VII.'s funeral, in Leland's Collectanea, vol. iii, at the "solemne Dirige, my lord of London was executor officii, and attendant upon him the abbat of St. Albone's and the abbat of Reading, revested and mytred." The body was received at Charing cross by the abbats of Westminster, St. Alban's, Reading, and Winchcombe: it was watched that night; and the next day were sung three masses; the second by the bishop of Winchester, "the abbat of St. Alban's being his deacon, and the abbat of Reading his subdeacon." But in several writs of summons to Parliament, as in the 49th of Henry III. where the abbot of Reading is the seventh; and in the 28th of Henry VIII. where he is the tenth; this supposed order of precedence is not observed.

'The abbat appointed the steward, or master of the Gild of Reading, who was chosen annually, and took an oath to perform the duties of his office with that fidelity and justice which was due to the fraternity and to the authority of the abbat. An acknowledgement called *Cheping-gavel*, was paid to the abbat, annually, by every member of the gild; and a fine at the admission of every person, whether a townsman or an alien.

'No person was permitted to be master of any school at Reading, unless with the consent and approbation of the abbat and convent. This privilege was confirmed by Roger bishop of Sarum in 1107, in a charter addressed to the archdeacons, the deans, and clergy of the county of Berks.

'The abbey, as appears by king Henry's charter, was originally dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and St. John the Evangelist; but was generally called St. Mary's abbey, or monastery.'

Two ecclesiastical councils, in no respect memorable, were holden at the church of this monastery: but among the Bishops consecrated in it stands a name of some notoriety:

'In

'In 1235, Robert Grosseteste bishop of Lincoln, and Hugh bishop of St. Asaph, were consecrated together by archbishop Edmund, and five of his suffragans. Bishop Grosseteste, or Grosthead, as he is sometimes called, was born of obscure parents at Stradbrook, in Suffolk. He studied at Oxford, and was well versed in Greek and Roman literature; and was a short time in the service of the bishop of Hereford; but after his death he returned to his studies, till he was noticed by that discerning prelate Hugh de Welles, who gave him a prebend in the church of Lincoln. On the death of de Welles he was elected by the chapter of Lincoln, and the king readily consented to their choice. No prelate was ever more attentive to the pastoral office, or shewed greater firmness in resisting the usurpations and encroachments of the papal power. He died October 9, 1293, and was buried in the upper North transept of his cathedral, where his monument yet appears, though much defaced, and where his remains were discovered in 1782 *.'

The value of this monastery at the dissolution, according to Dugdale, was £.1939: 4: 3¾. No learned names reflect lustre on this community, nor are we informed of any services which it rendered either to letters or to the world.—The succeeding passage relates the fate of this magnificent foundation:

'John London, one of the commissioners for visiting and suppressing religious houses, came to Reading from Oxford, in the beginning of September 1539; and began with suppressing the chapel of our lady at Caversham, belonging to the canons of Nottley, and the Friery at Reading. In his letter to sir Thomas Cromwell, dated the fifteenth of September, he says that he demanded the abbat's relicks, which he readily shewed: that he took an inventory of them, and locked them up by the side of the high altar. He says, that there was a daily lecture on some part of Scripture, in English, and in Latin, read in the chapter-house, which was well attended, and that the abbat was present. In a subsequent letter, he says, "my servant shall be wt yow thys weke to bringe uppe the fryers surrendre wt the relyks of Cav'sham, and schall also bring you a tokyn in parcheme't under the covent seale from the abbott, and covent here. He desyreth oonly yor favor and no other thing, and I know so moch that my lord shall find him as co'formable a man as any in thys realm as more at lardg I will tell you at the begynning of the term by the gr. of Godd, who wt increase of much worschippe long p's've you. At Reading xvii Septembris.

Yor most bounden orator Joh' London."

'It may reasonably be supposed that this "tokyn in parcheme't" was a surrender of the abbey to the king; for in the corporation diary of this year, Sept. 19, it is said that four persons were nominated to serve the office of mayor, "before which said nineteenth of September, the monastery is suppressed, and the abbat is deprived, and after this suppression of the monastery, all things remain in the king's hands." Perhaps the surrender of the monastery was not ac-

* See a more detailed account of this Bishop, Rev. Vol. xxi. N. S. p. 76.

cepted,

cepted, because it was not accompanied with a formal acknowledgement of the king's supremacy. Yet it seems remarkable that this should be the cause of the abbat's attainder; for in this very year John Rugg "chivaler," or esquire, was indicted for saying "the king's highnesse cannot be supreme head of the church of England by God's law." On which, Hugh, abbat of Reading, said, "what did you for saving your conscience when you were sworn to take the king for supreme head?" To which Rugg answered, "I added this condition in my mind, to take him for supreme head in temporal things, but not in spiritual things." It might have been supposed therefore, that the abbat's ready compliance with the demands of the commissioners, and the sentiments which he seems to have held concerning the king's supremacy, would have saved him from an ignominious death: but, on the contrary, he was hanged and quartered at Reading, the fourteenth of November following, with two of his monks; on the same day that Whiting, abbat of Glastenbury, was executed.

'Thus fell the abbey of Reading, after having continued in a state of splendour and magnificence, under 31 abbats, for the space of 400 years.

'The timber and materials of the buildings were probably carried away, or sold, from time to time, as a purchaser offered.

'The library, of which there is a catalogue in the Wollascot MS. as it stood in the time of Henry III. was dissipated; and, probably, in part destroyed. Several manuscripts, once belonging to it, are in the king's library, now at the British Museum, as may be seen in Casely's catalogue. The relicks were delivered by the abbat to the care of the visitor. There is no account to be found of the plate and jewels of the abbey, at the time of the dissolution: of these, Edward III. had received to the value of 260 pounds, in 1338.'—

'The view of its ruins lead to the consideration of what it was in the days of its splendour and magnificence.

'The situation is healthy, on a gravelly eminence, looking over the river Kennet on the South, and, to the North, on the king's meadow, commanding a beautiful view of the Thames, and the rising ground above its banks. The Forbery was once the outer court of the abbey, lying between it and the town, to the West; to the East is a view of fine meadows as far as the junction of the two rivers. "Its site therefore was dry and airy, with an unlimited command of water; a stream called the hallowed brook, running either in, or very near the precinct, and turning the abbey mills, which still remain nearly entire, a curious specimen of the magnificence of the rest of the building."

Dependent on the abbey was a brotherhood of Grey Friars, who had a house in this town; and who, at the dissolution, as appears by the instrument of surrender here published, with great seeming chearfulness resigned their principles as well as possessions at the demand of the dilapidating tyrant.

Connected with the same great community, was an institution, the parallel of which we do not recollect to have seen noticed in ecclesiastical history; namely, a house for the re-

ception of the widows of such as had holden offices in the town, but had subsequently declined in their circumstances, on their taking a vow to remain unmarried for the rest of their lives. This institution was founded too much on good sense, and had too much of humanity in it, to flourish under the auspices of a community of illiberal and selfish monks; and accordingly we find that it early fell into decay, and was entirely broken up in the time of Henry VII., who appropriated the house to the purpose of holding a free grammar school: of the masters of which, from its foundation to the present time, the author gives biographical sketches. If we cannot insert among them the name of one who became a prime minister himself, (for we believe, *malgré* the authority of Archbishop Parker, that Wolsey never presided over this seminary,) the list presents us with a father-in-law of the father, and we presume, therefore, the grandfather of a prime minister; viz. the father-in-law of Dr. Addington, who was the father of the recent premier; together with John Spicer, the patron of the author of this volume, and Dr. Valpy the present master. In this list also occur Julines Palmer, who, in this very town, received the crown of martyrdom; and two divines, to whom the church is obliged for defences of the pious usages of kneeling at the sacrament, and bowing at the name of Jesus.

Among the vicars of the church of St. Giles, we observe none who have left any memorials of themselves; except a fanatical preacher who lived during the troubles; and a modern one who drew attention because he was of a rank, and had been blessed with an education, which might have been expected to have rendered him superior to the illusions which he no doubt felt, and which he laboured to propagate. We mean William Jemmat, who translated the works of Dr. Thomas Goodwin (the examiner designated in the Guardian) into Latin, which were printed at Heidelberg in 1658; and the Hon. and Rev. William Bromley Cadogan, of the school of Romaine; to whose popularity the crowded audiences which we recollect to have seen assembling in the parish churches of the metropolis bore sufficient testimony. How the conversion of the former was effected, we know not; that of the latter, we believe, was caused by the instrumentality of a lady. If a sensible, accomplished, and well educated man be capable of degenerating into a religious enthusiast, we think that his memory cannot be better vindicated than by stating that it was a lady who made him a proselyte.

Having closed his details of the three parishes of which the town consists, Mr. Coates resumes a general topic, and the most interesting of those which his work contains; namely

namely an account of remarkable persons who had been natives of Reading; and it must be owned that its proportion in this respect is certainly a fair one. It has given several chief magistrates to the metropolis, and two who reflect lustre on that high rank; viz. Sir Thomas White, celebrated for his charities, and Sir John Barnard, a citizen of unshaken independence, and a senator of unswerving patriotism; whose statue many venal successors every day behold without a blush, though not without a conscious self-reproach. To Canterbury this town also gave an archbishop; to the high church, a Laud; and to Ireland a chancellor, the founder of the house of Mulgrave. It produced likewise a regicide; it boasts the fine scholar Dr. John Merrick; and a still greater rarity, a learned printer, William Baker, who died in the vigour of life so late as 1785, well versed in the antient and in the modern languages; and whom, if we may rely on the account here given, the Frobens and the Stephens's would not have disowned.

The author very properly gives an abridgment of the life of Archbishop Laud, which is compiled with great neatness, correctness, and impartiality. That Mr. Coates possesses a mind free from bias clearly appears from his summing up of the character of this singular prelate:

'The character of archbishop Laud has been so variously represented, that it will appear difficult to exhibit it in the plain colouring of simple truth. He came into publick notice during the reign of a prince, who had been bred up with high notions of the royal prerogative; and who, when he was upon the throne, endeavoured to carry it farther than the law allowed, or a prudent regard for his own safety dictated: in this court, and under this monarch, to whom Laud had many private and personal obligations, he had his political education; and therefore we cannot wonder that he had as strong a partiality for the prerogative of the sovereign, as his royal master. The archbishop lived at a time when the Puritans were coming into power; who had such an abhorrence of ceremonies, and so violent an antipathy to episcopacy, that, with them, every form of the established church was popish and idolatrous; and the prelacy and papacy were the same. He was too observant of ceremonies; too fond of that show and pomp which is so conspicuous in the Romish church. This gave great advantage to his enemies, and was one of the principal charges against him. But it must be observed, that the witty reply of a lady, and the ludicrous account of his consecrating St. Catharine Cree church, have as strongly fixed on his character the imputation of fondness for popery, as the accusations of those who brought him to the block.

'With these political and religious prejudices, he had naturally great warmth of temper, with a sharpness in his language and expressions; so that he could not debate on any subject, without emo-

tion,

tion, nor bear contradiction calmly, even in the council. Those, who did not wish him well, took great advantage of his infirmities, and would often purposely contradict and anger him. The Lord Cottington made a more ungenerous use of this artifice than any man; for, being perfectly master of himself, and capable of the most profound dissimulation, he would lead the archbishop into a mistake, drive him into choler, and expose him, even when the king was present. To over-balance these defects in temper and judgment, it must be allowed that the archbishop was a man of real piety, and unbiassed integrity; an encourager of learning, and a liberal benefactor to its advancement; of great parts, and exemplary virtues. He defended himself upon his trial, after a long imprisonment, and under the infirmities of his advanced age, with much acuteness; and, as his greatest enemy confessed, "spake as much for himself as was possible for the wit of man to invent." Lastly, whatever were his faults, he was condemned to death by an ordinance of parliament, in defiance of the statute of treasons, of the law of the land, and, as Heylin observes, of Magna Charta itself; a stretch of prerogative, greater than any one of the sovereign whom that parliament opposed, and which, in the present times, would have been considered as a direct infringement of the constitution.'

The Archbishop, with all his aggravated sins and numerous failings, manifested a regard for learning which ought always to be mentioned to his honour; and it should not be forgotten that this superstitious and intolerant priest presented to the University of Oxford

'A large collection of antient coins; and more than 1400 MSS. Greek, Hebrew, Arabick, and Persian; which are in the Bodleian Library. He obtained a new charter for the university, and established an Arabick lecture, which began to be read August 10, 1636. To the bishoprick of Oxford, he added the impropriation of the vicarage of Cuddesden, and prevailed on Dr. Bancroft to build a new house there, for the future Bishop's residence. At St. John's college, he built the inner quadrangle; which was begun June 26, 1632, and finished in 1635; he obtained from king Charles, the vicarage of St. Laurence in Reading for the college; with other valuable preferments; and left to it several bequests by will.'

Mr. Coates terminates this work with an account of the present state of the town. In antient times, it had a flourishing manufacture of cloth, which received a fatal blow during the civil contests, and which an injudicious bounty (no doubt well intended) effecually prevented it from ever recovering. Its trade has lately much increased by means of the canals which pass through it. It claims to be a borough from prescription, and has returned members to Parliament from the 23d of Edward I. to the present time. By a determination of the House of Commons in 1708, the right of voting is vested in

the freemen and the inhabitants. Reading has had the honour of giving its name to the title of the Barony conferred by Charles II. on Sir Jacob Astley, and to that which was subsequently granted to General William Cadogan. The town is certainly under obligations to Mr. Coates; and, since its parishes are crown livings, we should sincerely rejoice to hear that the best of them had been conferred on their faithful historian, as the reward of his diligence.

ART. II. *The Works of Richard Owen Cambridge, Esq.*: including several Pieces never before published: with an Account of his Life and Character, by his Son George Owen Cambridge, M. A. Prebendary of Ely. 4to. pp. 580. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

THIS volume furnishes not the only example, of late occurrence, in which a son has assumed the delicate office of his Father's biographer, since that task was recently undertaken by the Earl of Malmesbury. We read with unfeigned pleasure the Memoir which was prefixed by his Lordship to Mr. Harris's Works *; and we have now been naturally reminded of this coincidence, by the circumstance of Mr. Harris and Mr. Cambridge having been intimate friends. Both these gentlemen were also eminently distinguished by their attachment to the pleasures of domestic life, which both cultivated with unwearied assiduity and enviable success; and, as a reward for the happiness which they conferred, each has found among the members of his own family an affectionate and "faithful chronicler."

The incidents in Mr. Cambridge's life were so few, that his biographer has shewn not a little ingenuity in imparting to the narrative that degree of interest which we have found in it. He was born in London in the year 1717, was sent at an early period to Eton, and numbered among his friends and associates there many men who were afterward eminent for their genius and their talents. Mr. C. was in 1734 entered as a gentleman commoner of St. John's College, Oxford, whence in 1737 he removed to Lincoln's Inn; where he commenced an acquaintance, which ended in a lasting friendship, with the celebrated Isaac Hawkins Browne. In 1741 he married Miss Trenchard, grand-daughter of Sir John Trenchard, who had been Secretary of State to King William, 'and the confidential friend of that monarch.'

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* See M. Rev. N. S. Vol. xxxvii. p. 1.

From

From this part of the work we present our readers with an extract, which distinctly shews the nature of Mr. Cambridge's pursuits at this period:

'This marriage, which originated in a mutual preference, laid the foundation of the most tender and affectionate attachment, that subsisted full sixty years.

'Besides the beauty of her person, her cheerful temper, and pleasing manners, my mother, with a peculiar delicacy of form, was endued with an uncommon strength of constitution, which enabled her to be the constant companion for her husband in all his most active pursuits; their journies were always performed on horseback; and, when their children became of an age to join in these parties, they were always admitted into them.

'Upon their marriage, my father settled at his family seat of Whitminster in Gloucestershire, near the banks of the Severn, seven miles below Gloucester. In this retirement he passed seven or eight years, in the enjoyment of such happiness as is not very often experienced, continually engaged in the acquisition of knowledge, or in some useful application of it.

'The situation of the place was well adapted to the display of his taste, and the pursuit of those amusements that were most interesting to him. The house was situated on the banks of the little river Stroud, in the midst of rich meadows that characterize the vale of Berkeley; my father's first object was to introduce the more distant landscape, and open to the view those beautiful and lofty hills which bound that extensive valley; and, by a judicious disposal of his buildings and plantations, he greatly embellished the place, and gave to the whole estate the appearance of a garden.

'The stream, which ran through the grounds, he made navigable for boats, not only as far as his own property extended, but, by the permission of his neighbours, for a distance of near three miles, and thus obtained, for his private use, at a very inconsiderable expence, what was undertaken forty years afterwards upon a larger scale for the public by the Stroud-water Company; who first made this river navigable from the Severn to the town of Stroud, and then, following the course of the same stream, carried their canal through Sapperton Hill by a tunnel, and united it with the Thames at Letchlade.

'By means of this navigation he was enabled to convey with ease the stone and other materials requisite for the various works and improvements carrying on upon his estate; he had also boats of pleasure suited to the size and nature of the river, by which he transported himself and his friends to others of a different construction, adapted to the navigation of the Severn. Such was his turn for mechanics, that it might be called the favourite of his various pursuits; and the structure of his boats afforded him an opportunity of shewing his practical knowledge in that branch of science.

'His largest boat for the Severn was built upon the plan of those made use of in the Venetian state; the cabin of which was large enough to receive commodiously near thirty people, and was very handsomely fitted up. Amongst other articles of furniture, it contained

tained in the pannels between the windows eight pictures, painted for the purpose by that eminent marine painter, Mr. Scott, representing every different sort of ship, vessel, and boat, then in use. These pictures are now valuable as specimens of the skill of that excellent artist, and as a pleasing record of the taste and spirit with which my father pursued every object to which he directed his mind, and the instruction that was always mingled with his amusements.

'Another of his boats that attracted attention was a twelve-oared barge built after a plan of his own, which was found to move with considerably more ease and expedition than any other boat of the same description, though the rowers were men unaccustomed to the water, being his own domestics, or the labourers employed in his various works*, who had no other instructions given them than what they received from their master.

'But in this flotilla the boat most entitled to notice, from the singularity and the ingenuity of its construction, was a double-boat, which owed its origin to the flying prow, the inconvenience and danger of which it was designed to remedy, whilst it retained its most valuable properties, lightness and expedition. Lord Anson, having admired the structure and success of these boats, as used by the inhabitants of the Ladrone islands, a particular description of which is given in his voyage, was preparing to make trial of one in England, when my father ventured to suggest his doubts, whether a boat, whose safety depended upon the most exact equilibrium, would succeed in this uncertain climate, however well it might answer on the smooth sea, and under the steady breezes of the Pacific Ocean; proposing, at the same time, to construct a boat upon a plan somewhat similar, that might obviate those objections. The experiment, in both cases, was creditable to his knowledge of the subject. The flying prow was twice tried between Portsmouth and Isle of Wight, and each time (as I have been informed) it was overset; after which it was hung up in the boat-house of the royal yard at Deptford, where it has ever since remained, and may now be seen; but the double-boat answered every purpose required, being so swift that no other boat could overtake it, and so safe that it was scarcely possible for it to be overset†.

'* See a humorous description of them in his poem of ARCHIMAGE.'

'† The double-boat consisted of two distinct boats, fifty feet in length, and only eighteen inches wide, placed parallel to each other at the distance of twelve feet, and secured together by transverse beams, over which a slight platform or deck was placed. Thus constructed it was enabled to spread a much larger portion of canvass than any other boat that presented so small a resistance to the element in which it moved. It is remarkable that Captain Cook should, many years afterwards, find the ingenious inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands making use of boats upon a similiar plan, and which experience had shewn them was preferable to the flying prow, or any other form that could be devised by a people unacquainted with the use of iron.'

'It

'It happened about the time when the improvements at Whitminster were completed, that Frederick the late Prince of Wales, accompanied by his Princess, his daughter the present Duchess of Brunswick, and a large party, made a visit to Lord Bathurst at Cirencester. During their stay at his seat, he signified to my father his intention of bringing their Royal Highnesses to see his place, and pass a day upon the water. They were accordingly received by him in his smaller boats, at the head of his own private navigation, and after landing to view the house and grounds, continued their passage to the Severn, where they were conducted to the Venetian barge, on board of which having taken their station in the most beautiful reach of the river, the whole party sat down to a well-served dinner, prepared in a boat fitted up as a kitchen, and previously placed there for that purpose. After taking as long a sail as the time would admit, they again returned by the same conveyance to the spot where they had embarked.

'The Prince and Princess were always graciously pleased to speak of this as one of the pleasantest parties in which they had ever been engaged. His Royal Highness particularly noticed the skill and discipline of the boatmen, and the regularity and order with which every thing was arranged; saying he had frequently attempted the same on the Thames at Cliveden, but from some cause or other had never been equally successful.'

About the year 1744, Mr. C. became known to Mr. Villiers, afterward Earl of Clarendon:

'The preference (says the writer) which they shewed for each other was very soon succeeded by a close and brotherlike friendship, which never experienced change or abatement. They passed much of their time together, and, as my father always resided at Mr. Villiers's house when in London, he was induced to visit that place more frequently.

'At this gentleman's house he associated with the most distinguished men of that time, with many of whom he formed an intimacy productive of much pleasure, and from whose society he derived considerable advantage, when he afterwards settled in the neighbourhood of London, and mixed more in the world. Among this number were Lord Granville, Lord Lyttelton, Mr. Grenville, Lord Chesterfield, Mr. Pitt, and Lord Bath.

'By several of these friends he was strongly solicited to come into Parliament, and engage in public life. As he had a sincere love for his country, a clear insight into its real interests, and a great knowledge of political affairs, which he was desirous on all occasions to improve, he certainly was well qualified for so important a station, nor would he have declined it, if at any period of his life he had felt himself called upon by any very strong claim. He was remarkably exempt from those passions which usually incline men to exchange domestic enjoyments for the toils of public business. His love of fame was limited to a desire of being respected and beloved by those in whose society he wished to live; his natural disposition and talents were peculiarly adapted to the cultivation of polite literature, and the charms of familiar conversation; he therefore thought that, without any desertion of his duty, he might give way to the preference he

entertained for private life. It was indeed his favourite maxim, that the pursuit of general knowledge, and the study of the liberal arts, by gentlemen of independent fortunes, who have no lucrative views, are of the greatest advantage to a country, and form the most marked distinction between an improved and a degenerate age; between a polished nation and a people wholly addicted to commerce or to arms.'

By the death of Mr. Owen, Mr. C.'s income received a comfortable addition, which induced him to purchase a beautiful estate in Twickenham meadows, where he continued to live 'in the hospitable style of a country gentleman' for above thirty years. About this period (1751) he published his Scribleriad*, a mock-heroic poem, which was intended and calculated to expose false taste and false science, and which is replete with happy parodies of distinguished passages in the classics, particularly in Virgil. This production, and his well-known contributions to the periodical paper called *the World*, soon established his reputation as a scholar, a critic, and a man of wit. His conversation was remarkable for ingenuity and sprightliness; and indeed in this rare and desirable art he had very few equals. We transcribe some slight instances to illustrate this assertion:

'A note from Mr. Moore, "the conductor of the World," requesting an essay, was put into my father's hands on a Sunday morning as he was going to church; my mother observing him rather inattentive during the sermon, whispered, "What are you thinking of?" he replied, "*Of the next World*, my dear."

'I cannot help mentioning another instance of the same species of pleasantry. In one of his rides late in life, he was met by His Majesty on the declivity of Richmond Hill, who, with his accustomed condescension, stopped and conversed with him; and observing, that "he did not ride so fast as he used to do," my father replied, "*Sir, I am going down hill.*"—

'As my father entered the room one morning, Lord North observed to him, that he had written a very handsome letter to his old friend and schoolfellow, Dr. ——, giving him the Deanery of———, and put it into his hands, which having read he replied, "Yes, the letter is very handsomely expressed, and all very true, but shews plainly how little you know of your business as a minister. It reminds me of a story of an Irish peasant, who, upon seeing a partridge that was shot, fall from a considerable height, picked it up, and running with it to the gentleman who had killed it, cried out, "Arrah, your honour need not have shot; *the fall would have killed him.*"—The *deanery* was sufficient for one man, the *letter* should have been sent to the *unsuccessful* candidate."

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* See M. Rev. Vol. v. p. 116.

Mr.

Mr. Cambridge was very active in the pursuit of literary amusement and instruction, and communicated with amiable satisfaction the result of all his inquiries to the members of his own family. To render them happy was the principal object of his life; and, with his powers of imparting entertainment, it will not be doubted that he was eminently successful. The following portrait will appear flattering only to those who were unacquainted with the respectable original:

'Although my father was always disposed to draw society about him at his own house, where he had very frequent parties of select friends, he still kept up his communication with London; his easy distance from thence, and his habitual activity, enabling him to preserve his intercourse with it till very late in life. When not called to London by a fixed engagement, he was accustomed, being a very early riser, to reach town as soon as he expected to find any of his friends visible; to divide his morning as the various pursuits of his mind directed; and in addition to the lighter topics of the day, he usually collected some solid and valuable acquisitions upon literary or other profitable subjects, and returned home with a mind recreated and improved.

'After a day so spent, it was his constant practice and greatest pleasure to collect his family round him, and communicate to them whatever he had met with either of amusement or more serious instruction. That he made my mother his companion on all occasions has been already noticed; this tenderness of affection extended to his children, whom he delighted in having about him, and with whom, while he retained the authority of a parent, he always lived upon the footing of a fond brother. From his society therefore they were never excluded, they partook of all that was interesting to him, his studies were carried on while they surrounded him, and his library was the common room of the family.'

We close our extracts from this introductory piece of biography with the account of Mr. Cambridge's death; observing that the character, with which it concludes, is ably and accurately delineated, and that we are prevented only by its length from transcribing it:

'My father was considerably advanced in his eighty third year before he was sensible, to any considerable degree, of the infirmities of age; but a difficulty of hearing, which had for some time gradually increased, now rendered conversation troublesome and frequently disappointing to him. Against this evil his books, for which his relish was not abated, had hitherto furnished an easy and acceptable resource; but unfortunately, his sight also became so imperfect, that there were few books he could read with comfort to himself. His general health however remained the same, and his natural good spirits and cheerfulness of temper experienced no alteration. Having still the free use of his limbs, he continued to take his usual exercise, and to follow his customary habits of life, accepting of such amuse-

ment, as conversation would afford, from those friends who had the kindness to adapt their voices to his prevailing infirmity; and that he still retained a lively concern in all those great and interesting events, which were then taking place in Europe, may be seen in some of his latest productions. But as his deafness increased, he felt himself grow daily more unfit for the society of any but his own family, into whose care and protection he resigned himself with the most affectionate and endearing confidence, receiving those attentions, which it was the first pleasure of his children to pay him, not as a debt due to a fond and indulgent parent, but as a free and voluntary tribute of their affection. In the contemplation of these tokens of esteem and love, he seemed to experience a constant and unabating pleasure, which supplied, in no small degree, the want of other interesting ideas.

'It is well known, that among the many painful and humiliating effects that attend the decline of life, and follow from a partial decay of the mental powers, we have often to lament the change it produces in the heart and affections; but from every consequence of this sort my father was most happily exempt. This I allow myself to say upon the authority of the medical gentleman*, of considerable eminence, by whose skill and friendly attentions he was assisted through the progressive stages of his slow decline; and who has repeatedly assured me, that, in the whole course of his extensive practice, he had never seen a similar instance of equanimity and undeviating sweetness of temper.

'During this gradual increase of feebleness, and with the discouraging prospect of still greater suffering, which he saw before him, his exemplary patience and constant care to spare the feelings of his family were eminently conspicuous; nor did the distressing infirmities, inseparably attendant on extreme debility, ever produce a murmur of complaint, or even a hasty or unguarded expression. It is somewhat singular, and may be regarded as a proof of an unusually strong frame, that no symptom of disease took place; all the organs of life continued to execute their respective functions, until nature being wholly exhausted, he expired, without a sigh, on the 17th of September, 1802, leaving a widow, two sons, and a daughter.

'Of Lord Chesterfield, who, like my father, possessed his faculties to the close of life, it is recorded, that the last words he uttered "were strictly in character;" and the remark made by his physician Dr. Warren, upon that occasion was, that "his good breeding would only quit him with his life." I shall hope for indulgence in applying the like observation to him, who is the subject of this memoir, and whose latest words were equally characteristic; expressing that fond attachment to his family, which had ever been his ruling passion. Having passed a considerable time in a sort of doze, from which it was thought he had hardly strength to revive, he awoke, and upon seeing me, feebly articulated "how do the dear people do?" when I answered that they were well; with a smile upon his countenance, and

'* David Dundass, Esq. of Richmond.'

with

with an increased energy of voice, he replied, " I thank God!" and then reposed his head upon the pillow, and spoke no more.'

The excusable partiality of a son appears in some few parts of the narrative: but the character represented was so amiable, and the nearness of the relationship furnishes so ample an apology, that we shall not wound our own feelings by particularizing the instances. A similar bias is evident in the collection of the works, since more is here published than is calculated to advance the literary reputation of the writer. In the Epigrams, we were particularly disappointed; because we naturally expected that the same quickness and brilliancy, which marked Mr. Cambridge's conversation, would also have distinguished his smaller compositions: but in most of them we look in vain for the characteristic *point*. The succeeding parody must, however, be exempted from this general censure:

'On meeting at Mr. Garrick's an author very shabbily drest in an old velvet Waistcoat, on which he had sewed Embroidery of a later date:

'Three waistcoats, in three distant ages born,
The bard with faded lustre did adorn.
The first in velvet's figured pride surpast;
The next in 'broidery; in both the last.
His purse and fancy could no further go,
To make a third he join'd the former two.'

There is pleasantry in the *imitation*, for it cannot justly be styled a *translation*, of the subsequent Greek epigram:

'ΑΟΥΚΙΑΛΙΟΥ.

Μῦν Ἀσκληπιάδης ὁ Φιλάργυρος εἶδεν ἐν οἴκῳ,
Καὶ, τί ποιεῖς, φησὶν, φίλτατε μῦ, παρ' ἐμοί;
Ἦδυ δ' ὁ μῦς γελάσας, μηδὲν, φίλε, φησὶ, φοβηθῇς.
Οὐχὶ τροφῆς παρὰ σοὶ χρῄζομον, ἀλλὰ μονῆς.

'As ——— was stepping out of bed,
A lurking Mouse he spies;
And thus, alarm'd with sudden dread,
Aloud to Tony cries:
Tony make haste—the trap prepare——
I see the rascal dodging.——
Friend, quoth the Mouse, you need not fear,
I come but for a lodging;
Nor plant that dreadful engine there,
To catch me by the neck fast;
For surely I had ne'er come here,
If I had wanted breakfast.'

We have transcribed this epigram for the purpose of enabling our readers to compare it with an imitation by Mr. Huddesford,

introduced in our xxxviiith volume, N. S. p. 275. and with a translation by the author of the Task, who appears to us fully to have preserved the sense and spirit of the original:

"A Miser, traversing his house,
Espied, unusual there, a Mouse,
And thus his uninvited guest,
Briskly inquisitive address'd:
"Tell me, my dear, to what cause is it
I owe this unexpected visit?"
The Mouse her host obliquely eyed,
And, smiling, pleasantly replied,
"Fear not, good fellow! for your hoard;
I come to lodge, and not to board—."

Mr. Cambridge was honoured with the particular notice of the unknown author of the *Pursuits of Literature;* who presented to him (through the hands of the publisher) a copy of the 7th edition of that work, and afterward of the translation of the quotations occurring in it, each accompanied by a very flattering address written in a feigned hand. Of one of these Mr. G. C. has given a fac-simile: the terms of it run thus:

Celeberrimo simul et Ornatissimo Viro
R. O. Cambridge, Arm°:
Poetæ, Critico, Historico.
Ob Ingenii elegantiam,
Sermonis nitorem,
Judicii acumen, Doctrinæ varietatem,
Inter Primos Notissimo,
Poema hoc
Auctor Ignotus.

This volume is handsomely printed, and decorated with several engravings of the author and his friends; as also with a view of his house at Whitminster, and another of his villa at Twickenham.

ART. III. *A Supplement to the Account of the Pelew Islands;* compiled from the Journals of the Panther and Endeavour, two Vessels sent by the Honourable East India Company to those Islands in the Year 1790; and from the Oral Communications of Captain H. Wilson. By the Rev. John Pearce Hockin, of Exeter College, Oxford, M.A. 4to. pp. 72. and 5 Plates. 15s. Boards. Nicol, &c. 1803.

SOME portion of the interest, which was excited by the account of Captain Wilson's shipwreck on the Pelew Islands*, will naturally extend itself to the work before us, the subject

* See Rev. Vol. lxxix. pp. 109. and 193.

being

being such as intitles it to be considered as a supplement to that narrative; every reader of which, we doubt not, will be pleased to obtain farther tidings of Abba Thulle, and to learn how he bore the afflicting intelligence of the death of his son Lee Boo in England.

In the beginning of the year 1790, the Court of Directors of the East India Company having resolved to send vessels to the Pelew Islands, with presents to the chiefs in return for their friendly and hospitable conduct towards the crew of the Antelope packet, 'orders were sent to their government of Bombay, to equip two ships for that purpose. Messrs. Wedgeborough and White, two officers in the Bombay Marine, who had been shipwrecked with Captain Wilson in the Antelope on those islands, were to be employed on this expedition. In obedience to these orders, the Panther and Endeavour, vessels belonging to the Honourable Company's Marine Establishment at Bombay, were fitted for this service, under the command of Captain John M'Cluer; Messrs. Wedgeborough and White were appointed lieutenants.' These vessels sailed from Bombay in August 1790. The presents which they carried for the chiefs were suitable to the munificence and good intentions of the Company, and among them were various kinds of live stock, with implements of husbandry.

The description of the Pelew Islanders by Mr. Keate created a great degree of enthusiastic admiration: but mature reflection will convince us that much of the charm consisted in the manner of the narrator. An English vessel was wrecked among islands which, though long since discovered, were very little known to Europeans; and the crew, above 50 in number, were fortunately cast on a spot which enabled them to provide in the first instance for their own security. The natives, with whom they became acquainted, were at war with those of other islands in the same groupe: after a battle, (in which it is to be remarked that the English, without sufficient or justifiable cause, aided the people of one island not in their defence but in an attack against another,) the victors, as is customary among other savage nations, in cool blood beat out the brains of the prisoners whom they had taken; and the morality of the Pelew islanders, in the concerns of *meum* and *tuum*, is of the same description as among the natives of all the other islands which have been discovered in the South Sea. These particulars appear in Keate's account, but so disguised that they almost escape notice; while the fair tints in their character (the leading feature of which is pliability of disposition, ever ready to receive though unable to retain impressions; and such a character, perhaps more than any other,

affords opportunities for colouring,) are displayed with a species of sentimental rapture. Captain M'Cluer was also infected with this enthusiasm; and his prepossessions were so strong that, almost immediately on his arrival at the islands, he discovered, as appears by a remark in his journal 'that his situation was quite a paradise, and he could with pleasure have spent the remainder of his days there.'

Of the arrival of the ships, and the meeting with the king, we have this relation:

'One of the boats being hoisted out, Lieutenant Wedgeborough was sent in her to examine a channel to the westward of the place where the ships lay, and also to gain an intercourse with the natives. Soon after the boat had left the ship, and was got amongst the islands, three canoes came alongside the Panther, having in them several people who recollected Mr. White, although so many years had elapsed since his sailing from Oroolong; one of them, Arrupack, immediately came on board, and calling out White, caught him in his arms, and giving him a most affectionate and ardent squeeze, seemed almost distracted with joy, calling for all his people to come and embrace their friend; he then took him into his canoe to get some sweet drink. Mr. Wedgeborough's reception was nearly the same; the account he gives is, that as soon as he got amongst the islands, the boat was surrounded with canoes; the natives as soon as they heard him speak their language (of which he had gained some knowledge, when he was cast away with Captain Wilson), and understood that they were English, expressed their joy by acclamations and gestures little short of madness; pointing to Oroolong, and calling it Englishman's land, and then immediately enquired for Lee Boo. Upon asking them the reason why they did not come to the ships, they said they did not know who they were, but had sent canoes to acquaint Abba Thulle, and expected him soon. As it was drawing towards evening, the natives invited them to land, and there to wait for the king. They again enquired for Lee Boo; and on being told his fate, and the disease of which he died, they appeared composed and satisfied: being asked what was become of Madan Blanchard, the person that remained behind, when Captain Wilson and the crew of the Antelope left the islands, they said he was at Cooroora, but soon declined the conversation respecting him. The king not being arrived at sun-set, the boat was returning on board with two of the natives; but they had not proceeded far from the shore, before they saw a number of canoes pulling very fast, and among them one having a great number of paddles. The natives told Mr. Wedgeborough that it was the king's canoe; and as they very soon drew near, he could, by the manner with which the men flourished their paddles, discover the king was in her, they therefore waited his coming, and at half past six in the evening, Mr. Wedgeborough says, "I had the unspeakable pleasure of once more being embraced by the benevolent Abba Thulle." They then proceeded together in the king's canoe towards the Panther; on their way, Mr. Wedgeborough acquainted him with the death of Lee Boo:

the manner of his receiving this melancholy information, I shall give in Mr Wedgeborough's own words. "His countenance, which before bore the most evident marks of joy, became composed and thoughtful; and after remaining some time silent, as if wishing to recollect himself, he exclaimed, "*Weel, weel, weel, a trecoy!* (in English, Good, good, very good)." The king then paused a little, as if to gain relief; but on his again entering on the melancholy subject, he said, he never entertained a doubt of the goodness of the English or the captain, but rested assured that they would cherish and take care of his son. That the return of the ships with his friends the English, convinced him his opinion was right, when he gave Lee Boo to the care of Captain Wilson: that he had counted upon the line the captain had given him, as far as one hundred knots, or moons, and then despairing of ever seeing his son or the captain again, he had caused the line to be buried, supposing that the vessel which the English had built at Englishman's island (Oroolong) was not large enough to carry them in safety to China, as they had sailed before the good moon set in.'

After the delivery of the Company's presents, Captain M'Cluer sailed in the Panther for Macao, leaving the other vessel at the islands to wait his return. Some natives, at their own desire, embarked with him for China; and the taking leave of their friends on quitting their native land is thus described: 'The Pelew passengers came on board this morning, being two men and two women, who had many relations: as they appeared grieved at parting with them, Captain M'Cluer proposed that they should return home; but to this proposition they would not listen, requesting they might be permitted to *cry, for only half an hour*, and then they would part contented: when the hour of parental and filial tenderness was nearly expired, the mother with a knife cut off three locks of hair from her daughter's head, and they then parted apparently satisfied; the parents accepted of some little presents, and returned on shore with much composure.' The *half hour* we must suppose to be a free translation from the Pelew language.

In June 1791, Captain M'Cluer returned to the islands: but his second stay was short. In these visits, the natives received from the English some necessary instructions for the management of the animals left with them; and some agricultural directions, explaining the uses of a variety of tools and of the implements of husbandry which had been given to them. If our people had limited their acts of friendship to these or to similar good offices, they would have done well: but, during Captain M'Cluer's absence, and after his return, they were persuaded to assist their friend Abba Thulle in making war on the neighbouring islands. The officer who had been left in command by Captain M'Cluer relates that:

"Some-

"Sometime after the Panther had left the islands for China, the king, accompanied by his rupacks, came to our dwelling, and having seated themselves in due form and order, remained for a considerable time silent and serious. This behaviour, so contrary to all their former, induced me to imagine they had some complaint to make of our conduct, though we could not accuse ourselves of any impropriety of behaviour; I therefore addressed Abba Thulle, requesting to know what made him and his rupacks so reserved, and whether the English had done any thing to displease him or his people; when I had done speaking, he looked at me with a smile so kind and good, that my fears were entirely at an end: he then preferred a request in the most modest manner, and hoped that we would assist him in an expedition against Artingall. To this I was obliged to make the following answer: that it was not in my power to comply with his request, as my orders from Captain M'Cluer were to the contrary. The good old king said, it was well, that I must obey my superior rupack; but he gave me a look so very impressive of disappointment, yet so free from anger, that I confess it quite overpowered me."

In the account of one of these expeditions, we meet with a description of a pier built by the natives:

'The pier of Malligoyoke is an astonishing fabric, and shews what men, even in a state of nature, are capable of performing, when they call forth and exert their powers. It is in length about a mile, twelve feet in height, and fifteen broad at the top, but considerably more at the base; built entirely with coral rocks, piled ingeniously upon each other. It extends from the town to within about a quarter of a mile of the outer reef, through which is a very commodious passage for small vessels or boats into the open sea, especially during the south west monsoon.'

From the Pelew Islands, Captain M'Cluer sailed to survey part of the northern coast of New Guinea; a service which he was extremely well qualified to perform. In the beginning of 1793, he made a third visit in the Panther to the Pelew Islands; and he then put in execution the scheme which he had some time before meditated, of resigning the command of his ship to the next officer, in order that he might become an inhabitant of his favourite islands. In his letter expressive of this determination, and containing a formal resignation of his command, he says;

"Considering my circumstances and rank in the service, this step will be taken for an act of insanity, or the effect of some disorder; however this is not the case; for I have been determined upon it ever since I left Bencoolen, and have provided accordingly at the different ports we touched at; and it is nothing but my zeal for my country that prompts me to follow this resolution; and I hope to succeed in the plan I have formed, which may benefit my country and the world in general, by enlightening the minds of these noble islanders: should I fail in the attempt, it is only the loss of an individual, who wished to do good to his fellow-creatures."

This

This letter is dated February the 2d, 1793; and the Panther shortly afterwards departed from the islands, leaving Captain M'Cluer to make the experiment of the happiness which he had promised to himself in his fancied paradise.

Some descriptions of the manners and customs of the Pelew islanders necessarily mix with the relation of these transactions, for which we must refer to the original. Their behaviour to the English appears to have been dictated by friendship, and by a grateful sense of benefit received.

The sequel of the history of English intercourse with the Pelew Islands, if the reader be not before acquainted with the circumstances, will excite some astonishment, and perhaps some mixture of mortification at the fickleness of human nature. In fifteen months' residence, Captain M'Cluer became completely weary of his new abode; of which the first notice received was by a letter which came to England from the Captain himself, dated at *Macao*, the 14th of June 1794. He there stated that

'Being tired with his situation, he embarked on board his boat with three Malay-men, and two of his own slaves, in all six persons, intending to go to the island of Ternate "to hear the news." When they got to the southward of the islands, meeting with bad weather, he altered his intention, and determined to proceed to China through the Bernardine passage: in consequence of this resolution they touched at Pellelew, and having taken in a stock of cocoa-nuts, stood away to the northward, and in ten days reached the Bashee islands, passing so close to Monmouth island as to speak with some of the inhabitants; but not being able to make themselves understood, they did not land. In crossing the Chinese sea they met with very bad weather, but arrived at Macao without any accident. Captain M'Cluer's sudden appearance greatly surprized the gentlemen at the English factory.'

Captain M'Cluer afterward determined on making one more visit to the Pelew Islands, 'to take thence his family and property;' and having purchased a vessel,

'In pursuance of the resolution taken, he returned to the Pelew islands, and embarked his family and property, taking with him from thence several of the natives of both sexes, there being six or eight women servants said to have been sent to attend the child born there. On his voyage from the Pelew islands to Bombay, the vessel touched at Bencoolen, where they met with the Honourable Company's ship Europa, Captain Applegarth, bound for England, and the Bombay, a frigate belonging to the Bombay marine, bound to Bombay. By this latter ship he sent some of his family to that port, with six of the Pelew women; himself, with the other natives, proceeding in his own vessel to Bengal; from whence he again sailed, and was never more heard of, nor any of his crew.'

Since

Since the unfortunate disappearance of Captain M'Cluer, three of the Pelew women, who had been brought by him from the islands, have been sent back.

The contents of this small supplement possess much attraction, though given with little connection. Three of the plates which accompany it are designed for the voyage of Captain Wilson; and at the end is a Vocabulary of the Pelew language. It would have been an useful addition, and must have afforded much satisfaction to the reader, if the Editor had prefixed, as a frontispiece to his book, a copy of Captain M'Cluer's survey of the Pelew Islands.

ART. IV. *Letters of Advice from a Mother to her Son.* pp. 450. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

FROM the dedication of this volume to the Archbishop of Canterbury, it appears that the fair author is Mrs. Crespigny, and that she originally entertained no design of presenting it to the public eye. The letters were written solely with a view to inculcate the great truths of religion and the duties of morality, with more precision and in a more impressive manner than casual reading on such subjects might convey to the mind of a beloved son: but, at the solicitations of a judicious friend, Mrs. C. has been induced to commit her precepts to general circulation, with the hope that they may furnish useful instruction to other young men in similar situations.

After a careful perusal of these letters, we are happy in being able to speak of them as forming a work calculated, in many respects, to have a most salutary influence on the morals and dispositions of ingenuous youths, and to withdraw them from the vicious customs and practices of the world. The volume commences with a series of remarks on topics of religion; on the evidences drawn from the external phænomena of the world to establish the truth of the Being of a God; and on the nature of the christian revelation, and the peculiar doctrines which are taught and received by the church of England. In regard to the former of these points, the usual popular arguments are adduced; and perhaps it will generally be admitted that enough is urged to make the desired impression on the youthful reader. With respect to the *doctrines of Christianity*, without combating the positions laid down, we confess that we should have been better pleased, if the orthodox faith of the fair writer had been offered to her pupil in a more modest and less decided tone. When an author's tenets are founded solely on the authority of

of the English translation of the New Testament, which may chance to convey to the reader more or less than the original fairly implies, a certain degree of diffidence should surely accompany assertions, especially on points which are yet contested among learned divines of the reformed churches. A single text may make a good *verbal proof*, and such as may prove satisfactory to many *fair divines:* but there are others who would hesitate to establish their faith on such slender grounds; and they would recollect the remark of the poet,

——— "In religion,
What damned error but some sober brow
Will bless it, and approve it with a *text.*" SHAKSPEARE.

Many other points, however, of faith and practice, the author has treated with much propriety; and, with becoming regard to professional information on such subjects, she has called in to her aid the directions of able and sound divines. The subsequent letters on prayer, public worship, and the duty of attending the sacrament, are such as, we doubt not, will be generally acceptable. If the mode of reasoning employed on these matters be not altogether conclusive, yet it is such as pious and well disposed minds will for the most part deem sufficient; at least for the purpose of turning the early attention of youth to those serious concerns.

The nature and duties of charity are considered in the next letter, and in a manner which exhibits the sentiments of the writer in a very amiable and benevolent point of view.—Then follows a letter on the duties of economy; in which, among other useful advice, these reflections occur:

'There are many who do not keep any account of the manner in which they spend their money, from which omission they would not know how or where to retrench their expences, if it were necessary to do so.—It is a great error;—for, the trouble of keeping such accounts is so very trifling, that it is surprising every body should not do it almost as an amusement, and as what may be of considerable future use by being referred to.

'There is another mistake very often productive of great inconvenience, an inattention to trifling expences. Where an income is not large, it is amazing how much of it will imperceptibly run away in half-crowns and shillings: we are apt to think too lightly of such trifling sums, and spend them thoughtlessly and carelessly; but, were an account of them kept, we should be surprised to see the amount of it at the year's end.

'I hope you will always keep as accurate an account of your expences as you can; begin *now*, and it will become a habit, of the utility of which you will soon be sensible; for, though you may say, your income at present is not so large but that you may easily know which way it goes, yet the custom of keeping regular accounts is so good

good a one, that it should be adopted as soon as we have any thing to spend; you will by that means easily find out when you are too profuse, and upon what articles you can best retrench.—A person who is without such assistance, and finds that it is necessary to make an alteration in his plan of life, does not know where to begin, and may put himself to unnecessary inconvenience without properly effecting his design.

'I cannot too often enforce that it is your indispensable duty to devote one *tenth* of your income to assist your fellow-creatures: put it in a purse and consider that money as sacred; do not look upon it as your own, and never make use of it as such; then weigh your other expences, but endeavour to keep a tenth part of the remainder of your income quit unemployed for any sudden exigencies, and be sure to set down your expences *every* day.—If you neglect doing it for several days, you will find the recollection of your disbursements so difficult and troublesome, that the practice, highly useful as it is, will be totally laid aside.'

If the instructions contained in this extract should appear to more experienced economists to contain nothing particularly novel, we believe that they will agree with us that these counsels are highly essential for those to whom they are more immediately addressed.

We could point out many pleasing passages in the succeeding letters, on Generosity and Gratitude;—Friendship—Drinking—and Gaming: all of which are subjects, it must be allowed, of much moment for young persons on their entrance into life.

Duelling is next considered; and we trust that our readers will not be displeased by our introducing them to a Lady's advice on this fatal custom; the terrible consequences of which have lately been so strikingly exemplified, on more than one occasion:

'As it is possible, that, at some future period, you may have a seat in the senate, where this important subject ought to be duly considered, I wish you to see it in the true light, that you may be able, in case it should ever come within the reach of your power, to give that sort of assistance upon that occasion which might be useful to the world and creditable to yourself.

'At present you should reflect deeply upon the subject, and make up your mind in what manner you would act, if, unhappily, you were to be involved in a quarrel:—were such an event to happen, you, very probably, would not at the time be cool enough to place, properly, the different arguments upon the point before you. Therefore, when unbiassed by passion, consider the subject impartially—always remembering that the best and wisest way is to chuse the path least likely to lead to complicated mischief.

'Whatever concerns this transient life of a day is *perfectly* immaterial when put in comparison with even the *chance* of a future, and, possibly, an eternal, one.—Remember that it is a heinous and unpardonable offence to behave in such a manner by actions, words, or looks,

looks, as may provoke *a man of the world*, not checked by principle or influenced by religion, to require what he calls *satisfaction*;—were you to give the sort of provocation I have mentioned, *you* would be the aggressor of course, and the culpable person.

'If you have given any man offence, even unintentionally, let not the haughtiness of your after-conduct prevent a reconciliation.—Remember that your *soul*, as well as your life, may be at stake upon the event.

'Remember, likewise, that the trifles which men in general quarrel about are, in *reality*, no kind of excuse for risking the terrible consequences that very often follow the destructive practice I am reprobating.—That an angry look—a petulant word—even a *blow*—cannot be set in competition with them:—justice refuses to place them in her scales—but she cries aloud for PUBLIC ATTENTION to a subject of such PUBLIC IMPORTANCE.

'I will conclude by solemnly assuring you, that, though your honour is as precious to me as your life, I would rather you should risk the scorn of the ill-judging world, than that you should meet its smiles by letting any thing urge you to give or receive a challenge.—For, by doing even the latter, though you were determined not to fire at your adversary, you still give your sanction to his taking away your life, and thus become a willing accessary to *murder*.

'No man ought to be slighted who, upon *principle*, *refuses* a challenge;—such ill-judged contempt is the principal cause which tends to increase and establish the barbarous custom; a man ought sooner to be distinguished for his attention to rectitude, who has courage enough to dare the unjust contempt of the world, but does *not* dare to set religion, law, and humanity, at defiance.

'I must again urge you to consider the unequal stake;—for, what offence can be put in comparison with the sudden loss of life?—wretchedness to your surviving family and friends—and, probably, as I have said before, and for any thing you can *know* to the contrary, future condemnation from an offended GOD.'

The subjects next considered are—Female Connections—Seduction—Attachment—Swearing and Falsehood—Society—Trifles—On Time—Behaviour to Inferiors—Dress—Conversation—Accomplishments—Drawing—Diversions—Marriage. On some of these points we recognize the advice of Lord Chesterfield to his son; which, as it here presents itself, uncontaminated with the dangerous principles of that author, is very judicious and good.

Our extracts and remarks have probably already enabled our readers to form an opinion of what they are to expect in this volume; and therefore, without entering into the detail of each of the remaining letters, we shall confine ourselves to one short extract from the remarks 'on Time:'

'Though you may think I have already said enough on the subject of idleness and mispent time, I cannot quit it without again calling

calling your attention to the insignificance of those idlers, who, after slumbering away many hours of the morning in bed, are seen in St. James's Street, or Bond-street, the places they generally frequent, sauntering up and down, and talking over their real, or often only pretended, intrigues;—or sitting at some fashionable shop, spending that money in fruit or ice, which by many of them should be appropriated to the payment of their bills.—When I see such human beings so idle, so indolent, so contemptible, yet so vain, so arrogant, so self-sufficient, my head and heart revolt against them;—instead of adding to that knowledge which was early in life forced upon them, they seem trying to forget it all.—Instead of becoming rational and respectable men, they seem going post haste that idle career which is the road to all the vices of dissipation, and commonly ends in rendering them completely unhappy, in the ruin of their fortunes, and in the shortening of their ill spent lives.

'Fly, my Son, from such companions.'

If we could believe that this passage would fall into the hands of some of the idle personages here described, we should indulge a hope that we might contribute somewhat to that reformation and improvement of youth, which are so ably undertaken at large in these maternal lessons.

ART. V. *Society*, a Poem in two Parts. With other Poems. By James Kenney. Crown 8vo. pp. 180. 4s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

IT was a maxim with a critic of antient times, and a critic to whose authority we bow with profound respect, that, where many beauties shine forth in a poem, a few blemishes may be forgiven *. Influenced by this rule, we are disposed to make a commendatory report of Mr. Kenney's performances. With regard to the poem on 'Society,' although it is of a mixed nature, and assumes the form of prose and poetry by turns, yet on the whole the balance is in its favour. The descriptions are natural and striking, the sentiments are just and rational, and the reader is agreeably roused from the chearless path of solitude, and animated with the prospect of social endearments. Some inaccuracies of expression, and a want of rhythm in certain lines, we should recommend to the author's revision. We extract first the picture of those evils which wait on the studious recluse:

'——— Unguarded then
On fancy's frontiers rush a dreadful host,
Gaunt Hypochondria and her hellish train,
Of hideous qualms, of horrors and of dreams

---

* *Horace.* '*Ubi plura nitent,*' &c.

Dire

Dire and of horrid aspect, and the once
Fair regions devastate and over-run;
Mocking with grimly laugh poor Reason's power,
That scared and unresisting stands aloof,
And sinks supine, and wonders at its fears.
[illegible] fatal fault is now discerned, and oft
Discover'd at this point 'tis not too late.
Still in the bosom of Society,
And there alone, amid those trifling cares
Deem'd frivolous of late, and thy contempt
Provoking, may be found effective force
To rout these fell invaders of thy peace.
Move in the general bustle, kindle hopes,
And int'rests that to man belong; concerns
That give the mind a various exercise,
Divert, and not fatigue; from these and such
Affections as may soothe the drooping heart,
And wake the milder passions into life,
The phantoms fly, and reason reigns again.'

This passage is rather an instance of sound sense and reason than of good poetry. We make a second quotation, in which the social endearments are pourtrayed at a gloomy moment:

'Go, seek the dismal chamber where Disease
Reclines with pallid cheek, and wasted form;
Where thro' the half-closed shutter sadly creeps
A feeble ray, that scarce a twilight sheds;
And all around distressing signs appear
Of fruitless remedies.—Mark then how sweet
To lift the languid eye upon a friend!
To feel upon the flutt'ring pulse the grasp
Of one beloved!—it beats with firmer force,
The languid eye beams momentary joy,
And Sickness, cheated by the smiling scene,
Awhile forgets her pain-inflicting task.'

Perhaps the reader will be better pleased with the first part of the Ode on the return of peace, which displays some degree of strength and beauty:

'Britons! raise the song of gladness;
Fill the air with notes of joy!
The trumpet's roar
Is heard no more;
No more the deep-mouth'd thunders roll,
That stirr'd to wrath the manly soul,
That rais'd its energies to madness,
And kindled savage longing to destroy!
O'er the desolated plain,
Culture now shall smile again:

Where of late grim Carnage stalk'd,
Where the ghosts of Warriors walk'd,
And with hellish triumph swell'd
Fiends of devastation yell'd—
Demons that view with fierce exulting eye,
What time the Fates their horrid joy allow,
The fallen Hero's painful doom,
His panting breast, his fading bloom,
His quiv'ring lip, his dewy brow,
And deep expiring sigh!

'At length dread War thy horrors cease;
See once more the Stranger Peace,
Renews her prosp'rous reign!
And see her woe-dispelling train—
Industry, and Plenty gay,
Smiling follow up her way;
Next in certain order move
Glowing Hope, and sweet Content,
Joys of heavenly descent,
And Loyalty and Love.

'Mark now the cottage guest,
Late robb'd of pleasure, robb'd of rest——
The lonely wife that oft put up her pray'r,
When the sad rumour spread
Of battles fought, of soldiers dead,
That Heav'n her love would spare.
Oft o'er the journal'd tale she cast her eye,
Of the dire conflict's rage;
In silent sorrow ponder'd o'er the page,
And many a tear she shed, and heav'd with many a sigh.'

The miscellaneous poems are in general pleasing, and display much naïveté and tenderness of feeling: but we except the *Sonnet to a Pig*, which is not in the writer's happiest manner; and we must also condemn a passage (p. 155.) in the fable of 'the discontented Rabbit,' in which the conduct of the Prodigal Son in holy writ is introduced to illustrate a ludicrous story. The author, being in a sportive mood, forgets the serious nature of that parable, and treats with improper levity a most affecting lesson of penitence and remorse. This is, however, the only instance of the kind; and we doubt not that Mr. Kenney will excuse our pointing it out, as the general tendency of his reflections convinces us of his candour, and his love of truth and virtue.

ART.

ART. VI. *Recreations in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy:* containing amusing Dissertations and Enquiries concerning a Variety of Subjects the most remarkable and proper to excite Curiosity and Attention to the whole Range of the Mathematical and Philosophical Sciences: the Whole treated in a pleasing and easy Manner, and adapted to the Comprehension of all who are the least initiated in those Sciences; viz. Arithmetic, Geometry, Trigonometry, Mechanics, Optics, Acoustics, Music, Astronomy, Geography, Chronology, Dialling, Navigation, Architecture, Pyrotechny, Pneumatics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Magnetism, Electricity, Chemistry, Palingenesy, &c. First composed by M. Ozanam, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, &c. Lately recomposed, and greatly enlarged, in a new Edition, by the celebrated M. Montucla, and now translated into English, and improved with many Additions and Observations, by Charles Hutton, LL.D. and F.R.S., and Professor of Mathematics in the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. In Four Volumes; with near One Hundred Quarto Plates. 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Kearsley.

MATHEMATICAL truth, naked and unadorned, possesses charms in the eyes of only the select: to allure many votaries, it must be decked out with embellishments, must inflame curiosity by half veiling and half exposing its mysteries and secrets, and must rouse ambition and vanity by the promise of knowlege and power. For this end, few books are better calculated than the volumes before us: the ample title-page of which sufficiently announces their contents, and not unfairly indicates their merit. They teach much with little trouble, and little formality: they require no continued strain of attention and study; and they endeavour to arrange even the most simple truths under the most pleasing forms.

To those who are acquainted with Ozanam's original work, the present will appear more like a new production than a new edition of an old one;—so many purifications, excisions, and augmentations, have the "*Récréations mathématiques et physiques*" experienced. We cannot give a better account of these alterations, and of the contents of the reformed work in French, than by quoting some passages from Montucla's preface:

'The first volume comprehends arithmetic and geometry; those two branches of the mathematics, which Plato so justly called the two wings of the Mathematician. In the former, the nature of the different kinds of arithmetic is explained; a great many singular properties of numbers, with several of which Ozanam it is probable was not at all acquainted; also those of right-angled triangles in numbers, and of polygonal numbers; but confined to such as are most interesting and easiest to be understood. The principles of the doctrine of combinations are then given in a clear and comprehensive manner, with a great variety of curious problems relating to games

and chances, several of which are quite new. The next article comprehends the different kinds of progressions, with the solution of various problems, arising out of them: also several tricks and games, founded on arithmetical combinations, are proposed and explained; which are followed by a selection of curious problems very proper for exercising young mathematicians. This part then concludes with whatever is most curious in political arithmetic, in regard to population, and the duration of human life, &c.

'The second part of this volume is occupied by geometry. This part contains about seventy-five problems, which it is hoped will be found, in general, well chosen; and which we have endeavoured to render more interesting, both by the form of the enunciation, and by the elegance and simplicity of the solution. Among these, are some elegant and singular theorems, from which is deduced a generalization of certain celebrated properties, such as the 47th proposition of the first book of Euclid, which is demonstrated also by various transpositions of parts, exceedingly ingenious. We have likewise given some transmutations of rectilineal spaces into other forms; as, of the square into rectangles, merely by decomposition and the transposition of parts, which, though elementary and not difficult, are yet quite new. This part contains also a curious historical dissertation on the quadrature of the circle, with a great number of remarkable problems respecting the lunules of Hippocrates, and others formed in imitation of them. Lastly, this volume is terminated by a collection of very curious problems, of which only the enunciation is given, being here proposed by way of exercise to young arithmeticians and geometricians. In general, they are rather simple and elegant, than difficult. Some of them however are not unworthy the attention of the experienced geometrician or analyst.

'The second volume begins with mechanics. In this part the reader is presented with a great number of interesting problems, much better selected in general than those in the former editions. An examination of several attempts to discover the perpetual motion, and various curious facts relating to that subject, will also be found in it. The whole is terminated by a brief historical account of the most remarkable machines, both ancient and modern; among the latter of which are the celebrated clocks of Strasburgh and Lyons; the machines invented by Truchet, Camus and Vaucanson; the machine of Marly, and the steam-engine. On all these objects several new and interesting observations are offered.

'The next part of the same volume contains Optics. This part we can assert has been much improved, as well in regard to arrangement, as to the accuracy and novelty of the matters. This subject is concluded with a short account of every thing new or worthy of being known in regard to microscopical observations.

'This volume then terminates with the subjects Acoustics and Music. The principles of the formation and propagation of sound, the phenomena depending on them, an explanation of ancient and modern music, several curious facts relating to the effects of both, with questions respecting the mechanism of harmony, the properties of different instruments, and certain musical paradoxes, are the principal

cipal articles w c h compose this part, and which terminate the second volume.

'The following, or third volume, comprehends Astronomy, and Geography as far as it relates to the former science; also Chronology, Gnomonics, Navigation, Architecture, and Pyrotechny, or the art of making artificial fire works. To enter into a minute detail of the corrections and considerable additions made to these different treatises of Ozanam's book, would be too tedious. In general, they have been abridged and simplified; and the errors he committed have been corrected; for it must be owned that Ozanam, having but very little studied astronomy, possessed scarcely any knowledge of the physico-astronomical truths that were demonstrated even in his own time: nothing therefore can be more superficial than what he says in regard to the system of the universe. A view of that system, and of the bodies which compose it, has been substituted in its stead; and which it is hoped will afford satisfaction to the reader, both on account of the explanation given of the different phenomena, and of the singular comparisons employed to convey an idea of its immensity.

'In regard to Chronology, we shall only remark, that this part, a few introductory observations excepted, is entirely the work of Ozanam, and required very few changes. The article on Gnomonics is almost all of it original, and contains several new problems, better chosen than those given in the work of that author. The succeeding part is also entirely new, and contains many curious problems concerning the art of navigating and manœuvring vessels. A pretty full account is here given of the celebrated problem respecting the longitude. The case is the same with the article Architecture, which has furnished matter for several curious questions, either in regard to building, or to measuring, or the art considered merely as an object of taste.

'The volume concludes with Pyrotechny. What Ozanam gave on this subject is abridged in some places, and improved in others.

'The fourth volume is entirely devoted to Physics or Natural Philosophy. The first division of this volume, which forms the eleventh of the work, is a kind of Philosophical Miscellany, in which are collected the most curious questions of every kind. It commences with a necessary introduction, which contains an accurate account of every thing known and best approved in regard to the properties of fire, of air, of water, and of earth. A view is then taken of the different branches of Natural Philosophy in general: experiments on air, hydraulic and hydrostatic recreations; the history of thermometers, barometers and hygrometers, with the method of constructing them; remarkable problems in physical astronomy solved according to their real principles; curious observations on the divisibility of matter, the tenuity of odours, and that of light, &c; questions respecting comets, an account and examination of some singular and ingenious opinions on that subject; explanation and history of intermittent springs, phenomena of ice, the method of producing it, the analysis of paper kites, &c., are the principal articles which compose this eleventh part: a proper idea of which can only be formed by consulting the table of contents.

'What regards experimental philosophy could not be terminated better than by a particular treatise on the magnet. Every thing new and most curious respecting the phenomena of this singular production of nature, its different properties, the advantages derived from it, the amusements and principal tricks performed by their combination, with artificial magnets, &c. form the subject of this treatise.

'Electricity holds too distinguished a rank among the phenomena of nature not to find a place in a work of this kind. This subject will be found treated at full length, if the number of facts and experiments made known be considered; and with great precision, if attention be paid to the manner in which they are explained. An interesting part of this short treatise is contained in what is said on the analogy between thunder and electricity. The different amusements performed by means of this singular property of bodies have not been neglected; and something is said also on the cures effected by electricity.

'Electricity, the source of so many curious phenomena, is followed by Chemistry. The principles of this science are first explained in a succinct manner, and an accurate idea is given of the different substances, the mutual play and action of which produce its principal phenomena. After this introduction, the simplest and most curious experiments in Chemistry are described and explained, according to the principles before laid down. Sympathetic inks, and the amusements which can be performed by their means, are not forgotten; nor are metallic vegetations. This part concludes with a dissertation on the philosopher's stone, on potable gold, and on palingenesy; also chemical problems, of which a curious, instructive and philosophical kind of history is given.

'This volume is terminated by two supplements; one of which treats on the different kinds of phosphorus, both natural and artificial; and the other on the pretended perpetual lamps. But we have not been so prolix as Ozanam, or rather the author of the pitiful compilation contained in the fourth volume of his work. We hope, or rather can with confidence assert, that we have related, in much less room, a great many more things, and in a much more correct manner, respecting the different kinds of phosphorus, than has been done by the author of that treatise, inserted in the edition of the Mathematical Recreations, published after Ozaham's death. In regard to the perpetual lamps, after giving an historical account of them, we shew in a very few pages, and according to the principles of sound philosophy, that they are to be considered as a chimera, only worthy of being placed in the same class as Palingenesy and the divining rod.

'We must not here omit to mention a peculiar advantage which mathematicians and philosophers will derive from this work: we allude to the various and extensive tables, which they have often occasion to make use of; and for want of which, calculators are often at no small loss. These are as follow:

'Vol. I. A table of the feet of different countries, as compared with the Parisian foot.

'A table of the ancient measures of capacity as compared with those of Paris.

'Vol. II.

'Vol. II. A table of the specific gravities of the most usual substances. In various respects it is more extensive than that of Muschenbroek, and certainly more correct.

'A table of the different weights, both ancient and modern, as well as foreign, compared with the French pound.

'Vol. III. A table of the longitudes and latitudes of the principal places of the earth, more extensive than any ever yet given.

'A table of the itinerary measures, both ancient and modern *.

'A table of the eclipses visible on the horizon of Paris, till the year 1800 †.

'Vol. IV. A table of the degrees of heat, or cold, at which different substances melt or congeal.

'A table of the different degrees of heat or cold observed in different places of the earth, or necessary for certain operations.

'A table of the dilatation of metals.

'A table of the heights of different places, and of several mountains above the level of the sea, both in the old continent, and in America.

'Such then is the plan of this new edition of the Mathematical Recreations; and we may venture to assert that, in its present state, it is not unworthy the attention of the best informed mathematicians and philosophers. Persons of every class, by perusing it, may find amusement and instruction; and the questions proposed or solved will afford them an agreeable opportunity of exercising their genius and talents in the various sciences.'

Prefixed to Vol. I. are historical accounts of Ozanam and Montucla. The latter was undoubtedly a man of talents, and of considerable acquirements: but, fairly estimating his labours, and chiefly his History of the Mathematics, we should hesitate to pronounce him, with his biographer, one of the most considerable mathematicians of the 18th century.

Though this edition is much more copious, accurate, and instructive than the original, yet it is less amusing, as it contains less '*Recreation*.' Some of the problems, methods, and receipts of M. Ozanam are very entertaining: they please from their absurdity; and to those who love to contemplate a strange mixture of science and superstition, of ingenuity and credulity, they are not altogether without instruction. Most of these are, however, expunged from the present edition; and we thought that the first problem, "*Une Abbesse aveugle visitant ses Réligieuses qui sont disperseés également dans huit Cellules*," &c. &c. had, for reasons of decorum, been omitted, till we found the blind abbess in the middle of the first volume. For

'* In this English edition, these tables have been entirely changed; the weights, measures, &c. being given as compared with a British standard. TRANS.'

'† In the translation, this table has been omitted and a new one of the eclipses visible at London, for many years to come, has been given in its stead. TRANS.'

other problems, however, we have sought in vain; for instance: 'to prepare an ointment that will cure a wound at a distance.' This ointment is almost as valuable as that which was designed to re unite the cleft body of the hero of La Mancha; and the composition is as curious as the ointment itself is valuable. 'Take of the usnea or moss of the skull of a man *that was hanged*, two ounces; mummy, human blood, of each half an ounce; earth worms washed in water or wine, and dried, two ounces and a half; human fat, two ounces; the fat of a wild boar, and the fat of a bear, of each half an ounce; oil of linseed and oil of turpentine, of each two drachms,' &c. Then again, the methods of curing the cholick and tooth-ache are extremely ingenious and entertaining: 'Thomas Bartholin says, his uncle was cured of a violent cholick by applying a dog to his belly, which was thereupon seized with it; and that his maid-servant was cured of the tooth-ache by clapping the same dog to her cheek, and when the dog was gone from her, he howled and made such motions, as gave them to know he had got the maid's tooth-ache.'—M. Montucla, however, does not exclude the divining Rod, but relates a pleasant story or two concerning it.

For having chastened and purified the collection from those parts which might raise indecorous laughter, M. Montucla has made ample compensation, by the variety of amusing and useful information with which he has diversified and enriched his volumes; and they are well adapted to lie on the tables or chairs of our parlours, since they may be taken up for five minutes and again laid down, after we have learnt to construct a dial, or to make a rocket, or to compute with our fingers.

We have already said that the present work is well calculated to teach useful things in an agreeable manner. Science loses not always its dignity, by losing its formality; and Demonstration may gain possession of the understanding, although it does not make its regular and tactical approaches by lemma, proposition, and corollary. Yet this production is artful without the appearance of art: since, by holding out gratification to the characteristic propensities of the juvenile mind, it impels youth to the quest of knowlege, it gently induces the indolent to join in the pursuit, and, by addressing the uninformed in common language and familiar phrases, insinuates instruction. We do not think, indeed, as has been remarked that these *Recreations* will unbend the mind; unless they are supposed to unbend it on the same principle on which we unstring a bow, to preserve its elasticity and vigour *.

ART.

* One or two small criticisms may be conveyed in a note. P. 308, vol. I. we meet an odd word '*squarrable*,' and again, p. 439, vol. 4.

In

ART. VII. *Six Picturesque Views in North Wales*, engraved in Acquatinta by Alken, from Drawings made on the Spot: with poetical Reflections on leaving the Country. By the Rev. Brian Broughton, M. A. Fellow of New College, Oxford. 4to. pp. 32. 12s. sewed. Mawman.

ON contemplative minds, sublime and beautiful scenery has always been known to make the most powerful impressions; and Admiration may as justly be allowed to inspire poetry, as Indignation. Who can ramble among picturesque and romantic objects, without feeling a mixed sensation of awe and pleasure? and who that has been in the habit of recurring to his pen, in order to embody and record his intellectual operations, can restrain himself from discharging his full soul either in verse or prose? The pen, it must be admitted, is inadequate to display pictures of nature with so much accuracy to the imagination, as the pencil can exhibit them to the eye: but the former has nevertheless this prominent advantage over the latter, that it can give a tongue to the silent wilderness, make the noisy cataract eloquent to the mind, and enlarge the pleasures of contemplation by regular trains of reflection.

In the small publication before us, Nature is both delineated and described; and whether we look to the sketches of the bold and diversified scenery in Wales, or to the poetical reflections which they excited in the mind of the author, we cannot withhold our acknowlegements of his talents. The engravings in acquatinta by Alken, from Mr. Broughton's own drawings, are beautiful: but in the pleasure which they have afforded us, we cannot make all our readers participate;—if, however, we cannot copy engravings, we can quote poetry, and Mr. Broughton's verse will in some measure compensate for the omission.

The first plate represents the Fall of the River Machno in Carnarvonshire; and the scenery in its vicinity is singularly romantic, particularly at its junction with the river Conway. The author describes himself as leaving the Fall of the Machno in a summer evening on his return to England; and he expresses a hope that his reflections will 'convey the regret of a contemplative mind, on the loss of the happiness which it had

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In fusing iron by sulphur, we read 'this process is employed for making shot used in *hunting*:' we have not Montucla by us, but we strongly suspect that the original word in the French is *chasse*, which is used to denote generally quest or pursuit of game, and in the present instance would mean *shooting*. The account of Dials is much too long.

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some time enjoyed in an excursion amid the sublime and beautiful prospects of the northern part of the Principality.'

Mr. B. thus addresses himself to Nature in general:

'Majestic Nature! who here feels his mind
Cold at thy beauties? Who but rather glows
With love of Liberty, wild mountain nymph?
Whose spirit fir'd her hardy votaries
To save their native hills; that even now,
High o'er the clouds aspiring, ancient days
Recall; and by their sullen aspects cold,
Still awe the Saxon bred in humbler climes.'

He proceeds afterward to an enumeration of those sublime objects which excited his intellectual pleasures:

——————'Ye cloud-capt hills
By your immensity that raise our souls
To the great Architect, whose word hath form'd
This universal frame, the blue serene
Studded with stars, yon radiant orb of day,
Night's paler planet, and their wondrous course,
Unerring through the trackless void of space,
Changing the mind contemplative from doubt
To silent adoration and mute awe!
Ye, like those glorious works, should never know
The stain of human frailty, but were meant
To raise the heart by heav'nly pensive thoughts,
Spurning life's low delights: so always strike,
By vast dimensions and by tow'ring height,
My mind! ye solemn mountains! emblems meet
Of your first cause, divine Infinitude,
Nearer by you to mortal sight convey'd.
Oh, truly wise! whether his eye be cast
On such bleak objects, or the polar ice
Wide rent, and rushing down with horrid crash
On the far trembling deep, where the dull blood
Scarce flows, and sickly vegetation dies;
Oh, truly wise is he, who sees, in all,
Present a God benevolent; no less
Than where the sun, more vertical, pours down
His genial beams, and swains the harvest mow
Redundant.'

With reluctant steps, he quits this scene of wonders; and his unwillingness is forcibly expressed in a lingering farewell, which dwells on each of those subjects which are about to retire from his view:

——————'Farewell, blest haunt of Peace!
Beauteous as that fam'd vale of Thessaly,
Through which Peneus murmur'd; nor less fit
For meditations pure, where wearied Age,

Beneath

Beneath the wooded rock might love to muse
Unseen, and resting on his walk, to catch
The torrent's echo, best by moonlight heard,
Administ'ring sweet intervals of peace
To troubled thoughts. Farewel the pleasing dread
Mid Caërnarvon's inmost mountains felt,
Regions of awful silence! undisturb'd
Save by the eagle's screams, or thundr'ing fall
Of loosen'd fragments tumbling from the brow
Of Glyder; on whose crest of cheerless crags
The brooding tempest musters all his stores
To desolate the valley; whilst no ray
Brightens the clouds, or penetrates their gloom,
Making day dubious. In such hours of fear,
What awful pleasure 'tis to meditate,
As on the world in wild confusion mixt,
Ere Order still'd the jarring elements,
And soften'd them to beauty! What delight,
Suiting the gloomy habit of the thoughts,
To image Chaos, anarch old, enthron'd
On Snowdon's peak, reigning with loud misrule,
Over his bleak domain of formless rocks!
But not the turbulence of heav'n alone
Delights, or horrors, to these dreary scenes
Congenial: milder beauties they can boast,
If pure the sky and lenient is the air.
Sweet is the rise of dawn, chasing the mists
Of night, whose vapours, lightly floating, hide
Huge Penmaenmaur; and sweet the evening sun,
Pouring his radiance on th' unclouded top
Of Cader, king of mountains! whence the eye,
Wide-straining, scarce discerns the tract below
Of dim-seen vales, by many a shining rill
Indented, and the azure sea outstretch'd
To blue Ierne, fading into air.
Ah transient visions, fleeting as the joys
Of life! how many a dreary waste I pass'd,
Amply rewarded for my toilsome march,
When ye have cheer'd me! rare as are the drops
Of pleasure thrown within the bitter cup
Of worldly sorrow, to beguile our path
Through the sad vale of woe. Sweet scenes, farewel!
Whether on Bala's Meer, where aged yews
Dip their dark branches in his pebbly brink
Pellucid, or near Aran's shaggy tops,
Shading the sacred source of Deva's stream.
Farewel! thou wooded vale, that hear'st her roar
Loud o'er the stony bed: thy fam'd retreat,
Thine, last of Cambrian patriots, wild Glendower!
Thence, farther onward, flung from rock to rock,
Pont y Glyn Dyffis, 'neath whose lofty arch

The

The loud wave rages, whitening with his foam
Tall oaks of vivid green, or paler ash,
The craggy banks concealing. All, farewel!
From you departing, can I love the hum
Of busy cities, where man's face divine
Smiles to deceive, or threatens to destroy?
Can I forsake, without a heart-felt sigh,
The mountain nymph Simplicity, nor mourn
That in secluded glens alone she dwells,
Scar'd by a world of guile? for here, retired,
She guides the artless peasant's equal course
Of inoffensive life; and, ev'n in death,
Her influence lingers o'er his grassy tomb.'

In these romantic regions, which present so many objects to inspire devotion, it is a kind of bathos to represent the 'sabbath bell from the low-roofed church' as seeming to say

'The swains were grateful to a bounteous God
E'en for their scanty crops.'

Indeed, the people are represented as a happy race; and, as Goldsmith says of the Swiss,

"That the loud torrent and the whirlwind's roar
But bind him to his native mountains more,"

so Mr. B. exhorts the Welsh

'To love their mountains and enjoy their storms.'

Several of the author's expressions are borrowed from our eminent poets, but he has not marked them with quotation commas.

Mr. B. has taken for his motto a not inapposite passage from Gray:

"*Præsentiorem conspicimus Deum*
Per invias rupes, fera per juga,
Clivosque præruptos, sonantes
Inter aquas, nemorumque noctem."

ART. VIII. *Le Forester*, a Novel. By the Author of Arthur Fitz-Albini *. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. White.

FROM the common practice of modern novelists, a reader might imagine that obscurity was the aim of this species of composition. We have heard, in an old farce, of making an illumination *to keep the people in the dark*; and we now frequently meet with narratives, in which the author endeavours to keep the reader ignorant of the principal incidents, till the conclusion of the work. This, it may be said, is agreeable to

* See Rev. vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 318.

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the Horatian precept, *in medias prorumpere res:* but it has been carried to great excess. The novels of Retife de Breton, particularly, abound with this sort of extravagance; and we should not wonder to see a bold writer commence with the execution of his hero, and employ some volumes in a retrospect of his "birth, parentage, and education."

The author of the tale before us cannot be charged with this species of impropriety. His incidents are clearly deduced, and the distress is always intelligible. The language, though not uniformly correct, is above mediocrity; and the writer has shewn an acquaintance with English history beyond the reach of common novellists. We insert a passage, as a slight specimen of the work:

'Lord Forester, pressed with increasing difficulties by the agents of his unfortunate and ill-used nephew Godfrey, had for some time begun to feel his spirits and courage sink. As his prospects grew more gloomy, his conscience smote him. But how could he resolve to make restitution of his usurped rank and property? Little was he fitted for the privations of adversity: all his enjoyments were worldly; and in the splendour of titles, in the luxury of wealth alone could he overpower the compunctions of a guilty mind! Too subtle, to be ignorant that that which he ought to resign, was his only protection from scorn and infamy, how wretched were his present feelings!

'Sorrowful and almost desponding, he went down to the old family seat at Hedindon. It stood on a rough knowl, abruptly overhanging on one side a precipitous stream, which issued from the distant wood-crowned mountains that bounded the park; a rude, neglected, but magnificent pile of building, the mixed work of several centuries; with windows, gateways, towers, and battlements projecting in an hundred various shapes delightful to the picturesque eye, and feeding the fancy with romantic ideas. The park itself was of a congenial character; extensive, broken, exuberant in ancient trees, and as if it had been for ages untouched by the hand of art or cultivation. Wild herds grazed at a distance with fierce or fearful looks; or started from the covering of the spreading brake, or from the shade of the old twisted thorn, and scudded before the wind. Here and there a keeper's lodge or labourer's cottage was seen peeping out of a dingle, whose solitary inhabitants appeared almost as unacquainted with the haunts of men, as the brute tribes that fed around them. Lofty woods rose up to the horizon on the opposite bank of the river, through which the ancient avenues that had been formerly cut and kept with such care, were now half grown up, and sometimes rendered impassable with neglect.

'The inside of the house was not less magnificent, nor less rude and neglected than the outside. A massive gate of entrance; gloomy courts; an immense hall with a roof of carved oak, and high windows darkened with painted glass; numerous apartments of every size and shape; a labyrinth of passages; long endless galleries hung thick with grim-visaged paintings; and a melancholy chapel, in which superstition

tion might indulge itself to madness! In every room the portrait of warrior or statesman decorated the walls, and frowned in vain upon his degenerate successor.

'To such a scene did Lord Forester retire. But not alone: solitude was too dreary for him. He brought with him his companions, both male and female; the associates of his profligacy; the fomenters of his dissolute orgies. Music, during his abode here, made the roof of the old hall ring with its echoes; and the noisy merriment of wine banished the awful silence that generally prevailed here. But all could not drown the uneasiness that had now taken possession of his mind. He could not bear to be left a moment alone; in some of the rooms through which he was often necessitated to pass, no efforts could conceal his tremblings, and the pallidness of his countenance; he dreaded the return of night, and often waked from his sleep with the most horrible shrieks at some image which appeared to haunt him. These perturbations, the woman with whom he cohabited, and who had obtained a great, and indeed unhappy influence over him, could yet by no means appease. She was a woman of too much intrigue and sagacity not to feel alarmed at this state of her protector's mind, which she termed a contemptible weakness, and endeavoured by raillery, remonstrance, and argument to dissipate.'

This species of half-poetical prose seems now, by a sort of prescription, to have become the standard-language of novels. If it has more flowers than fruit, we must acknowlege that there are fewer weeds than usual in this production.

ART. IX. *The Voyage Home from the Cape of Good Hope,* with other Poems, relating to the Cape, and Notes. By H. W. Tytler, M.D. 4to. pp. 73. 5s. Hatchard.

EVERY circumstance worthy of remark, that occurred in a voyage from the Cape of Good Hope to Portsmouth, is here narrated in easy, but not very elegant nor correct verse. The albatross pursuing the albacore, and the albacore chasing the flying fish, are made the subject of two stanzas, and exhibited as 'emblems of the human race:' but birds preying on fishes, and one kind of fish living on another kind, cannot be adduced as very exact symbols of man's hostility to man.—The luminous appearance of the ocean at night, the view of the ocean at sun-rise—the spouting of the Whale—St. Helena—turtles and noddies and boobies on Ascension isle—the Nautilus—a calm—catching of sharks—Ceremonies on crossing the Line—western breeze—the sad fate of the Captain—Scilly Isles—Portland race—the Isle of Wight and Portsmouth—form the main incidents. In the course of this poetical narrative, Dr. Tytler does not forget his friends, at the head of which

list stands Mr. Penn, of Stoke Park, on whom is bestowed the warmest tribute of affectionate commendation. We shall quote, as a specimen of this marine ballad, the stanzas descriptive of the amusement of the sailors on crossing the Line.

'At length beneath the Line we come,
And there, becalm'd so far from home,
Fate seems approaching near.
Then the fell shark around us glides,
And drives, in heaps, the burning tides,
As waiting for us there.

'The sailors drop the hook, the chain;
The monster swallows both; they train
The rope around his jaws.
Then each, exerting his whole strength,
The struggling pain-worn fish, at length,
Into the vessel draws.

'The deck he lashes with his tail,
Till his strong nerves entirely fail;
Then, panting, gasps for breath;
The gladsome sailors, at a blow,
Divide the tail of their fall'n foe;
He sinks in instant death.

'Alas! how many sharks, at land,
Devouring jaws so wide expand,
And merit equal fate;
But, as they come in diff'rent shape,
The doom deserv'd will oft escape,
In the best-govern'd state.'

It might be in vain to make remarks on tame expressions, incorrect language, and bad rhymes; since Dr. T., happily returned to his native country, probably *cares not a fig* for the critics and their strictures. For his own sake, however, we wish that he had been more attentive to his poetical reputation: but, as he seems to be indifferent to it himself, we shall not attempt to apply the hand of correction; leaving his own prose to apologize for his own verse, and to express his feelings as an author:

'Thus, my good Readers, after you have so kindly accompanied me in my Voyage, short in description, but long in reality; and, after having brought *your* worthy selves, upon paper, and *my*self, in fact, from the Cape, to my dearly beloved, and unparalleled native country of Great Britain—If I have, in any wise, been to you an instructive, or entertaining companion, I shall thank my own good fortune. If, on the contrary, any of you should hoot, and abuse my little work; and write, or say to your acquaintances, that it is a mere rhapsody of nonsense, and too expensive at even a single perusal, I do most heartily forgive you; and shall attribute your unfavourable opinion,

opinion, not to any sort of emulation, envy, want of taste, of reading, or learning in yourselves; but entirely to that incorrigible, and unpardonable fault of all bad poets; namely, want of genius in the author.—And now, having treated you with an entertainment, such as it is, I bid you, for the present, farewell: Hoping you will allow me to conclude, in the following words of Horace; at once, so descriptive of my various infirmities, occasioned by fatigues undergone, in the service of my king, and country, both by sea, and land; and that, not in destroying, but in preserving the lives of my fellow-creatures; and so expressive of my ardent wishes, to pass the remainder of my days, in the renowned capital of old England, or its delightful vicinity; or, at any rate, in my beloved country of Great-Britain:

'Tibur, Argæo positum colono,
Sit meæ sedes utinam senectæ;
Sit modus lasso maris, et viarum,
Militiæque.

'Unde, si Parcæ prohibent iniquæ;
Dulce, pellitis ovibus, Galesi
Flumen, et regnata, petam, Laconi
Rura Phalanto.'

Being arrived not only in the Land of Good Hope but of good enjoyment, perhaps Dr. Tytler may find leisure to improve his poetical taste; in which case, he will perceive the defects of this first-fruit of his Muse.

ART. X. *An English Harmony of the Four Evangelists*, generally disposed after the Manner of the Greek of William Newcome, Archbishop of Armagh. 8vo. pp. 490. 7s. 6d. W. Phillips.

THE editor of this volume, after some remarks on the utility of harmonies, proceeds to observe that 'the most serious objection to this mode of distributing the gospel history is that, by contrasting the minute particulars of a general relation of circumstances, a partial disagreement or seeming inconsistency is in various instances observed.' He then assures us that these difficulties are generally explained and obviated by the notes at the end of this work; though he allows that some may have escaped his notice, and that others have been left in the state in which they were found, 'from a fear of attempting to illustrate by conjecture, the records of the most interesting and important work ever delivered to mankind.' He thinks that many sufficient reasons might be advanced to explain why these occur: but he regarded it as impossible to enter into an investigation comprehending so great an extent of inquiry, within the limits prescribed for his preface; and therefore he contents himself with quoting the judgment of the

the learned prelate, whose plan he professes to follow.—"The result of my thoughts and enquiries is, that every genuine proposition in Scripture, whether doctrinal or historical, contains a truth when it is rightly understood; that the evangelists conceived alike of the facts related by them, but sometimes place them in different lights, and make a selection from different circumstances accompanying them, and that their seeming variations would instantly vanish were the history known to us in its precise order and in all its circumstances."

We do not fully concur in this writer's opinion, when he considers it as a principal objection to harmonies that they discover the disagreement or seeming contrarieties of the writers to whom they relate; since from an observation of this kind an attempt to *harmonize* originated; and the design of this labour is to reconcile the apparent inconsistencies, and to lessen or remove difficulties of such a nature which have already occurred. Yet we perfectly agree with him that 'a testimony to the genuineness of gospel-history arises from incongruities which are observed, namely, that the Evangelists did not write in concert;' and we also greatly approve the remark which he introduces from (if we may now term him so) a *late* author:—"Truth, like honesty, often neglects appearances: hypocrisy and imposture are always guarded: and, as from these seeming discordancies in their accounts, we may conclude they did not write in concert; so, from their agreeing in the principal and most material facts, we may infer that they wrote after the truth."

With respect to the duration of our Lord's ministry, the editor implicitly follows the opinion adopted by Archbishop Newcome, that it extended to three years or longer; and he also preserves the archbishop's division of time. Some alterations have been made, we are told, in the disposition of the text; 'which, it is hoped, are generally to advantage, yet so inconsiderable, that to enumerate them has been thought unnecessary.'

About thirty-six pages of notes are added to the whole, as they are furnished by commentators, or gathered from collections and abridgments frequently presented to the public: many or most of them are pertinent and useful. We shall satisfy ourselves in offering the last of them to the notice of our readers; not that it is new, but it may yet be acceptable.

' John xxi. 25. *And there are also many other things which Jesus did, the which, if they should be written every one, I suppose, that even the world itself could not contain the books that should be written.* The construction of this verse, in our present translation, is fully justified in adducing from the Old Testament expressions of equal latitude.

See Exodus, iii. 8. Judges, vii. 12. 1 Kings, x. 27, &c. and which are not unusual in the magnificent luxuriance of an oriental style, though rarely occurring in the simple artless narrations of the apostles. This text may, nevertheless, be considered in a sense somewhat different. The same evangelist (John) frequently uses the word *world* in a general sense, to denote its inhabitants, ch. viii. 26. and in other places, as ch. xv. 18. expressive of wicked and unbelieving men. The Greek word χωρεω, here translated, contain, is not only used in that sense, but when applied to the mind, denotes the reception and understanding of any thing, and in Matt. xix. 11, 12. and Philemon 15, is rendered by this construction. By adopting these observations, the text reads to this purport, "I am persuaded the world itself would not receive the books that should be written;" (Doddridge's Translation.)—Whitby, Chandler, Harwood, with many others, have supported this construction, under the idea of greater propriety of application. In addition to whose opinion, it may be observed, that in this day, under the more extended diffusion of evangelical truth, the same disposition of undervaluing, and in no small degree, rejecting these sacred records, seems lamentably prevalent, and bears strong testimony to the justness of John's assertion.'

Perhaps, however, it may be sufficient to regard the expression as a very strong hyperbole, which the writer employs concerning facts that he knew to be so amazing, so prodigious, and so numerous; and we find that the Jewish phraseology is not entirely destitute of modes of speech which have somewhat of a similar appearance.

ART. XI. *Memoirs of the Life of the Rt. Hon. Sir John Eardley Wilmot*, Knight, late Lord Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas, and one of his Majesty's most honourable Privy Council, with some original Letters, and 2 Portraits. 4to. pp. 80. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

ART. XII. *Notes of Opinions and Judgements delivered in different Courts.* By the Right Hon. Sir John Eardley Wilmot, Knt. &c. 4to. pp. 400. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. *

IT has often been a subject of regret with us that the lives of men, who have distinguished themselves in the profession of the Law, have not been more frequently presented to the public. The names of *Comyns*, *Gilbert*, *Sir Michael Foster*, and of many others who have conferred essential obligations on the world by their valuable productions, will be in vain sought in any of the bibliographical collections which have come under our notice; while, in every other department, characters are recorded which have no claim to such a distinction, and which would be ranked by a considerate mind among "the tiny twinkling lustres of the land." Such being our sen-

* These works are published separately, and also in one volume.

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timents, we view the present attempt with peculiar satisfaction; since we think that the high rank which Sir Eardley Wilmot justly attained, and the intrinsic merit displayed in his judgements and opinions, must unavoidably create a laudable curiosity in regard to him, which ought to be gratified.

The subject of the present memoir was born at Derby in the year 1709, and was the second son of Robert Wilmot of Osmaston in that county. After having acquired the rudiments of learning in the free school in the town of Derby, under the Reverend Mr. Blackwell,

'He was placed with the Rev. Mr. Hunter at Litchfield, where he was contemporary with Johnson and Garrick. It is remarkable that several eminent men have been brought up at this school; beside Addison and Wollaston, Johnson and Garrick, bishop Newton (who was himself of that seminary) remarks, that there were at one period five judges upon the bench, who had been educated at Litchfield school, viz. lord chief justice Willes, lord chief baron Parker, Mr. justice Noel, sir Robert Lloyd, baron of the exchequer, and Mr. justice, afterwards lord chief justice, Wilmot.'

From Litchfield, he removed to Westminster school, and thence to Trinity-Hall, Cambridge; where he continued to reside till the year 1728. At this time he contracted a passion for study and retirement, which never quitted him at any subsequent period of his life; and he was often heard to say that the height of his ambition was to become a Fellow of Trinity Hall, and to pass his life in that learned Society. Humility, that most becoming and the rarest of all Christian virtues, on which those most frequently descant who are the least acquainted with its influence, was as remarkable a feature in the character of Sir Eardley as his love of privacy and retirement. He was more unremitting in his study of the law than he was eager in his pursuit after its emoluments; and his practice was chiefly confined to his native county, to which he retired about the year 1754, but from which he was soon recalled by being appointed successor to Sir Martin Wright as a judge of the court of King's Bench. It was with considerable difficulty that he was induced to accept an appointment, so inconsistent with his favourite wish of living in a private manner in the country: but his increasing family, he having married in 1743, probably overcame his objection.

Lord Hardwicke, in 1756, resigned the great seal, and Sir Eardley was chosen the junior commissioner. In this situation, and again on a subsequent occasion, he gave an example of self-denial and forbearance which will scarcely be credited by those who consider the honours and advantages of life as the only objects worthy of their attention and pursuit:—*he refused*

to be Chancellor — A passage in a letter to his brother, on this subject, is plainly descriptive of the state of his feelings:

'The acting junior in the Commission is a spectre I started at, but the sustaining the Office alone, I must and will refuse at all events. I will not give up the peace of my mind to any earthly consideration whatever. * * Bread and water are nectar and ambrosia, when contrasted with the Supremacy of a Court of Justice. * * *

'Yours, &c.

'E. WILMOT.'

A remarkable event happened about this time, which we shall relate in the words of the biographer:

'In March 1757, sir Eardley had a most providential escape from being destroyed at Worcester (while sitting in court, and just beginning to sum up the evidence) by the fall of a stack of chimnies through the roof into court. His first clerk, Mr. John Lawes, was killed at his feet; some other persons also were killed, and several very dangerously hurt. Most of the counsel were gone, and those who remained, got under the great table round which they had been sitting. Among the counsel present were Mr. Aston, Mr. Nares, Mr. Ashhurst, Mr. Skinner, and Mr. Griffith Price, all of whom, it is remarkable, except Mr. Price (who afterwards had a silk gown, and was eminent as a chancery counsel) ascended the bench. The safety of the judge was perhaps owing to his presence of mind and resignation, in sitting still till the confusion was over. This circumstance has been often told to the writer of these Memoirs, by a gentleman who was an eye-witness of the scene, and could not help observing and admiring his composure on this alarming occasion. His own description and sentiments of it, may be seen in the following extract of a letter written to his wife immediately after.

"Worcester, 15 March, 1757,
Four in the afternoon.

"I send this by express, on purpose to prevent your being frightened in consequence of a most terrible accident at this place. Between two and three, as we were trying causes, a stack of chimnies blew upon the top of that part of the hall where I was sitting, and beat the roof down upon us; but as I sat up close to the wall, I have escaped without the least hurt. When I saw it begin to yield and open, I despaired of my own life, and the lives of all within the compass of the roof. Mr. John Lawes is killed, and the attorney in the cause which was trying is killed, and I am afraid some others: there were many wounded and bruised. It was the most frightful scene I ever beheld. I was just beginning to sum up the evidence, in the cause which was trying, to the jury, and intending to go immediately after I had finished: most of the counsel were gone, and they who remained in court are very little hurt, though they seem to have been in the place of greatest danger. If I am thus miraculously preserved for any good purpose, I rejoice at the event, and both you and the little ones will have reason to join with me in returning God thanks for this signal deliverance; but if I have escaped, to lose either my honour or my virtue, I shall think, and you ought

ought all to concur with me in thinking, that the escape is my greatest misfortune.

" I desire you will communicate this to my friends, lest the news of such a tragedy, which fame always magnifies, should affect them with fears for me.

" Two of the Jurymen, who were trying the cause, are killed; and they are carrying dead and wounded bodies out of the ruins still. I will write to you again, &c. &c."

" JOHN EARDLEY WILMOT."

In the year 1766, he received the following letter from Lord Camden:

" " I have the King's Orders to acquaint you with his intention of removing you to the Chief Justiceship of the Common Pleas, if it be agreeable to you. As Mr Morton is not yet determined to yield up to you the Chief Justiceship of Chester, I would advise you to repose yourself in the common Pleas 'till that desired event happens: I assure you it is a place of perfect tranquillity. I do most sincerely congratulate you on this nomination. I have been under a treaty with * * * * * * ever since I came to Town, the particulars of which you shall know when you come: It is now suspended till you arrive —I have withstood his bribe, being determined never to defraud my successor upon my death bed: his necessities are extreme as well as my punctilio, and I doubt they can never meet: however it is now in your hands rather than in mine; for I do not consider myself any longer in Conscience, though I am in Law, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas." " I am with great truth, &c.

" CAMDEN "

' Sir Eardley was at this time on the Western Circuit with sir Joseph Yates, to whom he communicated the purport of the Letter he had received from lord Camden, at the same time expressing his intention to decline the unsolicited honour that was offered him, chiefly on account of his health, and the desire he had long felt of retiring from public business: sir Joseph was much surprised and affected with this declaration; and after endeavouring to persuade him to a different conduct, retired to rest, without making any impression on sir Eardley, who read to him the answer he had written to the above purport, and which he intended to send the next morning. Sir Joseph's friendly bosom, however, could take no rest when the interests of his friend and his family were, as he thought, so deeply concerned. He rose very early in the morning, and went to his friend's chamber with another Letter in his hand, which he at last prevailed upon sir Eardley to copy with very little alteration. He accordingly sent the following answer, stating his increasing infirmities, but submitting, with respect and gratitude, to his Majesty's pleasure.

' * * * " Bristol, 9th August 1766.

" Your Lordship may imagine the pride I must feel from so eminent a mark of the Royal favour; but before these gracious intentions are carried into execution, I think it my duty to lay before the King the true state of my health, that his Majesty may judge whe-

ther a mind, so allied, is fit for his service in so important an office. I have long apprehended the approach of sometning paralytic; but doctor Huxham of Plymouth, whom I have lately consulted, conjectures that my disorder is rather stone in the kidneys. What my real case may be is at present uncertain; but I should become very unhappy indeed, if after so distinguished an instance of his Majesty's favour, my infirmities should render me unequal to the task, and make me an occasion of repentance to the King for the only error in the Appointments he has made.

"Your Lordship's conduct with respect to Mr. * * * is extremely delicate and honourable, and I shall concur in any measure which your lordship approves, that may best accommodate the necessities of his family, without expecting or wishing for the least advantage from it.

"Lord Northington's Resignation gives me the pleasure of congratulating with the public on your lordship's promotion, which redounds so much to the honour of the crown, and affords such universal satisfaction, &c. &c. "E. WILMOT."

'The Office which sir Eardley was going to decline, though of greater emolument and of higher rank in the profession, was less laborious than that he would have retained; but, without the friendly interposition abovementioned, the very circumstance of its high rank was a sufficient reason with him to decline it, as it would naturally call him forth more into public view, which was what he wished most to avoid.

'In the evening of the day sir Eardley kissed hands on being appointed chief justice, one of his sons, a youth of 17, attended him to his bed-side. "Now," says he, "my son, I will tell you a secret worth your knowing and remembering; the elevation I have met with in life, particularly this last instance of it, has not been owing to any superior merit or abilities, but to my humility, to my not having set up myself above others, and to an uniform endeavour to pass through life, void of offence towards God and man."

In the beginning of 1771, Sir Eardley resigned the chief justiceship of the common pleas, and with it the chief of his connection with public life.—Various notes to and from eminent men occasionally enrich this narrative; the remainder of which is occupied by letters written by this exemplary man to the members of his own family, which represent him in a most amiable point of view. Much good sense as well as a manly love of independence appears in the ensuing:

'To one of his Sons. "21st April 1766.

"I have received yours, and the Term being begun, I have not had time to compare the oration * with the original, but stole an hour

'* Pro Archia Poeta.—In another letter about this time, he says, "you could not have chosen an oration more emphatically descriptive of my sentiments upon the advantage as well as ornament, which every species of literature imparts to a Lawyer; but even independently

hour yesterday for the first sheet, which I return herewith. I assure you, I found it much better than I expected, and you cannot pursue an exercise which will be of greater service to you; for beside improving yourself in the knowledge of Latin, it will facilitate the great and arduous work you have undertaken, the speaking "apte, ornate, et disposite," in your own language—it will give you a great stock of words, and insensibly impregnate your mind with very beautiful ideas, and a happy manner of expressing them: and I wish you to attain such a knowledge of the Greek, as may enable you to read Demosthenes, because his concise and nervous manner of speaking strikes an audience more forcibly than Tully's, and is more adapted to the taste of the present age. They are both excellent in their several ways: I forget who, but I think it is Longinus, who says, "Tully strikes with his hand open, and Demosthenes with his hand closed;" and that the one "blazes like a fire, but the other throws thunder-bolts;" and till you have advanced a little further in Greek, you cannot do better than take another of Tully's orations, and amuse yourself now and then with a play of Terence, where you will find more good sense than in all the plays that have been written in this country. I have a great inclination to read Livy over again myself, and therefore reserve that book for the vacation, and we will take an hour every day together, in walking over that fine embroidered carpet of Roman history. There is a strain of honour and greatness in the Greek and Roman writers, which, like music, speaks to every sublime and virtuous principle of the mind.

"Logic is certainly dry and unentertaining, but stretch all the nerves and sinews of your mind to attain it; for it is of infinite use in setting a keen edge upon the understanding; and besides, it gives an eagle eye in detecting false reasoning and sophistry. I never knew an able Logician, who did not acknowledge and feel the utility of it in forensic practice: and if you wish to figure in a legal profession, you must travel through many dry, unpleasing countries, where nothing can support you in the journey but catching a glimpse, now and then, of the terrestrial paradise which is at the end of it; by which terrestrial paradise, I mean a state of independence, and a capacity of living as you like to do, without deviating from the paths of honour and virtue, or courting either fools or knaves for a livelihood: and I hope it will be written upon the tablets of your heart, in characters not to be effaced by ambition, avarice, or pleasure, that the only sure and certain happiness to be found on this side of the grave, is a consciousness of your own rectitude. All peace and homefelt joy is the gift of virtue, and there is no applause in this world worth having, unless it is crowned with your own.—A ship is just come from the East Indies, and we expect every hour to hear of your brother; for whose health and prosperity unite your prayers with those of your most affectionate father."

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ently of all profit and praise (which was the immortality of the heathens) it was, in Plato's opinion, the only physic for the soul; and Pliny calls it, "unicum doloris levamentum."

As every thing which proceeded from the pen of that illustrious scholar Sir W. Jones must be interesting to our readers, we shall make no apology for presenting them with a letter written by him:

"* * * *, "University College, Oxford, 3d January 1771.

"It makes me very happy to hear, that my Lord Chief Justice retires from a motive that does him the highest honour. He will now enjoy the greatest happiness of human life, ease with dignity, after having passed through the most honourable labours without danger. I should think myself highly blessed, if I could pursue a similar course in my small sphere, and after having raised a competency at the Bar, could retire to the bowers of learning and the arts.

"I have just begun to contemplate the stately edifice of the Laws of England,

"The gathered wisdom of a thousand years,"

if you will allow me to parody a line of Pope. I do not see why the study of the Law is called dry and unpleasant, and I very much suspect that it seems so to those only who would think any study unpleasant, which required a great application of the mind and exertion of the memory. I have read most attentively the two first volumes of Blackstone's Commentaries, and the two others will require much less attention. I am much pleased with the care he takes to quote his authorities in the margin, which not only give a sanction to what he asserts, but point out the sources to which the student may apply for more diffusive knowledge. I have opened two common-place books, one of law, and the other of oratory; which is surely too much neglected by our modern speakers. I do not mean the popular eloquence which cannot be tolerated at the bar, but that correctness of style and elegance of method, which at once pleases and persuades the hearer. But I must lay aside my studies for about six weeks, while I am printing my grammar, from which a great deal is expected, and which I must endeavour to make as perfect as a human work can be. When that is finished, I shall attend the court of King's Bench very constantly, and shall either take a lodging in Westminster, or accept the invitation of a friend in Duke-street, who has made me an obliging offer of apartments. He has two nephews at Westminster-school, and by helping them now and then in their exercises, I shall find an agreeable relaxation from severe studies.

"On one of the Indian pictures that I saw at your house, there was a beautiful copy of Persian verses, which I will beg leave to transcribe, and should be glad to print it with a translation in the appendix of my grammar. I have not yet had my Persian proposals engraved, but when you write to your brother, you would much oblige me, if you would desire him to send me a little Persian manuscript, if he can procure it without much trouble. It is a small poem which I wish to print. I have inclosed its full title in Persian and English. * * * * "W. Jones."

We

We shall close our extracts from this interesting publication, with the insertion of a few lines addressed to another of Sir Eardley's sons:

"I am sorry for your own sake to hear you find a want of that moderation and constancy of mind, which alone enable a man to go through life with credit and comfort.

"I am very sensible that parts and spirits and natural abilities, and that elevation of soul, which unites humility and supereminent greatness together, are in the power of no man. They are "particula divinæ auræ," perhaps infused by God, when he first animates the clay; and their effulgent brightness is visible to every discerning eye, whether it irradiate a prince or a beggar: but moderation is a virtue in every body's reach, and a very loose philosophical regimen is sure of bringing a cure along with it. I wish you would more particularly disclose in what instance you feel the want of it, and I will assume the office of a physician for the soul, and prescribe some of that medicine which I took from Plato when I was at the University.

"Constancy, in my dictionary, is steadiness and perseverance in a resolution once rightly taken. What can be the difficulty of whipping all seducing, straggling thoughts out of the mind, intruding upon a man's own happiness? For if the resolution be rightly taken, your own felicity is the object of it; if it be not rightly taken, the sooner it is broken, the better. But remember, that to be humble is to be great, to be contented is to be wise, and to subdue the passions is to be good; and that habit is the best and surest friend to forward you towards the attainment of those great blessings. Read Longinus again in Greek, in Latin, French, and English: Rouse up all your faculties, and let your soul out to strive for the prize in the tilts and tournaments of literate glory: throw off all your chains, and struggle, without intermission, for that dominion over yourself, which will do honour to my memory when I cease to be

"Your affectionate father."

This great and good man died on the 5th February 1792, aged 82.

After these ample quotations, we need scarcely add that we have perused the whole memoir with unfeigned pleasure, and recommend it with perfect confidence to the attention of our readers.

We now come to the volume containing the *Judgements* and *Opinions* which are seventeen in number; we shall make extracts from those in which the topic discussed is of an interesting nature, and shall satisfy ourselves with stating the subjects of the remainder.—The first case is that of *the Attorney-General* against *Lady Downing and others* in Chancery, and arose on the will of Sir George Downing, which vested certain estates in trustees for the purpose of erecting a college to be called Downing College. The questions considered by the chief

justice on this will were, whether the trusts created by it were illegal and void; and, if not illegal and void, whether a court of equity ought to aid and assist their execution;—and lastly, supposing the trusts illegal and void, or of such a nature as not fit to be carried into execution by a court of equity, this court will apply the estate to some other charity *ejusdem generis*. The doctrine laid down under this last head of argument is curious, and illustrated by two apposite quotations from the digests:

'This court, (Sir Eardley observes,) has long made a distinction between superstitious Uses, and mistaken Charitable Uses.

'By mistaken, I mean such as are repugnant to that sound constitutional policy, which controuls the interest, wills, and wishes of individuals, when they clash with the interest and safety of the whole community.

'Property, destined to superstitious Uses, is given by act of parliament to the King, to dispose of as he pleases; and it falls properly under the cognizance of a Court of Revenue.

'But where property is given to mistaken charitable uses, this Court distinguishes between the charity and the use; and seeing a charitable bequest in the intention of the testator, they execute the intention, varying the use, as the King, who is the Curator of all charities, and the constitutional Trustee for the performance of them, pleases to direct and appoint.

'If it were *res integra*, much might be said for the heir at law; because in every other case, if the testator's intention in specie cannot take place, the heir at law takes the estate. And as the motive inducing the disinherison in a charitable devise, is a passion for that particular charity which he has named, if that particular charity cannot take place, *cessante causâ, cessaret effectus*.

'The right of the heir at law seems to arise as naturally in this case as in any other; but instead of favouring him as in all other cases, the testator is made to disinherit him for a charity he never thought of; perhaps for a charity repugnant to the testator's intention, and which directly opposes and encounters the charity he meant to establish. But this doctrine is now so fully settled, that it cannot be departed from; and the reason upon which it is founded, seems to be this:

'The donation was considered as proceeding from a general principle of piety in the testator. Charity was an expiation of sin, and to be rewarded in another state; and therefore, if political reasons negatived the particular charity given, this Court thought the merits of the charity ought not to be lost to the Testator, nor to the public, and that they were carrying on his general pious intention; and they proceeded upon a presumption, that the principle, which produced one charity, would have been equally active in producing another, in case the Testasor had been told the particular charity he meditated could not take place. The Court thought one kind of charity would embalm his memory as well as another, and being equally meritorious, would entitle him to the same reward.

'There

'There is a law in the Digest, which seems to have furnished a hint for varying the destination of a donation to the public.

Digest. xxxiii. Tit. 2. De Usu & Usufr. Legatorum.

'De Legato Civitati ad certum Usum. 16.

'Modestini, Lib. ix. Responsorum.

"Legatum civitati relictum est, ut ex reditibus quotannis in eâ civitate, memoriæ conservandæ defuncti gratiâ, spectaculum celebretur, quod illic celebrari non licet. Quæro quid de legato existimes? Modestinus respondit: Cum testator spectaculum edi voluerit in civitate, sed tale, quod ibi celebrari non licet, iniquum esse, hanc quantitatem, quam in spectaculum defunctus destinaverit, lucro hæredum cedere: Igitur adhibitis hæredibus & primoribus civitatis, inspiciendum est in quam rem converti debeat fideicommissum, ut memoria testatoris alio & licito genere celebretur."

'Vide etiam Scævolæ responsum in § sequenti.

'It is plain they looked at the motive of the gift, the immortalizing the memory of the donor, which was the only future reward a Pagan could enjoy. For this law was made 100 years before Christianity was the religion of the Empire. The particular spectacle directed was only the means by which that future reward was to be secured. Any other spectacle would as effectually answer that purpose. They looked at the end and aim of that benefaction, and shaped the means in such a manner, as without any violation of the laws, might secure the attainment of it.

'The reason, which animates the Law, applies as forcibly to a legacy given to a charitable use under the Christian dispensation.'—

'The Master of the Rolls having delivered his opinion to the same effect; and the Lord Chancellor having agreed with them both:

'Declared their unanimous Opinion, that the Trusts of the Charity in question ought to be carried into execution, in case his Majesty shall be pleased to grant his Royal Charter to incorporate the College, and his Royal Licence for such incorporated College to take the devised premises in mortmain.'

The case of *Mansell* against *Mansell* relates to a power of jointuring, as created by will, and the decree proceeded on the peculiar circumstances of the case.

In *Bridgman* against *Green*, which was the case of a gross imposition by an artful servant on his master, a man of weak intellects, we meet with these sensible and discriminating observations:

'It was truly said at the Bar, that if the Decree proceed upon a principle of taking away that power which the Law gives every man over his own property, it ought to be reversed: and most certainly it ought; for our laws, very unfortunately for the owners, leave them at liberty to dissipate their fortunes as they please, to the ruin of themselves and their families. The Roman Laws drew a line between liberality and profusion; they very wisely for the public, and very kindly for the parties, considered immoderate extravagance—"inconsulta largitio"—as a distemper of the mind, and treated a "prodigus"

"prodigus" as a madman: they said, "expedit rei-publicæ nequis sua re male utatur." They thought it safer for the public, as well as kinder to individuals, to lay by their estates, whilst they were under the tyranny of their passions, and reserve them for their use, when under the direction of their reason. But our Laws strike no such boundary; "stat pro ratione voluntas," is the Law with us; every man may give a part, or all of his fortune to the most worthless object in the creation; and this Court never did, nor ever will rescind or annul donations merely because they are improvident, and such as a wise man would not have made, or a man of very nice honour would not have accepted: nor will this Court measure the degrees of understanding, and say, that a weak man, provided he is out of the reach of a Commission, may not give, as well as a wise man. But though this Court disclaims any such Jurisdiction, yet where a gift is immoderate, bears no proportion to the circumstances of the giver; "ubi modus non adhibetur, ubi non refertur ad facultates," where no reason at all appears, or the reason given is falsified, and proved to be a fiction, and the giver is a weak man, of a facile easy temper, liable to be imposed upon, this Court will look upon such a gift with a very jealous eye, and very strictly examine the conduct and behaviour of the persons in whose favour it is made: if it see that any arts or stratagems, or any undue means have been used by them to procure such a gift; if it see the least speck of Imposition at the bottom, or that the Donor is in such a situation with respect to the Donee, as may naturally give him an undue influence over him; if there be the least scintilla of fraud; in such a case, this Court will and ought to interpose; and by the exertion of such a jurisdiction, they are so far from infringing the right of alienation, which is the inseparable incident to property, that it acts upon the principle of securing the full, ample, and uninfluenced enjoyment of it.'

The House of Commons, in the year 1758, passed a Bill intitled "An Act for giving a more speedy Remedy to the Subject upon the Writ of Habeas Corpus:" on the second reading of which in the House of Lords, the judges were ordered to attend, and to deliver their opinions *seriatim*, on ten questions, which were proposed to them. The fourth case in this volume contains the answer of Mr. Justice Wilmot on these questions, and presents a very able view of the law on this most interesting topic: exhibiting the different remedies which the subject possessed before the passingof the celebrated statute of Charles the Second. The variety of sound legal and constitutional knowlege introduced into this opinion intitles it to a careful and frequent perusal from every student.—The Bill was rejected by the Lords.—An account of the circumstances in which it originated, and a short, though not very impartial, history of the proceeding, will be found in Smollet's Continuation of Hume, vol. iv. p. 251.

In

In the famous case of *Evans* against *Harrison*, which ultimately decided that Dissenters were not fineable for not serving the office of sheriff, Sir Eardley was one of the Judges appointed by a special commission of errors to inspect the judgment of the sheriff's court, and the affirmance thereof in the Court of Hustings at the Guildhall of the city of London; and if there should be any error therein, to correct the same. The verdict is well known: the judgements in the city courts, which had found the plaintiff in error (*Evans*) liable to the penalty imposed by the bye-law, were reversed, and that reversal was affirmed on a writ of error brought into Parliament.

In *Spencer* against *All Souls College*, which was an appeal to visitors, the question was whether consanguinity with the founder Archbishop Chicheley extended *ad infinitum*, and gave those who were very distantly allied a preference in regard to fellowships, or whether it was not limited to some certain degree. The College had decided in favour of the latter proposition, and had fixed the tenth as the degree when consanguinity was worn out. Mr. Justice Wilmot was of opinion, and the judgement of the court was in conformity to that decision, 'that it was most clearly the intention of the founder to give a preference to his blood "*ad infinitum*;" and that no boundary line could ever be drawn to the consanguinity, but by the hand of time, which sooner or later levels all distinctions of families, and obliterates every other memorial of human greatness.'

The case of the Earl of *Buckinghamshire* against *Drury* came before the House of Lords on an appeal brought to reverse a decree made by the Lord Chancellor Henley; and the question proposed to the Judges was, Whether a woman married under the age of twenty-one years, having before such marriage a jointure made to her in bar of dower, is thereby bound and barred of dower within the statute 27th Henry 8. The Judges differed, and Sir E. Wilmot was with the majority of them, who determined that such jointure was a bar to dower. Much valuable knowlege is contained in this judgement.—The case of *Baddeley* against *Leppingwell* involved in it a question on the construction of a will, and is reported in 3 Burr. 1533.—It was considered in *The King* against *Almon*, Whether an attachment could be granted against the publisher of a libel reflecting on the Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench. The proceedings were commenced by the Attorney-General Sir Fletcher Norton, and afterward discontinued on his resignation; Sir Eardley's opinion here given is decisive in favour of the legality of the measure.—The case of *Dodson* again *Grew* arose likewise on a will, and a report of it is to be found in 2 Wils. 322. *Drinkwater* against *The Royal Exchange*

change Assurance Company, is also reported in the second volume of Wilson.—*Keiley* against *Fowler* is a case on the construction of a will, and is to be found in Brown's Parliamentary Cases, vol. vi. p. 1309.—The case of *Wilkes* against the *King*, in error, has several interesting particulars belonging to it. In Michaelmas term 1763 an information had been filed by Sir Fletcher Norton, his Majesty's Solicitor-General, (the office of Attorney-General being then vacant) against Mr. Wilkes for the publication of the 45th number of the North-Briton, to which he pleaded Not Guilty; and Sir Fletcher Norton, who had in the mean-time been appointed Attorney-General, joined issue in that character for his Majesty. Among the questions proposed by the House of Lords to the Judges was the following, 'Whether an information filed by the King's Solicitor-General, during the vacancy of the office of the King's Attorney-General, is good in law.' We shall quote part of Judge Wilmot's answer to this question:

'By our constitution, the King is entrusted with the prosecution of all crimes which disturb the peace and order of society. He sustains the person of the whole community, for the resenting and punishing of all offences which affect the community; and for that reason, all proceedings "ad Vindictam et Pœnam" are called in the law, the Pleas or Suits of the Crown; and in capital crimes, these Suits of the Crown must be founded upon the accusation of a Grand Jury; but in all inferior crimes, an information by the King, or the Crown, directed by the King's Bench, is equivalent to the accusation of a Grand Jury, and the proceedings upon it are as legally founded; this is solemnly settled and admitted. As indictments and informations, granted by the King's Bench, are the King's Suits, and under his controul; informations, filed by his Attorney General, are most emphatically his Suits, because they are the immediate emanations of his will and pleasure. They are no more the Suits of the Attorney General than indictments are the Suits of the Grand Jury.

'Indictments and informations are both the voices of those entrusted by the constitution to awaken criminal jurisdiction, and to put it into motion. Who are those persons entrusted? A Grand Jury for all crimes; the King's Bench, as well as a Grand Jury, for misdemeanors of magnitude.

'An information, brought by the Attorney General for a misdemeanor, is as much the Suit of the King, as actions, brought by attornies, are the actions of their clients, and not of the attornies who bring them.

"The King sues by his Attorney," or "the Attorney sues for the King," are only different forms of expressing the same thing. It is equally good either way, as appears by the cases in 2 Lev. 82. and 3 Keb. 127; and no legal reason, but good manners and decency, as Lord Hale calls it, have given the preference of one form to

to another. It is the King, who, by his attorney, gives the court to understand and be informed of the fact complained of.

'Before the Statute, 4 and 5 W. & M. c. 18. every private man might lay his complaint before the Court as the King's complaint;—this was abused, and was checked by the Statute; but it left all other informations as they were. What were then the King's Informations?—His right, of "informing" the Court, was not subjected to the check which the act set upon the right of individuals.

'The legislature trusted the King as the great constitutional guardian of the peace of the society. The mere suggestion of an individual was too slight; he was under no oath. The King is under the most solemn sanction in every part of his great Office; and it is wise not to controul it: he is not to be put on a level with the meanest of his subjects.

'The arguing that the Attorney General only, and no other officer, was entrusted by the constitution to sue for the King, either civilly or criminally, is a fundamental mistake. The Attorney General is entrusted by the King, and not by the constitution; it is the King who is entrusted by the constitution.

'The great abilities of the persons appointed to this Office have made it figure high in the imagination, and annexed ideas to it which do not belong to it; for he is but an attorney, though to the King, and in no other or different relation to him than every other attorney is to his employer; and it is by degrees that he hath attained to that rank which he now holds in the law.

'I find no traces of such an officer for centuries after the conquest; and that great antiquarian, Spelman, under the word "Serviens ad Legem," considers him, upon the authority of passages cited out of Bracton, as the great officer for pleas of the Crown, and thinks the King had a serjeant in every county for that purpose; and in the proclamations made even at this day, before any criminal trial begins, the King's Serjeant is mentioned, even before the attorney; and the 5th Edward III. c. 13, which gives an averment against the Sheriff's return of imprisonment in cases of outlawry at the King's Suit, mentions the King's Serjeant before the Attorney, and subjoins "or any that will sue for the King;" which is a strong indication that the King's Suits were not considered as then appropriated to his attorney; and he had not then so much as the name of "Attorney General," which means no more than the person generally employed to sue and defend for the King, exactly in the same manner as the person generally employed by your Lordships, in your Suits, is called your Lordships' Attorney, without putting the addition of "General" to it; and the Suits instituted by the King's Attorney, or by your Lordships' Attorney, are both instituted, either by special and particular directions, or under a general authority, which is equivalent to a particular direction for every particular Suit: and a Suit instituted by the Attorney General, is entitled the King and ——, and the Jury are sworn between the King and ——, in the same manner as in Suits between private individuals. Whether the King, when there is an Attorney or Solicitor General, might, by one of his Serjeants, or by his Solicitor, when there is an Attorney,

now file either a civil or criminal information, it is not necessary to determine; but the passage, cited out of the Harleian Manuscript, does not decide in the negative; for the first part, in Henry the Eighth's time, orders the King's Solicitor to stop one prosecution and commence another. The office of Attorney General was either vacant or full at that time. If vacant, it proves the Solicitor stands in his place: if full, it proves that by particular order, the King's Suit is not inseparably attached to the office of the King's Attorney.'

It is scarcely necessary to add that the judgement given by the court of King's Bench against Mr. Wilkes was affirmed in Parliament.—The judgement in the following case of *Batty* against *Wells*, though it contains much legal knowlege, might perhaps with propriety have been omitted, as it is given at considerable length in 3 Wils. 25. The same observation applies to *Frogmorton* against *Wharrey*, which is to be found in 2 Blackstone's Rep. 728.—The question in *Low* against *Piers* was, Whether a covenant not to marry any person but the covenantee, under the penalty of 1000l. without any consideration whatever to support it, is valid in point of law. The Court of King's Bench (see 4 Burr. 2225) determined such a covenant to be void, and their judgement was affirmed in the Exchequer Chamber.—*Sayer* against *Masterman*, which is reported also in Ambler, p. 344. was founded on the construction of a will, whether a party therein named took an estate-tail or an estate for life.

We have now enumerated the contents of this volume, in which will be found many marks of a discriminating judgment, and of a mind richly stored with legal and historical knowlege. With the exception of a few cases, which had been previously reported, we think that the work must prove very useful to the profession.

ART. XIII. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London* for the Year 1803. Part II. 4to. 13s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.

THIS volume opens with a paper that does not strictly belong to any of those philosophical classes, into which we shall divide the other labours of this learned body; and we shall therefore consider it first, and separated from the rest. It is intitled,

Account of some Experiments on the Descent of the Sap in Trees. In a Letter from Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq. to the Right Hon. Sir Jos. Banks, Bart. &c.—In a former volume of the Philosophical Transactions, Mr. Knight related some experiments on Trees, (see Rev. Vol. xxxvii. p. 295.) from which he inferred

inferred that 'their sap, having been absorbed by the bark of the root, is carried up by the alburnum or white wood of the root, the trunk, and the branches; that it passes through what are there called the central vessels, into the succulent part of the annual shoot, the leaf-stalk, and the leaf; and that it returns to the bark through the returning vessels of the leaf-stalk.'—The causes of the descent of the sap through the bark, and the consequent formation of wood, form the subjects of the present communication. These causes he supposes to be, gravitation, motion, communicated by winds or other agents, capillary attraction, and 'something in the conformation of the vessels themselves, which renders them better adapted to carry fluids in one direction than in another.' The upper and lower surfaces of the leaf appear to the author to possess distinct offices; the one, that of absorbing light, or in some way operating by the influence of that body, and perhaps also evolving vital air or some other permanently elastic fluid; the other, of exhaling a perspiratory matter, and probably absorbing moisture when circumstances require it. This difference in the functions of the upper and lower surfaces of leaves was ascertained by various trials; in which, without separating them from the tree, Mr. K. brought each surface into contact with a piece of ground glass, of the temperature of the atmosphere. When the under surface was thus exposed, the glass was soon covered with moisture, which at the end of half an hour was so much increased as to run off the glass, when it was held obliquely. The upper surface was placed under the same circumstances, and exposed to the influence of the meridian sun, without the slightest portion of moisture being thrown out.

Mr. Knight's opinions were supported by the experiment of inverting the young shoots of a Vine, in which the gravitation of the sap was very evident in forming new bark and wood where incisions had been made. Motion appeared always to increase the circulation of the sap. When the lower parts of young trees were confined, and the upper allowed to remain in the natural state, the former increased very little in size, but the latter had always a considerable accumulation of new wood. Various other circumstances seemed to confirm the same opinion; and though capillary attraction, and some peculiarity in the conformation of the vessels of the bark, are supposed to operate in a similar way with gravitation in producing a circulation in the sap of trees, yet the author considers the latter as the most extensive and active cause of motion in this fluid. From this agent he believes that

'Vegetable bodies, like unorganized matter, generally derive, in a greater or less degree, the forms they assume; and probably it is necessary to the existence of trees that it should be so. For, if the sap

passed and returned as freely in the horizontal and pendent, as in the perpendicular branch, the growth of each would be equally rapid, or nearly so: the horizontal branch would then soon extend too far from its point of suspension at the trunk of the tree, and thence must inevitably perish, by the compound ratio in which the powers of destruction, compared with those of preservation, would increase.

'The principal office of the horizontal branch, in the greatest number of trees, is to nourish and support the blossoms, and the fruit or seed; and, as these give back little or nothing to the parent tree, very feeble powers alone are wanted in the returning system. No power at all had been fatal; and powers sufficiently strong wholly to counteract the effects of gravitation, had probably been in a high degree destructive. And it appears to me by no means improbable, that the formation of blossoms may, in many instances, arise from the diminished action of the returning system in the horizontal or pendent branch.'

The character of the wood may be very much affected by the situation in which the tree grows; and hence oak timber, which grew in crowded forests, has sometimes been conceived to be Spanish chesnut, which has happened frequently in such as was taken from old buildings in London. In such cases, the author has found the internal organization to be extremely different; and he annexes a plate for the purpose of making this difference apparent.

The remainder of this paper is occupied with some observations on the functions of the bark, and on the formation of buds in tuberous rooted plants.

Chemical *and* Mineralogical Papers.

Enquiries concerning the Nature of a Metallic Substance lately sold in London as a new Metal, under the Title of Palladium. By Richard Chenevix, Esq. F.R.S. & M.R.I.A.—This ingenious mineralogist has not been able precisely to ascertain the nature of this substance by analysis, but he has succeeded in forming a metallic body in every respect resembling it, and has thus shewn that what was attempted to be imposed on the public as a newly discovered simple body is in reality a compound.

The account given by the proprietors is in this paper considerably amplified by Mr. Chenevix; and the circumstances stated by them he found to be tolerably correct, except in the particular which related to its specific gravity. This he ascertained to be different in different specimens, and to vary from 10.972 to 11.482.

A great variety of experiments, in the synthetical way, discovered that Palladium is a compound of platina and mercury; which, by their union with each other, so completely

lost their characteristic properties, as to be incapable of being detected by the usual methods.

It is not difficult to combine a small quantity of mercury with platina: but to produce an alloy of these metals which shall be of so low a specific gravity as 11.3, and shall be soluble in nitric acid, Mr. Chenevix informs us, is by no means easily accomplished. He therefore concludes that the inventor of Palladium has some method of forming it, less subject to error than that which he has adopted. The small density of the alloy of platina and mercury is a circumstance of a very singular nature, but, at the same time, it accords with many other chemical facts; particularly some mentioned by Berthollet and Hatchett, where the specific gravity was very different from that of the calculated mean.

Mr. Chenevix concludes his paper by noticing the effects which anomalies, such as he has described, must necessarily have in producing a scepticism with regard to the supposed nature of many bodies that have hitherto been considered as simple.

Account of the Sinking of the Dutch Frigate Ambuscade of 32 *Guns, near the Great Nore, with the Mode used in recovering her.* By Mr. Jos. Whidbey, Master-Attendant in Sheerness Dock-Yard, &c.—This frigate was lost by the hawse plugs not being in, and the hawse holes being pressed under water by a crowd of sail on the ship; through which a body of water got in unperceived, sufficient to carry her to the bottom. The plan adopted by Mr. Whidbey speedily and completely answered the purpose of recovering the vessel.

Observations on a new Species of Hard Carbonate of Lime; also a new Species of Oxide of Iron. By the Count de Bournon, F.R.S. & L.S.—The principal characters of the former of these substances are thus given:

'Its hardness is very superior to that of common carbonate of lime, being such as to scratch very easily the fluate of lime; and, when rubbed with force upon glass, it takes off the polish of its surface, and sometimes leaves scratches upon it.

'Its specific gravity, I found to be 2912.

'This substance, of which I have since had an opportunity of observing a great number of specimens, I have always found to be without colour; and its crystals are very often perfectly transparent.

'When powdered, and thrown upon a piece of iron heated nearly to redness, in a place that is perfectly dark, it occasions a very weak phosphorescent white light; this light is only sufficient to mark the place where the powder is thrown.

'Its lustre is much greater than that of common carbonate of lime.

'When put into nitric acid, a violent effervescence is produced: and it is very quickly dissolved, without leaving the smallest residuum.'

The author is inclined to suppose that this substance, and arragonite, are distinct combinations of the carbonic acid with lime: but the cause of the remarkable hardness, by which they are both distinguishable, has in neither of them been discovered.

The cubic oxide of iron is between the slightly attractable oxide, or specular iron-ore, and that kind which no longer crystallizes, except in a very indeterminate form. Its surface is of a gray colour and a specular appearance. It is not in any way influenced by the magnet, and seems to be in the lowest degree of oxidation in which iron retains the property of crystallizing in a regular form.

'Its form is a perfect cube, the edges or solid angles of which are sometimes replaced by small planes.

'Its fracture is conchoidal: it has a smooth grain, with a small degree of lustre; and, although it is impossible to make a regular fracture in any particular direction, yet the fracture shows that the crystalline laminæ, or collection of molecules, are situated on the surface of the cube.

'Its hardness is rather inferior to that of the slightly attractable oxide of iron.

'Its specific gravity is very low; I found it to be only 3961.

'Its powder is more red than that of the slightly attractable oxide of iron, but has not the yellow cast observed in the powder of the hæmatite.'

Astronomical *and* Mathematical Papers.

Account of the Changes that have happened during the last Twenty-five Years, in the relative Situation of Double Stars; with an Investigation of the Cause to which they are owing. By William Herschell, LL.D. F.R.S.—The chief object of this paper is to shew that the most simple and philosophical mode of explaining the phænomena of double stars is to suppose that the two stars, composing a double star, describe ellipses round their common center of gravity. In a former memoir, Dr. H. had shewn the mathematical and physical possibility of such a revolution; and in the present he gives an account of a series of observations made on double stars for a period of 25 years: from which, he thinks, it will be manifest that these stars are not double merely in appearance, but kept together by the bond of mutual attraction. The phænomena of these double stars are very curious, and the verification of the learned author's suggestion must be highly interesting to all who are fond of philosophical inquiry.

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The double stars offer phænomena, of which the explanation may be attempted on different hypotheses:

1. The sun and the larger of the two stars may be at rest, while the smaller is in motion.

2dly, The sun and smaller star may be at rest while the larger moves.

3dly, The sun may move, the stars of the double star being at rest; this admits of three cases, according as the angle made by the plane in which is the double star and by a line drawn from the sun to the greater star, is equal to, or less, or greater than, 90 degrees.

Lastly, The sun and the two stars may each have different motions.

After having stated these several modes of explanation, and given schemes or tables for commodiously trying the truth of each, the author says:

'The compass of this Paper will not allow me to give the observations of my double stars at full length; I shall therefore, in the examination of every one of them, only state those particulars which will be required for the purpose of investigating the cause of the changes that have taken place, either in the distance, or angle of position, of the two stars of which the double star is composed.

'As the arguments in the case of most of these stars will be nearly the same, it may be expected, that the first two or three which are to be examined will take up a considerable space; and the number of double stars, in which I have already ascertained a change, amounting to more than fifty, it will not be possible to give them all in one paper; I shall therefore confine the present one to a moderate length, and leave it open for a continuation at a future opportunity.'

Dr. H. then states his observations made on α Geminorum; and, relating the phænomena, he tries the explanation according to the first, second, and third hypothesis, shewing that in each, it is unsatisfactory. Lastly, he tries the explanation on the hypothesis of the motion of the three bodies:

'In this manner, (says Dr. H.) we may certainly account for the phenomena of the changes which have taken place with the two stars of α Geminorum. But the complicated requisites of the motions which have been exposed to our view, must surely compel every one who considers them to acknowledge, that such a combination of circumstances involves the highest degree of improbability in the accomplishment of its conditions. On the other hand, when a most simple and satisfactory explanation of the same phenomena may be had by the effects of mutual attraction, which will support the moving bodies in a permanent system of revolution round a common centre of gravity, while at the same time they follow the direction of a proper motion which this centre may have in space, it will hardly be possible to entertain a doubt to which hypothesis we ought to give the preference.

'As I have now allowed, and even shown, the possibility that the phenomena of the double star Castor may be explained by proper motions, it will appear that, notwithstanding my foregoing arguments in favour of binary systems, it was necessary, on a former occasion, to express myself in a conditional manner, when, after having announced the contents of this Paper, I added, "*should these observations be found sufficiently conclusive;*" for, if there should be astronomers who would rather explain the phenomena of a small star appearing to revolve round Castor by the hypothesis we have last examined, they may certainly claim the right of assenting to what appears to them most probable.'

The Doctor next enters into a detailed examination of the several angles of position, and proves that they are such as would result from the revolution of a small star round Castor. He infers that Castor and the small star revolve about their common centre of gravity in a period of 342 years, 2 months.

In page 366, the author examines the case of γ Leonis, and thinks (although the arguments are not irrefragable) that the phænomena of this double star are most reasonably explained by supposing the two stars to be united in one system.

Similarly, ε Bootis is examined. The phænomena of double stars are those of *insulated* double stars; for in the milky way the double stars are formed by one star being placed far behind another. The remaining stars examined are ζ Herculis, δ Serpentis, and γ Virginis: the first furnishes the phænomenon of the occultation of one star by another. The stars of γ Virginis revolve round each other in a period of 708 years.

Account of the Measurement of an Arc of the Meridian, extending from Dunnose, in the Isle of Wight, Latitude 50° 37′ 8″, *to Clifton in Yorkshire, Latitude* 53° 27′ 31″, *in Course of the Operations carried on for the Trigonometrical Survey of England, in the Years* 1800, 1801, 1802. By Major William Mudge, of the Royal Artillery, F.R.S.—The first part of this Trigonometrical Survey has been already laid before the public. What is now given is made subservient to the measurement of an arc of the meridian: an important operation, and which, when repeated in different places, will enable us to judge more accurately of the earth's figure than we can at present.

The succeeding extract will shew why the longest line between North and South, that can be drawn in Great Britain, was not measured:

'In a country whose surface, throughout its whole extent, is equally diversified with hilly ground, that particular part of it should be chosen, for carrying on a meridional measurement, which comprehends the most extensive arc. This arises from the necessary consequence which attends an operation in a country so circumstanced; as, possibly,

possibly, no spot fixed on for a place of observation, could be supposed free from the effects of the unequal attraction in the adjoining matter. In such a country, therefore, a measurement upon the most extensive arc, must give the most accurate conclusion; for the errors arising from the cause here mentioned, like those of observation, lessen in their effects, on their application to arcs of increasing magnitude.

'If Great Britain were a country thus diversified, the most eligible part would be that where the meridian from Lyme, in Dorsetshire, passes northward into Scotland. The difference of latitude between that place and Aberdeen, near to which that line cuts its parallel, is 4° 47′, nearly. But, however great the advantages attending such a length of arc might be, under the general circumstances of accurate terrestrial measurement, and accurate observations at its extremities, no beneficial consequences could be expected to attend the placing of the sector at intermediate stations; as the arc would be found running, almost every where, through a country abounding with hills, considerable both in magnitude and number.

'Under this consideration, I determined to measure a portion of the meridian which proceeds from Dunnose to the mouth of the Tees; because, from inquiry, I had reason to suppose it the longest meridional arc in Britain, free from any apparent obstruction. And I was led to select Dunnose for one of its extremities, as observations made there, in conjunction with others at Greenwich, would enable me to make corrections of the latitudes of places given in our former papers, if found necessary. By fixing on Dunnose, I had also the means of ascertaining the distance of the Royal Observatory from the northern or southern end of my line, and, consequently, of connecting it with the parallels of Dunkirk and Paris.

'Dunnose being fixed on, my subsequent endeavours were directed towards carrying on the triangles, as nearly as I possibly could, in the direction of its meridian, selecting the stations so that their sides might be properly inclined to it, and of sufficient length. In choosing the station at the northern extremity, I was careful to select it as near the meridian of the southern one as possible, and likewise in the neighbourhood of some open spot of ground, proper for the measurement of a base of verification. A station having these advantages, was found near Clifton, a small village in the vicinity of Doncaster; and a level of sufficient extent for a base, on Misterton Car, in the northern part of Lincolnshire.'

After having stated that the present paper relates only to that part of the operations which is expressed in its title; and that, in a future memoir, it is proposed to give thirteen hundred triangles, principal and secondary; Major Mudge proceeds, by the aid of engraved plates, to a description of a Zenith Sector, executed by the famous Jesse Ramsden; which instrument is one of the last made by that great artist, and is probably the most excellent of its kind. The Major furnishes an ample description of this instrument, with a particular account of the astronomical observations; and, in conclusion, he announces

nounces that the length of a degree on the meridian, in latitude 52° 2′ 20″, is 60820 fathoms, on the suppostion that the whole arc subtends an angle of 2° 50′ 23″,38 in the heavens, and a distance of 1036337 feet on the surface of the earth. —Now, the length of degrees from the equator to the poles increases, and the increase varies as the square of the sine of latitude: but, according to Major Mudge's calculations, the length of a degree in latitude 51° 35′ 18″, is 60864, which is greater than the length of a degree in latitude 52° 2′ 20″. Either, then, this determination makes against the oblateness of the earth; or, in the measurement before us, there are some local circumstances causing a material deflection of the plumb line. On this important point, we must leave the author to speak for himself, and to state his own suggestions:

'Without arrogating to myself any merit from the pains taken in the performance of this undertaking, I may say, I am so perfectly convinced of the general accuracy of the whole, that I cannot for a moment doubt the collective evidence of its sufficiency. From an examination of my field books, and from the remeasurement of the chains used in our base-line on Misterton Carr, I think it is probable that an error in the whole distance, of 197 miles nearly, does not subsist to an amount of more than 100 feet, corresponding to 1″ in the amplitude of the whole arc; and I also think it probable it cannot amount to half that quantity. The supposition of the zenith distances of the stars being generally erroneous, at any one station, cannot be admitted, unless it should be imagined, that the plane of the sector's limb was not got into that of the meridian. Such an idea, however, can scarcely be entertained, after a careful examination of the several observations, and a due attention to the means by which the instrument was made to assume its right position. Perhaps, also, I should not fail to observe, in this place, that although the instrument was always brought into the plane of each meridian by means of the telescope attached to the side of the great tube, and the azimuth circle, yet, having two good chronometers in my possession, I repeatedly verified the truth of the sector's position, by observing the transits of two stars, north and south of the zenith, at the greatest distances my arc would admit of. But, to return, if there be an error in the amplitude of the total arc, from a deflection of the plumb-line at either of the stations, it is not probable that any such deflection existed at Dunnose; as the deviation of it towards the north, from a deficiency of matter towards the channel, would tend to diminish the inequality between the lengths of the two degrees. This will be evident, on consideration. I am therefore disposed to believe that the plumb-line was drawn towards the south, from the action of matter, both at the northern extremity of the arc and at Arbury Hill, but more particularly at the first-mentioned station. If this were partly the case, and both Dunnose and Arbury Hill were free from any such prevailing cause, the total arc must be too great, if taken at 2° 50′ 23″,38, by about 8″, nearly answering to 2″

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on each degree. A deviation of 8″ from the true vertical, is a large quantity; nor can the cause of it be assigned unless it be also supposed, that the matter producing that deflection extends in a southern direction *beyond* Arbury Hill. If the error, though not probable, as above observed, be supposed to exist at Dunnose, it must amount to more than 10″; and that too from the effects of attraction in a southern direction, where the deficiency of matter would lead us to believe the reverse would happen.'

In a future prosecution of this survey, the author purposes to take the Zenith Sector farther northward, in order to ascertain whether the plumb-line be really drawn towards the South. He justly remarks that meridional operations, carried on in insular countries, are not so likely to afford just conclusions, with regard to the different lengths of the degrees, as the same operations conducted in places very remote from deep seas.

This is a valuable paper; and, being of national concern, it is especially proper for insertion in the memoirs of a public body.

The Volume concludes with the usual lists and Index.

ART. XIV. *An Excursion in France, and other Parts of the Continent of Europe;* from the Cessation of Hostilities in 1801, to the 13th of December 1803. Including a Narrative of the unprecedented Detention of the English travelling in that Country, as Prisoners of War. By Charles Maclean, M. D. 8vo. pp. 312. 6s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1804.

FROM the preface which introduces this volume, we learn that Dr. Maclean does not profess to write a book of travels. His object in visiting the Continent was not idle curiosity, nor a wish to collect scraps of information on trivial and miscellaneous subjects: but, having formed a system respecting the treatment of diseases termed epidemic and pestilential, he was solicitous of submitting his doctrines to the test of experiment; and with this view, in 1800, he accompanied Mr. Windham, the British Envoy at the Court of Tuscany, to Florence: intending to embrace the first opportunity of passing to the Levant, the seat of the plague. On his arrival at Vienna, he learnt that the French troops had entered Tuscany, and thus his journey to Italy was prevented. Disappointed in this particular, he presented a memorial to the Spanish Ambassador, solliciting a passport to Cadiz, where a terrible epidemic then reigned: but not succeeding in his application, he returned from Vienna to Hamburg, and from that city addressed a memorial to the Duke of Portland, requesting to be sent with a *special commission* to Egypt, for the purpose of practically investigating

tigating the nature and cure of those diseases which he had made his particular study. Meeting here with a third failure, he turned his thoughts to France, as to a country where he had been led to believe that scientific projects met with the most splendid encouragement; and, as soon as the preliminary articles of peace were signed, he hastened into this revolutionary region. Though, however, Dr. M. was a medical, he was not a political experimentalist. He carried into France no love of revolutions, no approbation of revolutionary doctrines or excesses, nor any predilection for French fashions and manners. The *amor patriæ* fully possesses his soul; and if in his accounts he displays the prejudices and prepossessions of a Briton, it is a circumstance at which we feel no inclination to be displeased. Some of his readers, perhaps, will call him what Dr. Johnson called Mr. Topham Beauclerk, "*a good hater;*" for every thing belonging to modern France excites his most cordial aversion.

Since Dr. M. does not intend to give a regular narrative or journal, nor to enter into ordinary details, the usual subjects of churches and palaces, museums and pictures, must not be expected to occur in these recitals. The narrative is designed

'To communicate unconnected *traits* of public character and proceedings, which have come, in some cases exclusively, under my own observation; so as to increase the means by which those of my countrymen, who have not visited France, may be enabled to form a judgment of the difference between the English and French people, and between the English and French governments. It includes an account of the detention, as prisoners, in direct violation of the laws of nations and of the rights of hospitality, of all the English travellers, who were in France, or its dependencies, at the breaking out of the war; together with a detail of the manner in which, as one of the persons so circumstanced, I obtained permission to quit France, and some particulars of my journey from Paris to England through Bourdeaux.'

Among the sketches and anecdotes, we meet with several particulars not unworthy of observation: but how far, in all cases, Dr. M. has been a cool and patient investigator, we venture not to pronounce. On the state of medicine in France, his report, as that of a professional man, may be presumed to be tolerably correct; and therefore we shall lay it before our readers:

'As a profession, medicine in France is, if possible, less lucrative, than it is respectable as an art. The ordinary fee from tradesmen is half a crown a visit; but the patient, in the end, generally pays in number, what is deficient in the amount of fees. This is so common a practice that a physician, who does not make his patient more visits than his situation strictly requires, runs a great risk of being looked upon as a fool. I remember having been called to a consulta-

tion

tion on the case of an English young lady at the *Hotel D'Angleterre, Rue Fille St. Thomas*, along with a French physician, who had previously prescribed for her. After a few visits, the lady's fever was removed, and I told the father that, as there was no longer occasion for the attendance of two physicians, I should not come any more. Upon mentioning my opinion to the French physician, he said in a tone of mild remonstrance: *mais venez toujours, mon cher confrere; c'est un bon enfant, il paye bien.* "Continue to come, my dear colleague; he is a good fellow; he can pay well"

'Before I dismiss the subject of medicine, I will relate another professional anecdote, on account of the characteristic traits it contains of French manners. A maiden lady from Ireland, about sixty years of age, had retired to France, in order to live frugally, and to save money for a numerous generation of nephews and nieces. But she carried her frugality so far as to deny herself almost all the comforts, and even some of the necessaries of life; by which means she became emaciated, her stomach very feeble, and her whole frame nervous to an alarming degree. As if this was not enough, she fell into the habit of taking periodical emetics. A friend of her's endeavoured repeatedly to prevail upon her to call in medical assistance; but in vain. At last, however, she became so dangerously ill that she consented to send for me. I called late in the evening, found her feeble and emaciated, but her pulse good and her understanding clear. Her complaint seemed to be the effect of long continued deprivations

'Not choosing, from so slight an examination, to form a decisive opinion respecting the nature of her malady, nor to adopt any systematic mode of treatment, I only prescribed some inefficacious remedy in order to satisfy her mind, and after recommending to have a nurse to sit up with her, promised to call again in the morning. When I returned in the morning, I found that she did not permit any person to sit up with her, but, after I left her, got out of bed and bolted her door. The people of the house had knocked repeatedly, but could get no admission, nor any answer. I was equally unsuccessful. But being informed that she had a habit of locking her door, and not answering those who knocked at it, unless they were her particular friends, I thought it best to go in search of a lady with whom she was intimate, and who lived in the neighbourhood, before I should proceed to have the door opened by force.

'I found the lady: she came, knocked and called repeatedly, but to no purpose. We concluded that she was dead; sent for the landlord, and requested that, if it was according to law, he would order a lock-smith to come and pick the lock. He did so; and we found, as we expected, that she was dead. What was now to be done? The police officer, the justice of the peace, (*juge de paix*,) and the surgeon (*officier de santé*) of the district were to be called. They arrived. The surgeon examined the body, the police officer wrote a *procès-verbal*, or declaration, of the proceedings, and the justice of the peace took an inventory of the wardrobe and other effects of the deceased; which he locked up under the national seal, with the exception of 40l. or 50l. of cash that was found in her writing-desk, and

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which he took possession of, in order to answer the expences of the funeral, and to pay any debts she might have contracted. The property so locked up remains under seal, until it is claimed by the nearest of kin, or the person in whose favour a will may have been made by the deceased; and, in the event of its not being claimed within the space of twelve months, it goes to the nation.

'The deceased lay with her head on the pillow, her right arm reclined over her breast, and as little disfigured as if she had been enjoying a profound sleep. Notwithstanding this placid appearance, the French *officier de santé* reported a great variety of symptoms, indicating violent death, such as foaming at the mouth, livid colour of the countenance, a swelling of the stomach, and an attitude indicating the pre-existence of strong convulsive efforts, &c. Here I could not help interrupting my colleague, and telling him I could perceive none of the phenomena he had been describing. "*Ce n'est rien,*" said he, "*C'est seulement une formalité.*" (It is nothing but a form.) At the same time one of the byestanders whispered in my ear: "don't you know that he receives 5 or 6 louis d'ors for opening the body?"—The friend of the deceased was quite scandalised at the idea of the body being opened, and wished me to oppose it. But upon representing that, as I had prescribed for her the night before, if I objected to the body being opened, the man who would lose his fee, if my vote prevailed, might choose to represent me as a poisoner, (assertions in which I was not ignorant that members of the faculty were sometimes capable of indulging) I would not, for the sake of saving 5l. or 6l. to the relations of the deceased, whom I did not know, incur so formidable a censure, she acquiesced.

'The following morning was appointed for the dissection. That operation was accordingly performed; and as it was not necessary for my colleague to find any symptoms of violent death *internally*, none were found. It was right, however, that he should assign the *cause* of her death. This he readily discovered in the internal coat of the stomach, and in the mesenteric glands. But what most pleased and surprised the spectators was to find that the lady, although about sixty years of age, was yet a virgin. *Mon Dieu, est il possible*?* exclaimed the *officier de santé* and his assistants. *Ah! mon Dieu! mon Dieu! mon Dieu!* exclaimed the landlady, who was present the whole time, *c'est incroyable; une telle chose n'auroit pu arriver en France†.* She danced about the room in a kind of exstacy, as the mathematician of old is reported to have done, upon his having accidentally discovered the solution of an important problem, while bathing.'

We shall pass over the particulars respecting the family of Bonaparte, and other individuals; proceeding to some specimens of French justice, which are not very honourable to French rectitude and feeling.

'* Good God! is it possible?'

'† Oh! my God! my God! my God! it's incredible: such a thing could not have happened in France.'

'The

'The administration of justice in France is so conducted that the innocent can be condemned, and the guilty acquitted, according to the pleasure of the government. Among the crimes which at present attract most of their attention, is that which is termed *faux;* and which alone, considering all the cases it comprehends, as well as the mode of trial adopted, puts a great proportion of the French nation at the entire disposal of the government. The offenders are called *faussaires;* every species of falsification, from coining of money to a simple error in account, comes under the denomination of *faux*. A commissary general of the army, in whose accounts an error of four *sous* is discovered, may be tried for this offence. The accused are tried, without a jury, by judges of the special tribunal; and if they happen to be obnoxious to the government, we may guess what, in the present state of things, is likely to be their fate. The evils occasioned by the extensive signification given to this term in France, are almost incredible. A poor woman lately tried for the murder of a man who died a natural death on his bed, and acquitted, had been obliged, in order to maintain herself during a six months' confinement in prison, to put her watch in pledge. Ashamed to appear under her own name, she employed one of her neighbours to execute this commission under a feigned one. This circumstance appearing upon her trial, the neighbour who had put the watch in pawn under an assumed name, was committed to prison in order to be tried for a *faux*, and the poor woman who had been already six months in prison, and acquitted on the original charge, was recommitted as an accomplice.

'When a commissary, having demands to a large amount against the government, presents his accounts, the slightest error, or any false document, of which he may have been innocent or ignorant, being found, he is brought to trial before the judges of the special tribunal. His being found guilty, liquidates all his demands upon government; and in that case, any property of which he may be possessed is confiscated to pay the charges of the prosecution; which charges are at the discretion of the judges; and these judges receive a stipend of only 4000 livres a-year each (less than 200*l.* Sterling), with pens, ink and paper, from the government; for which reason the people say that the *committée revolutionaire* was instituted by the government of Robespierre *pour battre de la monnoie* (to coin money), but that the tribunal special has been instituted by the government of Bonaparte *pour payer ses dettes* (to pay their debts).

'As an instance of the extraordinary charges of this tribunal, we may cite the cause of Mr. L. He was convicted of a faux, which was only an error of 400 livres in an account of several millions. Beside being condemned to be publicly exposed, and to work eight years in the galleys, the expence of his process amounted to the very moderate sum of *twenty-five thousand livres*.'

A *nota bene* is added at the end of this section 'on Special Tribunals,' in which Dr. M. informs us that these particulars were communicated to him by a gentleman at Paris; and that, as the name cannot be mentioned, 'the reader will be pleased to give them that degree of credit which he thinks they deserve.'

serve.' This is a very faint recommendation of their authenticity.

A curious reason for imprisonment in a dungeon is recorded on undoubted authority:

'A man, well known on the turf in England, whose name I cannot at this moment recollect, was imprisoned either in the Bicetre or St. Pelagie in Paris, and kept for a long time *en secret*. He was not allowed to have any communication with his banker, who did not know what had become of him, and could not therefore supply him with money, although he had funds for that purpose in his hands. After some months, however, this restriction was taken off, and he was allowed to emerge from his cell and bed of straw. He then related to some English gentlemen, with whom he had an opportunity of conversing, that his imprisonment arose from the following circumstance:

'A Frenchman of some fortune, who had been in England, took a fancy to a horse belonging to this person. He said, if he would deliver the horse in Paris, he would agree to pay the price of five hundred pounds for him. The bargain was struck. The horse arrived in Paris. The Frenchman receded from his bargain. The Englishman got angry; and fruitless altercations ensued. Meeting with this Frenchman one day, coming from the Second Consul's, after dinner, the Englishman again addressed him with remonstrances; but, finding these could produce no effect, was proceeding to use arguments of a more powerful nature, when the other took to his heels, and sought refuge in Cambaceres's house.

'The Second Consul was violently offended. The Englishman was next day arrested, conveyed to prison, immured in a solitary cell, and accommodated with a naked bed of straw.'

In the section 'on the remnant of the Brissotin party,' we meet with these observations:

'This unfortunate party, once in possession of sovereign sway in France, were originally 32 in number, when they met in a club in the *Palais Royal*. There are now only *two* of them remaining, Sieyes and Rœderer; certainly not the most respectable members of the party'—

'Perhaps of all, who took a conspicuous and active part in the French revolution, not above one in fifteen or sixteen is now alive; and these in all probability the most despicable of the whole. It might be worth the trouble of any man, who has leisure and opportunity to make a minute statement and calculation on this subject, to undertake the task. If well executed, it could not fail to prove instructive to the world.

'It might naturally be expected that the memory of men, who had distinguished themselves in the revolution, although they had fallen victims to party struggles, should be respected by revolutionists; and that this respect should be transferred in some measure to their families. But that is not the case in France. There, more than in any other country, success alone is virtue, and failure alone is vice. While the family of Rœderer is rolling in wealth and influence, that of Brissot is consigned to poverty and neglect. I have

seen

seen the widow of his celebrated deputy attending, like an excellent mother, to the duties of educating a fine family of children; and endeavouring to forget, in the name of Warville, every trace of the power and influence which she once enjoyed in Paris, as Madame Brissot. Madame de Warville is happier, and deserves to be so, than Madame Bonaparte.'

Various comparisons of London and Paris have been made. Dr. M., in maintaining the superiority of the former, urges the advantages arising from topographical situation; and he is of opinion that the improvement of a country greatly depends on the favourable position of the capital for participating in commercial benefits. The inland situation of Madrid is supposed by him to have retarded the amelioration of Spain; and he recommends it to Prussia to transfer the seat of empire from Berlin to Dantzig, and to Austria to remove its court from Vienna to Trieste. With Dr. M.'s ideas on this subject, the metropolis of his own island must appear greatly superior to that of France:

'Had London been built in an inland part of the kingdom, which no ships or vessels could approach, it would not now have been distinguished, above all cities in the world, for commerce, manufactures, industry of every kind, affluence, independence, and power. Had Paris been built in a situation accessible to shipping, it would have been a commercial, manufacturing, industrious, affluent, independent, and powerful city. The inland position of Paris, then, is in a great measure the remote cause of the little freedom, which has ever existed in France, of the complete despotism which has reigned at all the periods of the revolution, and of the absolute tyranny that prevails at this moment. The French reproach the English with being a nation of shopkeepers: but to speak justly, London may be called a city of Warehouses, and Paris a city of Shops. The inhabitants of Paris, who are in business, are almost all subject, less or more, to the will of the reigning party of the day: those of London are not subject to the caprice of any man, or of any party.'

Though Dr. Maclean was among those who were unjustifiably detained as prisoners of war, he succeeded in his attempt to procure the erasure of his name from the list; and however meanly he thinks of the French people, he must allow that the motive on which he obtained liberation was honourable to their character; viz. gratitude for his having acted with humanity to some French who were made prisoners by us in the East Indies during the late war, while he was a naval surgeon on that station.

The journey from Paris to Bourdeaux, with the account of the latter city, occupies a large portion of this volume, and contains some entertaining particulars. Dr. M. is very solicitous to prove that travelling in France is not, all things considered,

dered, so cheap as it is in England. He remarks, on commencing his journey to Bourdeaux:

'It was more than three weeks after I had obtained my passport before I was enabled to leave Paris. Being at length prepared for the journey, I took a place in the diligence, which sets off from the *Rue de Bouloy*, for Bourdeaux. The price of the place was 72 livres, or 3*l.* Sterling; apparently a very moderate sum for 164 leagues, or about 410 English miles. This is certainly one of the cheapest roads in France. But if we compare it with the rate of travelling in England, making allowance for difference of celerity and comfort, it will appear extravagantly dear. In a French journey, the expences on the road are, from the length of time, necessarily more considerable than in an English one. If seven days be required to travel from Paris to Bourdeaux, a distance of 410 miles, while the journey from London to Edinburgh, being nearly 500 miles, is performed in about 60 hours, and if the price be as 3 to 5, we shall find that the rate of travelling in England is not only absolutely cheaper than in France in respect to distance, but that it is farther attended with an immense saving of time, even to two thirds.'

When comparisons are made, they ought to be exact. The distance is not quite *four* hundred miles from London to Edinburgh; and we apprehend that the fare is more than 5l. The advantage of superior celerity and comfort is most decidedly in favour of English travelling: but, to have enabled the reader to have compared the whole expence with that of travelling in a stage-coach over an equal distance in England, Dr. M. should have stated his expences on the road for these seven days.

An individual, passing in a stage-coach through a country, has a very poor opportunity of collecting the state of political opinion; yet Dr. Maclean is induced to believe, from what he heard, that the people of France are not attached to their present government. By the breaking down of the vehicle, the whole journey was so deranged, that the chief towns which lay in the route were passed in the dark: but for this loss some compensation was made by beautiful prospects occasionally presenting themselves. At one place, he was surprised to meet with a great number of waggons loaded with cotton and wool, which he found were proceeding to the low countries; for that 'since navigation had been impeded by the war, the manufacturers of Brabant had been obliged to get their cotton and wool by land from Bourdeaux.'—Opinions are given respecting the Invasion, but they do not perfectly harmonize. At one time, Dr. M. inclines to the belief that the French government wish to prepare the public mind for gradually abandoning the project; at another, he represents it as playing the deepest game, by amusing us with an ostentatious display of the flotilla at Boulogne, while it is preparing vessels, in

in retired places, of much larger dimensions, to be employed against us. We shall not discuss conjectures respecting the plans and preparations of the enemy: but we are proud to think that, on this occasion, we feel like the antient Greeks when they were threatened with invasion by the Gauls: "*Fuisse tùm privatim singulis hominibus, quàm publice civitatibus, unam communemque omnibus sententiam, aut funditùs pereundum, aut bello hostem superandum.*"

ART. XV. *An Account of the Native Africans in the Neighbourhood of Sierra Leone*; to which is added an Account of the present State of Medicine among them. By Thomas Winterbottom, M.D. Physician to the Colony of Sierra Leone. 8vo. 2 Vols. 15s. Boards. Hatchard. 1803.

THE establishment of the colony of Sierra Leone, though it has not, from a variety of causes, yet produced the extensive advantages which were expected by the philanthropic men concerned in its formation, has nevertheless afforded very desirable opportunities of acquaintance with the manners and institutions of some of the tribes of Native Africans which were before imperfectly known. The present publication will, therefore, be received with satisfaction, as forming a connected and interesting series of observations on these subjects, made during the author's long residence in an official situation at that colony; and though many of these particulars have already been communicated by former travellers, they derive additional authority from the support of his experience. Dr. Winterbottom's professional habits naturally led him to pay considerable attention to the state of medicine, among the inhabitants of that part of Africa in which he resided: but, as his remarks on this subject might be considered as little interesting to the general reader, he has confined them principally to his Second Volume.

At the commencement of his work, the author gives a summary description of the country in the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone, and of the different nations inhabiting it; after which, he proceeds to mention the different peculiarities in the climate of this part of Africa. The only divisions of the year, which are made by the natives, are the rainy and dry seasons; or, as they are called by some of their tribes, the *bad* and *good time*. The rainy season commences about the end of May, and terminates about the end of September. It is ushered in and carried off by Tornadoes, which also occur frequently in the months of April, June, October, and November. It does not rain incessantly during the whole of the wet season, but

in general twelve hours of heavy rain are followed by 24 or 30 hours of clear and pleasant weather. The quantity of rain which fell, according to the author's experiments, in the year 1794, amounted to 86.28 inches; and in the year 1795 to somewhat more than 82 inches.

'The air on the sea coast is in general so humid, that salt and sugar can scarcely be preserved in a dry and hard state. Iron is so speedily corroded by rust, that a thick bar of that metal, which has lain on the ground five or six years, may be broken in pieces with little difficulty; and leather soon becomes mouldy, and rots. This moist state of the atmosphere is not experienced at some distance from the sea; and in the interior parts of the country it is said to be common for a man to leave to his son, in good condition and well polished, the musket which he has used for forty years.'

The mean heat in Sierra Leone was about 84° of Fahrenheit: but, in the native villages, the thermometer at noon usually stood some degrees higher than at Freetown, where the author's observations were made. The range of the Barometer rather exceeded ¼ of an inch, and Dr. W. had an opportunity of being fully convinced that a regular diurnal change in its elevation always takes place, the mercury invariably rising in the forenoon and falling in the afternoon. Harmattans or parching winds very seldom occur at this settlement.

The soil in the western parts of Africa is very luxuriant, and agriculture is universally practised among the natives. Rice is their principal and favourite article of food; and for its cultivation, nothing more is necessary than throwing it on the ground, and scratching it in by a kind of hoe. The clearing of the land is the most difficult task for the inhabitants, who never think of preparing more than is necessary for growing the quantity of corn wanted at one season; and, as they are ignorant of the advantages of manure, and are too indolent to hoe the ground, they never raise two crops from the same plantation, till all the ground in the neighbourhood has been cleared. In preparing their land, they merely cut down the wood, to which, before the rainy season commences, they set fire. The stumps of the trees, which are left unburnt, are speedily destroyed by the Termites, a kind of white ant; which are here very numerous, and seem to be wisely intended to remove the immense quantity of dead vegetables which would very much retard culture. The fires made for clearing the ground communicate to the grass, which here grows to the height of six or eight feet, and, from its dryness, burns with great rapidity. During this general conflagration, it is not safe to travel without materials for striking fire; for when a traveller sees a torrent of flame rushing towards him, he can only hope to escape it by making

making another, and following its progress until he secures a retreat. The palm-tree is one of the most valuable and ornamental of their vegetable productions. Its leaves afford an excellent thatch for their houses, and a kind of hemp for making fishing lines, &c. The inner bark is manufactured into cloth, and the outer into baskets, mats, &c. Its fruit supplies the palm-oil, which is used instead of butter, and is also employed with the alkaline lixivium of the Plantain or Banana tree, for making soap. The palm-tree likewise affords a wine which is in high estimation among the natives:

'To procure it (says the author) requires no small degree of agility and address. As the trunk of the tree is too rough to allow the hands and knees to be applied in climbing to its summit, the natives use a kind of hoop of an elliptical form, made of bamboo, and open at one side. The person about to ascend, first passes the hoop round the stem of the tree, including himself also; he then fastens the hoop by twisting its two ends into a kind of knot. The hands are applied to the sides of the hoop, while the feet are firmly pressed against the tree, and the lower part of the back supported by the opposite end of the hoop. In order to advance, the person thus prepared draws his body a little forwards, keeping his feet steady, and at the same moment slips the hoop a little higher up the tree, after which he advances a step or two with his feet. In this manner he alternately raises the hoop and his feet, and thus advancing, he gains at length the upper part of the stem, just below where the branches are thrown off. Here, at the height of 50 or 60 feet, with no other support than the pressure of his feet against the tree, and of his back against the hoop, he sits with perfect composure. In a small bag hung round his neck or arm he carries an auger to bore the tree, and a gourd or calibash to receive the wine. A hole is bored, about half an inch deep, below the crown of the tree, and into this is inserted a leaf rolled up like a funnel, the other end of it being put into the mouth of a calibash capable of containing several quarts, which is filled in the course of a single night. The liquor is discharged more abundantly during the coolness of the night and morning than in the heat of the day. About a quart of wine may thus be procured twice a day, for the space of a month, from each tree, without any injury to it, as it will yield the same quantity for many succeeding years. If, however, wine be taken from it for a longer time than about a month, the tree either dies, or requires a much longer respite to recover. When the palm wine has been drawn off, the hole is carefully filled up with mud, to prevent insects from depositing their eggs in it, the larvæ of which would destroy the tree.'

The Palm wine, when fresh drawn, very much resembles whey in appearance and taste, and is not intoxicating: but in 24 hours it enters into the vinous fermentation, in which state it is very inebriating, and on this account preferred by the natives.

In the situation of African towns, security is the principal object considered; since the inhabitants, without great precautions, are in danger frequently of being surprized and carried off into slavery. They generally choose the banks of some creek, rendered difficult of access by the thick mangroves with which it is lined; and when such a situation cannot be procured, in order still more effectually to protect themselves, they clear a small portion of ground in the middle of a thick impenetrable wood, barely sufficient for their buildings, and with footpaths leading to it which are so small and winding as scarcely to be traced: their towns are therefore very unhealthy, especially to Europeans. On the coast they seldom consist of more than 40 or 50 houses, and are built in a circular form, inclosing an area in the middle of which is placed the palaver house or town-hall. The houses are in general only one story high, and for the most part consist of but one room. They have no other openings than two doors to admit light, to keep up a circulation of air, and to let out the smoke of the fire, which is made in the middle of the floor:

'The entrance of a house is seldom closed by any thing but a mat, which is occasionally let down, and is a sufficient barrier against all intruders. The most intimate friend will not presume to lift the mat and enter in unless his salutation be returned. Nay, when the door is thus slightly secured, a woman, by pronouncing the word moorádee, *I am busy*, can prevent her husband from entering, even though he be assured she is entertaining her gallant; his only remedy is to wait for their coming out. The Africans are not much burthened with household furniture: a few mats to sleep on, and cloths to guard them from the cold at night, an iron pot, a few calibashes, a copper kettle for water, a balay or basket, with a small box for the women's clothes, constitute the chief part of it.'

The Palaver-house is the place in which all public business is transacted, and is a kind of central resort for the inhabitants of the town:

'The men pass much of their time here conversing with each other, and hearing the news of the town, and to this place strangers go, on their first entrance into a town, and sit down until an house be provided for their reception. This place being the chief resort of the inhabitants, may be considered as a kind of exchange, and it illustrates the ancient practice of "sitting in the gate" of cities, where, as being the most public place, all business was transacted, justice was dispensed, and markets often held *. Similar motives induce the Africans to hold their meetings in the búrree, or palaver house; for as they have no means of authenticating the principal transactions of civil life by

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'* Persons of rank used frequently to sit there to discharge the duty of hospitality to strangers, and to "all that went in at the gate."

written

written documents they are very careful to affix to every engagment, whether public or private, such a degree of notoriety as shall insure its memorial. For this purpose every contract is made before respectable witnesses, and when these die, people still remain who recollect to have heard the relation of it from them. Children are allowed, and even required, to be present at these meetings, and by hearing the old people converse about past transactions, the facts become indelibly imprinted in their minds; and by this early and continued practice their memories acquire an extraordinary degree of strength. The upper part of the bürree, or palaver house, serves as a granary to preserve their rice; the entrance is by a hole in the floor, shut by a sliding door, and they ascend to it by means of a post, in which notches are cut.'—

'Much of the men's time is taken up by settling disputes among themselves or neighbours, which they call talking palavers, and of which they are so fond, that Africa, at the present day, may well deserve the title formerly given to it, Nutricula Causidicorum. When unoccupied by these employments they while away the hours in listless indolence, reclined upon mats, or sleeping in the shade. Indolence is, without doubt, a distinguishing feature in the character of Africans, as of all uncivilized nations. In their endeavours, however, to attain their favourite luxuries of tobacco and rum, no toil is thought too severe.'

Among the people who inhabit the sea-coast, the division of labour is little known; and the trades of blacksmith, joiner, architect, and weaver, which are the principal in use, are generally exercised by one man. In the more interior parts of the country, the arts have made a much greater progress, and are practised as distinct occupations.

The oil of palm is very generally used to anoint the body; and the peculiar smell, so much disliked in the African, is owing to the substances which they mix with that exudation.

The natives consider it as a beauty to have their front teeth pointed; and to effect this unnatural change, 'they place beneath the tooth a thin flat piece of iron; a sharp-edged knife is laid edgeways upon the upper surface of the tooth, and a pretty smart blow is given to it with a piece of wood, by which a part of the tooth is chipped off: this is repeated until the tooth is made perfectly sharp, in which consists the chief beauty. They do not complain of much pain from the operation, nor are they afterwards subject to any uneasy sensations in those teeth from drinking cold or hot liquors.' The practice of marking the skin of the forehead and temples, as is in common use among our sailors, is very frequent among the male Africans. The females also occasionally adopt the same fashion: but there is a species of tattowing peculiar to them, which is called Sora or Soccalla:

'It is used upon the back, breast, abdomen, and arms, forming a variety of figures upon the skin, which appears as if embossed. The

figures intended to be represented are first drawn upon the skin with a small piece of stick dipped in wood ashes, after which the line is divided by a sharp pointed knife. The wound is then healed as quickly as possible, by washing it with an infusion of bullauta. This operation is not performed by a particular set of people, but is practised by any one who possesses sufficient skill to make the attempt. This custom has prevailed very generally among rude nations, and is of very great antiquity; it was in use to denote their grief and lamentation for the dead, and also implied that they had devoted themselves to the service of some particular idol, whose image they had impressed upon their bodies. For this cause it is strictly forbidden in scripture. "Ye shall not cut yourselves, nor make any baldness between your eyes for the dead;" and again, "Ye shall not make any cuttings in your flesh for the dead, nor *print any marks upon you.*" Although the people who allow this custom do not attach to it any superstitious ideas, but practise it merely for ornament, yet it seems probable that the Mahommedan nations are influenced by this prohibition, and for the same reasons, as they say their book forbids them to practise it. These incisions or marks are generally made during childhood, and are very common on the Gold Coast, where each nation has its peculiar mode of ornamenting themselves, so that by the disposition of the marks it is easy to know which country the person belongs to; for the most part the females possess the greatest number of these painful ornaments.'

The Africans are fond of music and dancing: but the former, as may be readily imagined, is not of the most harmonious kind. Our tambourine and triangle are, however, borrowed from them.

With regard to government, it is conducted in a simple and patriarchal manner. At the head of every town, is what is called a *headman*, who is an elderly person, distinguished by his acquaintance with the laws of the country. He is much revered by the inhabitants, and settles the disputes which may arise among them. Criminal causes are submitted to an assembly of the headmen of the country, and slavery is the usual punishment of guilt.—It must be admitted that the accused have a poor chance of exculpating themselves from the crime of which they have been charged; for, if they deny it, they are obliged to submit themselves to an ordeal which varies according to circumstances, but is much more likely to prove their guilt than their innocence. 'Either a hot iron is applied to the culprit's skin; or he must slip his arm into a vessel full of boiling palm oil, and take from thence a snake's head, a ring, or some other article which has been put in for the purpose. In either case, his being burnt is considered as a sufficient proof of his guilt.'—In the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone, the most usual mode of trial resembles that of *bitter water* formerly in use among the Jews, and is called *red water* by the Africans.

'A person accused of theft or of witchcraft endeavours, if innocent, to repel the charge by drinking red water. A palaver is first held among the old people of the town, to whom the accusation is made by one party, and protestations of innocence by the other; and if they determine that it shall be settled by a public trial, the accused fixes on some neighbouring town, to which he repairs, and informs the head man of his wish to drink red water there. A palaver is again held to determine whether his request shall be granted; if not, he must seek some other town. In case of the head man's acquiescence, the accused remains in the town concealed from strangers, sometimes for two or three months, before the day of trial is appointed. When that is fixed, notice is sent to the accuser three days before, that he may attend with as many of his friends as he chuses.

'The red water is prepared by infusing the bark of a tree, called by the Bulloms kwon, by the Timmanees, okwon, and by the Soosoos mille, in water, to which it imparts a powerful emetic, and sometimes a purgative quality. In some instances it has proved immediately fatal, which leads to a suspicion that occasionally some other addition must be made to it, especially as it does not appear that the delicate are more liable to be thus violently affected by it than the robust. To prevent, however, any suspicion of improper conduct, the red water is always administered in the most public manner, in the open air, and in the midst of a large concourse of people, who upon these solemn occasions never fail to assemble from all quarters, particularly the women, to whom it affords as good an opportunity of displaying their finery and taste in dress, as a country wake in England does to the neighbouring females. The accused is placed upon a kind of stool about three feet high, one hand being held up and the other placed upon his thigh, and beneath the seat are spread a number of fresh plantain leaves. A circle of about seven or eight feet in diameter is formed round the prisoner, and no one is admitted within it but the person who prepares the red water. The bark is publicly exposed, to shew that it is genuine. The operator first washes his own hands and then the bark, as well as the mortar and pestle with which it is to be powdered, to prove that nothing improper is concealed there. When powdered, a calibash full is mixed in a large brass pan full of water, and is stirred quickly with a kind of whisk until covered with a froth like a lather of soap. A variety of ceremonies, prayers, &c. are performed at the same time, and the accused is repeatedly and solemnly desired to confess the crime with which he has been charged. A little before he begins to drink the infusion, he is obliged to wash his mouth and spit the water out, to shew that he has nothing concealed in it: a little rice or a piece of kola is then given him to eat, being the only substance he is allowed to take for twelve hours previous to the trial; and, in order to prevent his obtaining any thing else, he is narrowly watched during that space of time by a number of people, who are responsible for his conduct. After having repeated a prayer dictated to him, which contains an imprecation upon himself if he be guilty, the red water is administered to him in a calibash capable of holding about half a pint, which he empties eight, ten, or a dozen times successively, as quick as it can be filled.

It probably now begins to exert its emetic powers, but he must notwithstanding persist in drinking until the rice or kola be brought up, which is easily seen upon the plantain leaves spread below. Should vomiting not be caused, and the medicine produce purgative effects, the person is condemned immediately; or if it be suspected that the whole of what he has eaten is not brought up, he is permitted to retire, but with this reserve, that if the medicine shall produce no effect, upon his bowels until next day at the same hour, he is then, and not before, pronounced innocent; otherwise he is accounted guilty. When the red water proves purgative, it is termed "spoiling the red water." The utmost quantity which may be swallowed is sixteen calibashes full; if these have not the desired effect, the prisoner is not allowed to take any more. When neither vomiting nor purging are produced, the red water causes violent pains in the bowels, which are considered as marks of guilt: in such cases they endeavour to recover the patient by exciting vomiting; and to sheathe the acrimony of the red water they give him raw eggs to swallow. In some instances the person has died after drinking the fourth calibash. If the rice or kola be long in coming up, it is common for some of the culprit's friends to come near, and accuse him with great violence of some trifling fault; for they suppose, if any thing prejudicial to his character were concealed, it would prevent the favourable operation of the red water. Women at such a time, when the trial is for witchcraft or some other crime and not for adultery, have an excellent opportunity of proving their chastity before the world, by publicly declaring that they have proved faithful to their husband, and wishing that they may be punished if they have spoken falsely: this is looked upon as a most irrefragable proof of fidelity. When the accused is permitted to leave the tripod upon which he is seated, he is ordered to move his arms and legs, to shew that he has not lost the use of them, and immediately runs back into the town, followed by all the women and boys shouting and hallooing. People who have undergone this trial, and have escaped, acquire from that circumstance additional consequence and respect. When acquitted, they dress, particularly the women, in their best clothes, and visit all their friends and acquaintances, who receive them with many tokens of affection and regard. When the accused dies upon the spot, which frequently happens; or when the red water *is spoiled*, and the party is too old to sell; one of his family, unless he can redeem himself by a slave, is taken and sold. Sometimes, for want of a proper opportunity, the affair remains unsettled for many years, and I knew an instance of a young man having actually been sold for a slave, because his *grand-mother* had spoiled red water many years before he was born.'

An institution called Purra exists among the Bulloms of Sherbro, which resembles the antient secret tribunals of Germany, and is equally an object of dread. The peculiar matters of attention with this tribunal are witchcraft, murder, and contumacy in their members, who are expected to keep the secrets of the confederacy, and to observe its mandates. The guilty are punished in so secret a manner, that the perpetrators are never known.—Among the Soosoos, is an institution of

of a somewhat similar kind, called Semo, and by the natives who speak English, *African Masonry.* The initiated have a language peculiar to themselves. The jurisdiction of both these institutions is confined to men: but there is one to which women only are amenable, called *Boondoo,* and an old woman called *Boondoo-woman* has the entire superintendance of it. The object of this inquisitorial establishment is to extract from women a full confession of every crime of which they may have been guilty themselves or to which they may have been privy in others. If their confession be satisfactory to the Boondoo-woman, they are liberated, and an act of oblivion is passed with respect to their former conduct; unless their crime has been witchcraft, which is always punished with slavery. If the unfortunate woman protest her innocence, or refuse to tell all that she knows, she is invariably cut off by a sudden death.

Polygamy is admitted to any extent, but marriages may be set aside on proper cause being shewn. This custom does not prove the source of the violent commotions in families which might be imagined; and a younger rival scarcely excites in the former wives any emotions of jealousy.

'A Foola woman of some consequence and much good sense, whose husband had four wives, being asked if she did not wish to reign alone, replied in the negative; for as she was not *company* for her husband, she would be quite at a loss for amusement, were it not for the conversation of his other wives. The first wife a man takes, enjoys a greater share of respect than the others, and retains the title of head woman, with a degree of enviable authority, long after her personal charms have ceased to enslave her husband's affections.'

The commerce of Africa is principally that of barter: but, though the natives are nearly unacquainted with the use of coin, they form to themselves an ideal standard, by which they determine the value of commodities bought and sold. In some parts of Africa, this is a nominal medium called a Bar; to which, in calculation, commodities are reduced. In others, different weights of gold are used for the same purpose:

'The strangest and most curious kind of commercial intercourse is that which is practised by a nation inhabiting the banks of the Niger. They trade with Moorish merchants, who annually pay them a visit, without the parties seeing each other, or practising any fraud. The merchants repair every year, at a stated period of the moon, to a certain place, where they find in the evening the articles they are in want of, consisting chiefly of gold dust, disposed in small heaps at a little distance from each other. Opposite to these heaps the merchants place the value they intend to give for each, consisting of coral, beads, bracelets, and other trinkets, which they leave there and retire: next day the negroes return, and if they approve of the bargain they take away the trinkets, or, if not, they diminish the quantity of gold.'

Dr.

Dr. Winterbottom devotes a chapter to the consideration of the physical peculiarities of the Africans, which he refers to the effects of climate. He takes some pains to vindicate them from the charge of want of natural affection, and from those of timidity and stupidity, which have been so liberally preferred against them. Their affection to their mothers is extremely great, as are their regard to the aged, their attachments, their hospitality, sensibility to personal favours, and acuteness to an insult or indignity.—Considerable attention, we are informed, is paid to the instruction of children among some of the nations, and no marks of indocility appear in them.

The last two chapters of this interesting volume are employed in detailing the religious superstitions of the natives; with the trials, punishments, funerals, and mourning of the Mohammedans. A curious account is given of a Mohammedan impostor, who gained by his artifices a great share of credit among the people; and of the practice of Obi as existing in the West Indies: of which also a description has been already furnished in Mr. Bryan Edwards's valuable History of the West India Islands.

Three Appendices are annexed; the first containing a description of the Colony of Sierra Leone; the second, a meteorological account of this settlement; and the third supplies a description of the Termites, taken from Mr. Smeathman's paper in the 71st volume of the Philosophical Transactions.

In our next Number, we shall examine Dr. W.'s second volume; in which he restricts his attention to the State of Medicine among the native Africans.

[*To be continued.*]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MAY, 1804.

HISTORY.

Art. 16. *An accurate Historical Account of all the Orders of Knighthood at present existing in Europe.* To which is prefixed a Critical Dissertation upon the antient and present State of those Equestrian Institutions, and a prefatory Discourse on the Origin of Knighthood in general, the whole interspersed with Illustrations and Explanatory Notes. By an Officer of the Chancery of the Equestrian, Secular, and Chapteral Order of Saint Joachim. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 240 and 315. 18s. Boards. Printed at Hamburgh, for White, London.

THE title page sufficiently announces the object of the present work; which traces each order to its origin, gives an account of its

its founder, of the occasion of its institution, and of the rules and regulations by which it is governed. It is evidently intended less to be regularly perused, than to be occasionally consulted; and in this latter point of view its claims are respectable, and such as intitle it to a place in the libraries of all inquisitive persons.

FINE ARTS.

Art. 17. *Outlines from the Figures and Compositions upon the Greek, Roman, and Etruscan Vases of the late Sir William Hamilton;* with engraved Borders drawn and engraved by the late Mr. Kirk. 4to. 2l. 2s. Boards. (5l. 5s. coloured.) Miller. 1804.

This very beautiful work, containing sixty two plates, is selected from the two publications of the late Sir William Hamilton, the one in four volumes folio, and the other in three, edited by Tischbein. The selection has been made not only on account of the beauty of the composition, and the elegance and truth of the individual forms, so evident in all the designs, but because, among the originals, many were preserved which are rendered exceptionable by indelicacy of expression. All of this description are excluded from the present volume.—'The various beautiful borders,' says the editor, 'which surround these designs, were not so placed in the original vases, but served there merely to ornament the handles, and other parts; nor were the border and figures, which are upon the same plate in this work, always upon the same vase.'—We entirely concur with the editor in his remark that 'nothing can exceed the different borders in simplicity, in variety, in elegance, in richness, or in beauty, and all modern ornaments sink in the comparison.'

The truth and correctness of outline in these figures are very remarkable, and must render them eminently useful to the student. "Until the importance of outline," says a learned author, who has written on the subject, "be generally admitted, and its perfection as generally sought till it be understood, that there can be no *real* art without it, and that no man deserves to be called an artist, who is defective in this best rudiment; we may continue to model, to carve, and to paint, but without it we shall never have artists, sculptors, or painters." This work is admirably calculated to promote the desirable purpose so justly and strongly recommended by Mr. Cumberland; and while it deserves a place in the cabinet of the collector on account of its beauty and elegance, it may be safely intrusted to the attention of the youthful student of either sex, on account of the taste and chasteness of the designs.

The Introduction contains some judicious remarks from the Dissertations by M. D'Hancarville, inserted in Sir William Hamilton's volumes; and a short but satisfactory explanation of the subject represented accompanies each plate.

MEDICAL.

Art. 18. *The Natural History of the Human Teeth,* including a particular Elucidation of the Changes which take place during the Second Dentition, and describing the proper Mode of Treatment to prevent Irregularities of the Teeth; to which is added an Account

count of the Diseases which affect Children during the first Dentition. Illustrated by 13 Copper Plates. By Joseph Fox, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. 4to. pp. 105. 1l. 10s. Boards. Johnson. 1803.

The observations relating to the structure and growth of the teeth, which are contained in this useful publication, so nearly coincide with those of Dr. Blake *, that it will scarcely be necessary to present our readers with any analysis of them; and it may suffice to point out those instances in which there happens to be a difference of opinion between these two authors. Mr. Fox seems to be a man of correct observation; and we therefore consider the similarity of his doctrines with those of Dr. Blake, as affording a very desirable confirmation of some ingenious opinions on the physiology of the teeth. Mr. F. admits that the membrane surrounding the pulp, which is destined to receive the osseous matter of the teeth, is composed of two laminæ; and he is satisfied that he has demonstrated the vascularity of its internal one by injection. He does not, however, appear to assent to the assertion of Dr. Blake, that the membrane of the pulp becomes closely connected to the neck of the tooth, as soon as the crown of it is completely ossified; and he therefore considers this membrane as pressed by the tooth when it rises; to which cause, and the force applied to the gum, he refers (according to the usual opinion) the irritation produced in teething, which he thinks is to be best remedied by dividing the gum and the membrane which it covers. We agree with him on the propriety of this practice, when marks of pressure are found to exist, because the gums are extremely irritable, and must necessarily be in some degree affected by a force acting from below: but, as we have no reason for doubting the accuracy of Dr. Blake's observations, on the adhesion which he represents to take place between the membrane and the neck of the tooth, we must attribute the symptoms remarked in teething solely to the effects produced on the gums. Perhaps the present author's experience of the fact differs from that of the gentleman whom we have just mentioned.

Mr. Fox considers the existence of absorbents in the teeth, as proved by the occasional removal of a quantity of their inner part; and by extraneous bodies (as bullets, &c.) being sometimes found perfectly loose in the teeth of elephants. In some parts of his book, however, he improperly terms the mode of removal an ulcerative process, as if ulceration and absorption were either necessarily connected, or synonimous.

After having given a perspicuous view of the anatomy and physiology of the teeth, Mr. Fox goes on to the consideration of the prevention and treatment of irregularities in them, the removal of such as are supernumerary, and the practice requisite in caries of the primary teeth, and in teething.—As his opportunities of practical observation on these subjects seem to have been extensive, his remarks are in course deserving of proportionate attention.

The plates illustrating this work are well executed, and the whole forms a very handsome volume.

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* See M. R. Vol. xl. p. 373. N. S.

Art.

Art. 19. *The Edinburgh Practice of Physic, Surgery, and Midwifery*; preceded by an Abstract of the History of Medicine and the Nosology of Dr. Cullen, and including upwards of Six Hundred authentic Formulæ from the Books of St. Bartholomew's, St. George's, St. Thomas's, Guy's, and other Hospitals in London, and from the Lectures and Writings of the most Eminent public Teachers. With 20 Quarto Plates. A new Edition in 5 Volumes. 8vo. 3l. 15s. Boards. Kearsley. 1803.

The first two volumes of this large work are devoted to medicine; the third and fourth to surgery; and the last to midwifery. It is entirely a compilation, in which the reader is generally left to form his own conclusions on the subjects treated, without any assistance from the editor. Some of the best professional treatises have contributed to the formation of this system, but the materials which they furnish are generally given without any attempt at abridgment:—which circumstance, aided by a vast number of cases and opinions taken verbatim from minor publications, has swelled the collection to a superfluous size. It is obvious, however, from the respectability of the sources of information, that the volumes necessarily contain a great mass of valuable matter.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 20. *A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of Lincoln*, at the triennial Visitation of that Diocese in May and June 1803. By George Pretyman, D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Lincoln. 4to. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

It may be termed a stroke of controversial generalship in the advocates for Calvinism to assume to themselves the appellation of *Evangelical Preachers*; by which the question at issue between them and their opponents is in a manner prejudged. Bishop Pretyman, however, disputes the justice of the epithet, and here employs himself in proving that the peculiar doctrines of Calvinism, viz. *partial election and reprobation*, make no part of the New Testament, nor of the Liturgy of the Church of England, nor of the Homilies. He observes (and, we think, with truth,) that in reference to redemption by Christ, every expression is employed throughout the Scriptures which denotes universality: with respect to the Liturgy, he might have adduced even stronger passages, if possible, than those which he has quoted, to prove that it does not countenance the abhorrent doctrine of reprobation; and since a confident appeal has been made to the Homilies, as decisive evidence in this controversy, he observes that 'not one of the peculiar doctrines of Calvinism is mentioned in either of the two books of Homilies: that the word Election occurs only once, and then not in the Calvinistic sense: that the word Reprobation does not occur at all; and that nothing is said of Absolute Decrees, Partial Redemption, Perseverance, or Irresistible Grace.' This is certainly a singular circumstance, if the authors of the Homilies were rigid Calvinists: it is a fair presumption to the contrary; and it is more than a presumption when united with passages in them which are evidently not Calvinistic.

Dr. Pretyman contends that the Established Church is not Lutheran, nor Calvinistic, nor Arminian, but scriptural; and he concludes with exhorting

exhorting the parochial clergy strenuously to withstand the dangerous attempts of schism and enthusiasm.

Art. 21. *A catechetical Explanation of the Grounds and chief Precepts of the Christian Doctrine*, from the first Principles of Natural Religion to its Completion under the Gospel Covenant. By the Rev. William Sandford, Vicar of Castlerea in the Diocese of Elphin. 12mo. pp. 350. 3s. Cadell and Davies.

There is a remarkable addition to the above title, in these words; 'designed principally for the senior classes of schools, and for all churches and sects who "bow at the name of Jesus," Phil. ii. 10. which latter phrase, we conclude, is intended to mean all who acknowlege and submit to his authority as a divine teacher and saviour; since bending the knee or bowing the head is not, literally, designed by the passage. The work is called *catechetical*, which, respecting its form, may occasion some mistake; since it is no otherwise such than as containing two or three suitable questions placed at the foot of the page, answers to which an attentive reader easily gains by a perusal of the paragraphs to which they relate. It is a compilation from different authors, principally Clarke, Taylor, Locke, Butler, Horne, Robinson, Ryan, Pretyman, Watson, &c. It seems rather remarkable, especially as the compiler is an *Irish* clergyman, that Leland, so considerable a writer in support of Christianity, should not appear in the list: but we observe an accidental quotation or remark, in the course of the work, attributed to him. The great Mr. Locke is often cited, and mentioned with respect: but the reader is sometimes warned of *errors* in his 'Reasonableness of Christianity,' and also in his 'Essay on Government.'—Should it be so, *Humanum est errare!*—The man who labours faithfully for truth, and for public benefit, must be valued;—and there are vulgar errors, as well as private mistakes!

It might be easy to point out deficiencies or partialities in this little compendium: but some compensation is made by the good sense, the useful information, and the instruction which it comprizes; and the whole concludes with a few useful practical remarks. We must not dismiss this article without mentioning the editor's very earnest address to the Societies in London and Dublin for promoting Christian knowlege, to whom he presents this essay, assuring them that 'should any emolument arise from its sale, he has appropriated it to a very interesting public charity.' Candour may also require the notice of another circumstance, viz. that bad health obliged him to reside for a time in the west of England, distant from public or private libraries, or literary assistance, in which situation he has collected and compiled the book which here offers itself to the world.

Art. 22. *A Theological Dictionary:* containing Definitions of all Religious Terms: a comprehensive View of every Article in the System of Divinity: an impartial Account of all the principal Denominations which have subsisted in the Religious World, from the Birth of Christ to the present Day. Together with a Statement of the most remarkable Transactions and Events recorded in Ecclesiastical History. By Charles Buck. 8vo. 2 Vols. 19s. Boards. Williams.

In

In former periods, when religious controversy was more in vogue than it is in these days, a publication like the present would have been in great request, and secure of a rapid sale. It posseses value, however, independently of temporary circumstances. Theology is an important branch of general knowlege, of which a person of liberal education cannot without reproach be wholly ignorant: since no one will be able to understand the civil transactions of mankind in past times, without some acquaintance with the various religious opinions which have divided and distracted society. In these volumes, a neat and succinct account of them is given; and, as far as we have examined them, they seem to possess much correctness.

Art. 23. *Practical Sermons on several important Subjects*, for the Use of Families, by the Rev. Theophilus St. John, L. L. B. 2d Edition. 8vo pp. 400. Boards. Vernor and Hood, &c. 1804.

The author's own advertisement may afford an idea of this volume:

'The reader is entreated to consider these sermons as entirely calculated for a popular auditory; such as a clergyman, ardently desirous of doing good, would write for the use of his congregation, without the intention of their being ever read, and which, when they have been preached, are to be deposited in his study. This is the author's apology for offering to the world a volume of discourses containing very little reasoning; for he never knew a deep reasoner an useful preacher: but he knows some deep, and very excellent reasoners, who often preach to very small, and sometimes, very inattentive congregations. A clergyman may read the sermons of Clarke and Sherlock with great improvement to himself, but would deliver them from the pulpit, with little edification to tradesmen, and their wives and children; to farmers, mechanics, servants, and labourers. To such an auditory, abstract reasoning, and profound argument will generally be unintelligible. It is not meant, however, to recommend flimsy declamation, which may indeed please the ear, but generally fails to impress the mind. A sermon, in the judgment of every critic, should unite, according to its subject, a certain portion of plain argument, with a pathetic appeal, and forcible address to the hearers. The author, having no motive but utility in the publication of the following sermons, deprecates the severity, and solicits the candour of his readers.'

We are entirely disposed to comply with the writer's wishes, for we think favourably of his intentions; and we do not incline to condemn his sermons. We accord with him in opinion that mere abstract reasoning will not conduce to the edification of Christian audiences in general, but there is a kind of reasoning which is suitable and likely to be useful to them all.—We meet with many sensible and judicious remarks in this volume;—its prevailing strain is practical, and it is animated by lively exhortations and earnest address. The language is plain and proper; though we observe an inequality in the discourses, some considerably differing in style and manner from others. As to an air of popular orthodoxy, which prevails in the volume, we have only to remark that the author's account of the 'new birth,' in sermon 11, may hardly be deemed consistent with that system: but we ought to say that the discourse is sensible, instructive,

structive, and practical. Whether it entirely comports with the meaning of our Saviour's account, we undertake not to determine.

The first sermon, which considers the 'duties of ministers and people,' even should some little excess be admitted, may prove sufficient to convince each party, in different parishes of this kingdom, that there is cause to be humble, and room for repentance and amendment. The Sermons on the 'uncertainty of life,' on 'compassion,' on 'uprightness,' on 'sickness,' not to enumerate others, are well adapted to the end proposed; and on the whole, whatever reason there may be for the author's apology, they give us the idea of a man who has a zeal for that best of all causes, the cause of real piety, virtue, and benevolence, which comprehends all that is estimable and valuable; and to the assistance of which, we hope this publication will contribute.

Art. 24. *Christianity the Friend of Man.* By James George Durham, A. B. 12mo. pp. 116. Boards. Hatchard. 1803.

Cordially do we agree with the above sentiment! Christianity is indeed the *friend of man;* and the more completely its nature and design are apprehended, the more disposed shall we be to embrace it and adhere to it. Numbers, we doubt not, receive this as a truth, who may not, or cannot, in every instance unite in opinion with the author of this tract; who, with a laudable zeal, here pleads its cause. 'In defence of it (he says) he would gladly employ all the faculties of his mind, and exert all the energies of his soul; he would promote its diffusion in life, and supplicate for its perpetuation in death.' He expresses his sense that his imperfect attempt contains a very superficial sketch of the advantages which Christianity affords; and he adds that he has neither opulence to purchase nor patronage to command renown: yet having observed that *mean* abilities are sometimes regarded with partiality, when engaged in the cause of happiness and truth, he cherishes a hope that 'piety of heart will excuse what elegance of taste must condemn; and that success will ultimately crown what principle has begun and perseverance continued:' If not, he says with Cowper, —

"Let Charity forgive him a mistake,
That zeal, not vanity, has chanc'd to make,
And spare the 'writer' for his *subject*'s sake."

Though, in some respects, we may not quite accord with Mr. D.'s representations, and also perceive deficiencies, we readily allow a proper merit to this little volume, and regard it as calculated to be useful. It comprehends many extracts from good writers, and presents several just considerations, to prove the beneficial tendency and real excellence of the Gospel.

Art. 25. *The Christian Faith;* or the Catechism of the United Church of England and Ireland, briefly proved and explained from Scripture, by the Rev. Samuel Turner, A. M. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

This little comment on the catechism does not appear to us to contain any thing particularly striking: but it may prove acceptable and useful, since it is plain and moderate. Some apposite texts of

Scripture

Scripture are introduced under the different heads, but the reader is not led to controversy.—The 'descent into *hell*,' mentioned in the creed generally called, 'the apostles',' (though, as here hinted, of later date,) is explained to refer to 'the state of the dead;' and other parts intimate a temperate state of mind, with a solicitude to advance the great object of a godly and virtuous life: but when the whole is finished by an authoritative passage, well-becoming only an *inspired* pen,—"If any man teach otherwise," &c. some doubt of the ingenuousness and candor of the writer may be excited.

Art. 26. *Diatessaron*, or the History of our Lord Jesus Christ, compiled from the Four Gospels, &c. By the Rev. T. Thirlwall. 8vo. 6s. Boards. (Also an Edition in 12mo.) Rivingtons.

After having published, for the use of schools, the Latin version of this Harmony of the Gospels (see Review Vol. xli. p. 95), the author has proceeded to favour the English student with the same assistance. The preface contains but little, it is true: but that little is good. The notes are useful, but have no particular merit.

Art. 27. *Letters of Consolation and Advice from a Father to his Daughter, on the Death of her Sister.* 12mo. pp. 184. 3s. Boards. Rivingtons.

Many good and pious directions will be found in this collection of letters, both for support under grief, and for the fulfilment of the moral and religious duties of life. If there be nothing peculiarly novel in these instructions, yet their importance intitles them to be inforced again and again; especially when they are placed, as in the present volume, in a prominent and interesting point of view. The serious *tranquillity*, with which the author writes, induces us to suppose that his situation as a mourning parent is assumed: but whether this be the case or not, his counsels deserve the attention of both parents and children.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 28. *Geography for the Use of Schools, and Young Persons in general.* Illustrated with 50 Copper-plates. By the Rev. J. Goldsmith, Vicar of Dunnington. 12mo. pp. 560. 10s. 6d. bound. R. Phillips.

In the practice of drawing maps, Mr. Goldsmith observes, the whole secret and business of teaching and learning Geography are comprized. In this work, therefore, after having recommended the above mode of proceeding, he has furnished a concise grammar of Geography, to be committed to memory by the pupil. The rest of the volume consists of extracts from a variety of travels and voyages, delineating the manners and customs of the nations of the globe. Some tolerable maps on a small scale, and several amusing views of distant nations, will prove interesting to the youthful reader.

The history and political œconomy of nations form no part of the present work; and perhaps such information may be properly withholden at first, till larger treatises can be consulted and understood.—Experience alone can vindicate the propriety of this or that particular

mode of conveying geographical instruction; and all that can be said *à priori* is, that success will most probably attend that method which happily blends the *utile dulci*, and interests the attention while it informs the understanding.

Art. 29. *An easy Grammar of Geography*, intended as a Companion and Introduction to the Geography for the Use of Schools. With Maps. By the Rev. J. Goldsmith. 12mo. 3s. bound. R. Phillips.

We have here the Grammar of Geography apart from the narrative of national manners.—The preface bespeaks the confidence of the author in the utility of his plan.

Art. 30. *Guide Pratique à l'Art de traduire du Français*, &c. *i. e.* A Practical Guide to the Art of translating French into the true English Idiom by means of an interlined Translation. By G. Poppleton. 8vo. pp. 278. 4s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Hamburgh, and sold in London by Rickman.

It appears to us that these exercises can only be used when a skilful master is at hand to guide the learner, and to correct his performances. We should in course have more approved the work, if it had been so constructed as to have enabled the student to proceed without the constant presence of a teacher.

Art. 31. *Thoughts on the Education of those who imitate the Great*, as affecting the Female Character. Crown 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Hatchard.

Many just remarks are comprized in this little treatise, accompanied by some severe strictures on modern Education. This, however, is a subject by no means new in the present day; and it cannot be expected that there should be no repetition of the sentiments of former writers on the subject: but this circumstance does not diminish the value of the present little volume, which has also the merit of conciseness. It principally condemns that Education of which the aim is *Vanity*, and points out the importance of an acquaintance with religion and the duties of domestic life.

Art. 32. *An English Introduction to the Latin Tongue;* compiled for the Use of Schools. By the Rev. T. Prichard, A.M. of Queen's College, Oxford. 12mo. 2s. bound. Symonds.

It may perhaps be attributed to our prejudice in favour of the Eton Grammar, that we do not on the whole admit the superiority of this rival. In some respects, it certainly conveys more information, and particularly in several good notes to the syntax: but, in regard to the classification of nouns and verbs, we must confess that we prefer the Eton method.

Art. 33. *Latin Dialogues*, collected from the best Latin Writers, for the Use of Schools. 12mo. bound. Pridden, &c.

Great care and attention appear to have been paid to the purity of the Latin idiom in this collection of Dialogues. The *Naufragium* and *Diluculum* of Erasmus, with some alterations, are also inserted. The editor (whom we apprehend to be Dr. Valpy of Reading) justly infers the utility of this plan, from the facility with which modern languages

languages are acquired by the aid of familiar dialogue. Two short tables of the value of the Greek and Roman coins are subjoined.—We doubt not that this performance will gain a ready admission into our classical schools.

Art. 34. *The Elements of French Conversation*, arranged on a new Plan, and designed for the Use of Schools. By W. A. Bellenger. 12mo. Bound. Dulau and Co.

The object, to which Mr. Bellenger directs his attention, is not to draw up a new set of dialogues, but to amend and expunge the improprieties of former collections. This is certainly an important attempt, and we doubt not that it will meet the success which it merits.

Art. 35. *A Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek, Latin, and Scripture proper Names*: to which are added, Terminational Vocabularies of Hebrew, Greek, and Latin proper Names; &c. &c. The second Edition, with large Additions. By John Walker, Author of the Classical Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1804.

The favourable opinion which we expressed on our perusal of the first edition of this work (see Rev. Vol. xxix. N. S.) we are now ready to repeat; and in stronger terms, on account of the improvements and additions which have been made. The terminational vocabularies of classical and scriptural proper names, which are added to this edition, are both novel and ingenious; and the preparatory observations on Greek and Latin accent and quantity will be found to merit particular attention. We should do injustice to the author, if we were to endeavour by a partial extract to give our readers an idea of these curious reflections and conjectures; they merit a more minute attention, and cannot be duly appreciated without having recourse to the volume itself.

Art. 36. *Practical Geography*, &c. &c. By J. Ouiseau, A. M. 12mo. pp. 300. 3s. 6d. Boards. Mawman.

This concise treatise appears well calculated to assist the teacher in directing his pupil's attention to the principal outlines of Geography and History. It is drawn up in a skilful manner, and the materials are compiled as judiciously as the narrow limits of the work would allow. Although the Geographical part contains little more than an index of the situation and names of places, yet, in the hands of an expert teacher, it may form a basis for more extensive instruction; and as the author in his preface speaks from his own experience of the utility of his method, he is the better enabled to recommend it to others who are engaged in the business of Education.

Art. 37. *Progressive Exercises, adapted to the Latin Accidence*; to be written or repeated while Boys are learning the Nouns and Verbs. To which are added, a few of the most obvious Rules, with easy Examples, to teach Boys to construe or translate from the Latin. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Sael.

This appears to be an useful method for beginners, under the guidance of a master, and with the aid of a good grammar.

POLITICAL.

Art. 38. *Outlines of Rational Patriotism, and a Plea for Loyalty*: intended to promote the Love of our Country. With a concluding Address to Young Volunteers. By J. F. Hatfield. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804.

Of the design of this pamphlet, it is impossible to speak without commendation; and if the composition be not in all places correct, an atonement is made in the variety of good principles and maxims with which it abounds. The author writes for the instruction and admonition of young country readers; to whom his brief view of our history, from William the Norman to the Revolution, with the nature of our civil constitution, and of the rights and privileges which we enjoy as Britons, may be acceptable, and serve to stimulate their patriotic ardor in their defence against the threatening invader. Mr. H.'s object, in his historical sketch, is to evince the fatal consequences of the Norman invasion, and to shew the length of time and succession of efforts which were necessary for the rectification of its evils. He adds, 'If England be destined to fall into the Vice-consulship of an inferior brother, it is easy to believe that posterity would have as much to do as our ancestors had, who were enslaved by the Norman conquest.'

In the introductory remarks, he displays the importance of Education, and in the concluding Address to Volunteers, he exhibits the connection of religion with National Prosperity.—Mr. H. congratulates his readers that '*trade* and *christianity* (we never met these words so coupled before) centre in this happy land;' and he mentions 'the Commons as being a third time in the *integer* of powers.'

Art. 39. *Letter to a Member of the present House of Commons.* By W. H. T. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Exhortations to unanimity are good at all times, and will suit one ministry as well as another; and therefore the arguments of this pamphlet, intended to prop Mr. Addington's falling throne, may so far be applied to the resumed dominion of Mr. Pitt: but he will not relish the compliments which are paid to the gentleman who held the seals during his official inter-regnum. If recent changes have made a great part of this Letter obsolete, the author's remarks on the state of Ireland, and on the Volunteer system, ought not to be considered as being in this predicament.

Art. 40. *The Letters of Valerius*, on the State of Parties, the War, the Volunteer System, and most of the Political Topics which have lately been under public Discussion. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

Another champion for the Addingtonian administration, now no more;—another defence of the capacity and virtue of the late minister; who, it must be honestly confessed, was attacked rather by low wit than by argument, and who has retired with more than patrician dignity, extorting the respect of his bitterest enemies. The leading object for which this writer assumed the pen being now completely frustrated, it is useless to appreciate the abstract merit of his reasoning

reasoning on the late state of parties. The people are here also reminded of their privileges. Our Volunteers are applauded and instructed; and if they be as willing to learn as some are to teach them, their acquisition of military knowlege and skill must advance with astonishing rapidity.

Art. 41. *Alfred's Letters.* An Essay on the Constitution of England and an Appeal to the People; with Six Letters on the Subject of Invasion; originally addressed to the Printers of the two Shrewsbury Papers. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed at Wellington.

These letters are well calculated to impress the public mind with a conviction of our civil blessings, and to rouse the people, at the present juncture, to a most vigorous and prompt defence of them against the inveterate enemy. Apprehensive that every thing may be lost by delay, the author is very energetic in exhorting the Volunteers to make all possible preparation, by a knowlege of tactics and the most perfect discipline, to meet the enemy; whose disembarkation on our island, he declares, may shortly be expected.

POETRY.

Art. 42. *The Evils and Advantages of Genius contrasted:* A poetical Essay, in three Cantos. By the Rev. William Tindal, A.M. F.S.A. 8vo. 2s. Richardsons.

More of poetical reading than of poetical power is displayed in these cantos: but some of the descriptions are pleasing. We select, as a specimen of the author's manner, *the sleep of Genius:* (rather an ominous subject:)

'He seems,
At times, to wander underneath the roof
Of some cathedral, whose long, less'ning, aisles
Shame all the plans of art. Some hand unseen
Awakes the deep-ton'd organ: notes are heard
That art would ne'er acknowledge, but which art
Will never equal —Now aloft he roams
Amid the dusty corridors: each hollow step,
Re-echo'd from the roof, excites a cloud
Of bats deform'd: now more deform'd; for, each
Adds to his leathern wings a demon's face.
To these his cheerless wand'rings nor intent
Nor end appears.—Now on the ridge he climbs,
The broken ridge, of some huge, ruin'd, fane,
Of altitude to overlook the earth,
Scarce dimly seen so high: the fragments rough
On which he rises sudden fail; he clings,
Suspended; quits his grasp, and, starting, wakes.'

Art. 43. *Poems*, by Mrs. G. Sewell, Relict of the late Rev. George Sewell, Rector of Byfleet, Surrey. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Robson, &c.

If there be nothing peculiarly striking nor animated in these poems, they possess a softness and sensibility which, without fascinating the

reader's imagination, concilitate *and win* his approbation. They are generally of a serious cast; except in a few instances, as in the fable of the dogs, which is a pleasing tale, and is not without humour; though even there the turn of the writer shews itself serious.—Several grammatical inaccuracies occur, and the frequent repetition of the interjection—'*oh!*'—'*oh! thou*'—fatigues the ear.

LAW.

Art. 44. *The Trial of John Peltier, Esq.: for a Libel against Napoleon Buonaparte*, First Consul of the French Republic, at the Court of King's Bench, Middlesex, on Monday the 21st February 1803. Taken in Short-hand by Mr. Adam, and the Defence revised by Mr. Mackintosh. 8vo. pp. 440. 12s. sewed. Jones. 1803.

It is scarcely necessary for us *now* to observe, that this is a trial which excited considerable degree of interest in the world. The *character* and *situation* of the person libelled naturally called forth the curiosity of the public; and the splendid eloquence, by which Mr. Peltier was defended, amply rewarded them for their attention. The libel was contained in the first and third numbers of a publication called the *Ambigu*, and its direct aim and tendency were to degrade and vilify the First Consul in the estimation of the people of this country and of France, and to excite to his assassination.—Lord Ellenborough, in his charge to the jury, made the following observations on the law of Libels:

'Gentlemen, it is my duty to state to you, that every publication that has a tendency to promote public mischief, whether by causing irritation in the minds of the subjects of this realm, that may induce them to commit a breach of the public peace, or whether it may be more public and specific, and extending to the morals, the religion, or magistracy of the country—these are all cases of libel. But more particularly, as in the present case, by defaming the persons and characters of magistrates and others in high and eminent situations of power and dignity in other countries, inconsistent with amity and friendship, expressed in such terms and in such a manner as to interrupt the amity and friendship between the two countries—every such publication is what the law calls a libel. Cases of this sort have occurred within all our memories. My Lord George Gordon published a libel on the person and character of the queen of France; and another person published a libel on the late Emperor Paul, in both of which cases there were prosecutions. In the first case there was a conviction, and punishment followed. The other case went the length of a conviction; and in respect to the legal effect of both these prosecutions, I am not aware it was ever judicially questioned. And therefore I lay it down as law, that any publication which tends to degrade, revile, and defame persons in considerable situations of power and dignity in foreign countries may be taken to be and treated as a libel, and particularly where it had a tendency to interrupt the amity and peace between the two countries. If any publication contains a plain and manifest incitement and persuasion addressed to others to assassinate and destroy the persons of such magistrates,

as

is the tendency of such a publication is to interrupt the harmony subsisting between two countries, the libel assumes a still more criminal complexion.'

It is well known that Mr. Peltier, 'notwithstanding,' to use the language of the chief justice, 'the very ingenious gloss and colour, by eloquence almost unparalleled, by which he was defended,' was convicted: *but he has never been brought up for judgment.*

Art. 45. *A Collection of remarkable and interesting Criminal Trials, Actions at Law,* &c. To which is prefixed an Essay on Reprieve and Pardon, and biographical Sketches of John Lord Eldon and Mr. Mingay. By W. M. Medland and Charles Weobly. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 380. 6s. 6d. Boards. Badcock. 1803.

The professional reader will easily be enabled to form an opinion of the value of this publication from the succeeding remark: 'The knowledge to be acquired in pleaders' offices is certainly of high importance. It consists with being well acquainted with cases out of the common routine of practice, and preparing with more deliberate accuracy the pleadings for counsel with references to assist the memory: and, in cases of great difficulty, even the speech of the advocate is often manufactured in the office of the special pleader.'—Alas! how frequently are we compelled to lament the useless multiplication of law-books.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 46. *Art of Universal Correspondence:* peculiarly adapted to the Use of the Commercial World, and Travellers in Foreign Countries; which, with the Aid of a Dictionary only, will in a few Hours, enable two Persons, ignorant of each other's Language, to correspond in either: useful also to Schools, for Grammatical Exercises, and as a Substitute for Short-hand. By the Rev. P. Roberts, A.B. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Nicol.

Bishop Wilkins, the famous predecessor of Mr. Roberts in this line, possessed fertility of invention and extensive erudition: but, as here observed, it was found impossible to execute his ideas on the subject. Of his own work, however, Mr. R. says, 'this system affords the means of communication, by the application of a very few signs to the common terms of any language, so as by the aid of a knowledge of this system and a dictionary to be intelligible in any other.' The signs, we are told, will be *easily learned*, and the system itself, is *very concise* and *clear*.—'That it answers all the purposes of an *universal character* will appear from a consideration of the characters used, which are universal; the radical forms being permanent, and those in any one language merely the interpreted radical of another.' Two exemplifications of the art, one as part of a letter, are added, whether with complete exactness we will not assert, but, we believe, tolerably well; great nicety of attention is requisite when articles of this sort are committed to the press. We are informed that 'the reduction obtained in this way of writing is at least one fourth, frequently one third shorter than the original; so that, on an average,

at least one fourth of the time will be saved by writing according to the method here exemplified.'

We cannot undertake to offer any decided opinion on the merits of this scheme, which must be ascertained by the experiments of practitioners in the art.

Art. 47. *British Monachism:* or Manners and Customs of the Monks and Nuns of England. By Thomas Dudley Fosbrooke, M.A. F.A.S. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Nichols, Payne, &c.

This gentleman is already known to the world as a diligent inquirer concerning monastic history; and of his ingenious poem on this subject we have already taken notice, in our 26th vol. N. S. page 24 Mr. Fosbrooke appears to be an adept in the science, if we may so term it, which he undertakes to illustrate; and he has been very laborious in collecting the materials, in compiling the narrative, and in his endeavours to render the whole detail exact and accurate. The employment was undoubtedly difficult, and he seems to apprehend that he could not have preserved fidelity, separate from the manner in which he has here chosen to exhibit the performance:

'As people (he observes) are very much inclined to censure books, either to keep preferment or notice out of the way of letters, or from not considering the difficulty or previous knowledge requisite to make them, I beg them in candour to consider, that I had no guide going before me to light my obscure paths; and two very powerful obstacles to contend with, expence without prospect of re-payment, and a very limited absence from my church. Of the *printed* books I could not at all pretend to give the original matter, to my style I could not give elegance, because I had to translate most motley materials, and did not chuse to destroy precision and particularity by generalizing my language: however, I have endeavoured to render the work as pleasing as I could, and I certainly am entitled to credit, inasmuch as I may have contributed somewhat to check that spirit of Monachism and popery, which has lately been revived.'

This last sentence discovers a very laudable design; though the author does not intermingle very many reflections of his own with his descriptions, esteeming it perhaps sufficient that they should speak for themselves. Whatever well-meaning but mistaken intention there might be in the original institution of these orders, or in some individuals afterward connected with them, (for which we are desirous of making all reasonable allowance,) it yet appears to us that their whole story is the history of folly and nonsense,—often, and too generally, of imposition and fraud.

After the introduction, which treats of 'monachism previous to the reign of Edgar,' the work is divided into four parts. Part I. 'Benedictine monachism from the reign of Edgar to the dissolution.' Part II. 'Monastic Officers—Abbot, Abbess.'—Part III. 'Monks, Nuns, Friars, Hermits, Novices. Lay-brothers, Lay-sisters and servants.' Part IV. 'Monastic Officers.'—Miracles, Signs, Visions, Legends, &c. &c. might without doubt have furnished a considerable addition to the volumes.—We copy one or two anecdotes.

Vol.

Vol. 1st. p. 196. 'Walter Mapes, ridiculing the Cistertians for their pretences of abstaining from flesh, says, "Pigs they keep, many thousands of them, and sell the bacon, perhaps not all of it; the heads, legs, and feet, they neither give nor sell, nor throw away; what becomes of them, God knows; likewise there is an account between God and them, of fowls, that they keep in vast numbers. MS. Bodl."—Vol. 2d. p. 204. 'At St. Alban's there were fifty-three farms devoted to the kitchen, every one of which was valued at forty six shillings *per annum*. The above abbey had a house at Yarmouth, to lay up fish, especially herrings for the use of the convent.'

To the above we shall merely add the grave observation of an honest English bishop, who fell a sacrifice to the bigotry and policy of this kind of people, and surrendered his life in the flames. Vol. 2d, p. 105, 'Dr. Hooper says, "The people are made so blind by the falsehood of Antichriste's ministers, that they will rather give a golden crowne to the buildinge of an abbeie, foundation of a chantrie, or for a masse of requiem, then one silver penie for the defence of their common-wealth." (Sermons.)

Mr. Fosbrooke's attentive research is unquestionable: but in some instances, in point of style, a close and confined regard to the Latin, which it was requisite to translate, seems to have injured its ease and perspicuity. Besides an appendix to the first volume, formed from the Bodleian and Harleian manuscripts, we find at the conclusion of the second, together with farther remarks on his own work, *Emendations of Bishop Gibson's version of the Saxon Chronicle;* and also, *The Triumphs of Vengeance, or the Count of Julian;* an ode, relative to a memorable occurrence said to have taken place in Spain, about the year 710 of the Christian æra. The Goths, who had long seated themselves in that country, had for some time been also christianized: Roderic, who proved to be their last king, is reported to have seduced or ravished Cava, daughter of one of his potent nobles; and the father, Count Julian, took an ample revenge by introducing the Moors and Saracens into the kingdom, before whom Roderic speedily perished, and a series of devastation and misery succeeded. In the fifth volume, 4to. of Gibbon's History of the Decline of the Roman Empire, p. 364. may be seen the relation, together with the doubts of that writer respecting the reality of the story. The beauties of this kind of composition not unfrequently escape the eye and the ear of the reader; there is also an obscurity, not uncommonly attending these productions, which, whatever gratification may be received from some of their spirited and fleeting ideas, is not always removed, until after a frequent and attentive perusal; and perhaps not then: a fault for which no vivacity of expression or harmony of numbers can compensate. Gray's ode relative to the Welsh Bards, so justly celebrated, was not generally comprehended, till repetitions and closer thought gradually displayed its excellencies,—and then they were never lost. The present effusion, though it can by no means be compared with that of Gray, presents striking poetical images, harmonious and impressive diction, and on the whole proves its author to be no mean performer on the Pindaric lyre.

Art.

Art. 48. *The Impolicy and Impiety of Sunday Drill considered.* 12mo. 6d. Ogle.

If Christians reflected on the spirit of the maxim given by Christ respecting the nature and purport of the Sabbath, "The Sabbath was made for man and not man for the Sabbath," it would correct their Judaical prejudices and enthusiastic notions, and assist them in the right application of that day. To the writer of the little pamphlet before us, we recommend the serious consideration of this text, which may serve to abate the severity of his remarks. He terms the Sunday Drill 'a heaven-daring sin,' and asserts that 'the profanation of the Sabbath is thus made a part of the law of the land.' Is he, however, justified in this violent condemnation of the measure? If a Jew was allowed to save his ox or his ass on the Sabbath day, is a Christian to be precluded the use of those means which prudence deems requisite to save his country in a season of extreme peril? Shall we, like the Jews, when Jerusalem was besieged by the Romans, endanger our country by an unfounded superstition respecting the Sabbath? Where is the harm of our combining, on that day, services expressive of our love to God and our love to our King and Country? To us it appears that no more impolicy or impiety is displayed by the Sunday Drill, properly conducted, than by the Sunday School; though this writer considers the former as displaying equal enormity with the Slave Trade. Should it be necessary, at a peace, for us to remain an armed nation, (which the formidable attitude of our rival may require) it will be good policy, one Sunday probably in every month, for the Volunteers of every parish to muster on their drill ground, to go through some manœuvres previously to divine worship, to march from thence to church, and there in the capacity of Christian soldiers to evince their gratitude to God and devotedness to the welfare of their country.

Art 49. *Journal Historique et Religieux de l'Emigration, et Déportation du Clergé de France en Angleterre. Contenant les Sentiments expressifs de sa Reconnoissance, offerts en Hommage à sa Majesté Georges* III. *à son Gouvernement, et à la Nation Britannique, pour les Bienfaits généreux qu'il en a reçus jusqu'à ce Jour. Dédié à sa Majesté le Roi d'Angleterre (par sa Permission). Par M. l'Abbé de* Lubersac, *Vicaire-Général de Narbonne, Abbé de Noirlac, et Prieur Royal de St. Martin de Brive: Emigré François*, &c. *i. e.* An Historical Journal of the Emigration and Transportation of the Clergy of France into England, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Nicol, Dulau, &c.

The greater part, indeed nearly the whole, of the class of persons of which an account is here given, have returned to France to resume their functions under the *Concordat*. The testimony borne to the good conduct of the individuals who resided among us is, we believe, strictly correct; and it is with great pleasure that we state the full credit which we give to it, as well as the satisfaction which we feel while reflecting on the munificent liberality of the government and of the public, towards men whom their functions and their sufferings rendered interesting and respectable. If, at the time, some of our divines

divines were actuated by former enmity against the Romish hierarchy, and occasionally dealt in harsh language, which was certainly not a little incongruous with the cordial hospitality shewn by the nation towards guests whom the savage barbarism of its neighbours had thrown on its generosity, there were others of the highest reputation, and of nearly the highest rank, who appeared disposed most closely to fraternize with the exile priesthood, openly giving them a decided preference over certain protestants. Neither persecution from the common enemy, nor the experience of Christian treatment, nor professions of Christian charity on the part of our church, can, however, extort from the Gallican clergy any thing like an admission of the Christianity of their benefactors: but they speak to them, and of them, when expressing their gratitude, as they would have done had they been heathens. When these reverend persons allude in bitter terms to their persecutors, they do not seem to recollect that the conduct, which they so justly censure, does not fall short of that which their predecessors shewed towards the protestants at the memorable epoch of the repeal of the edict of Nantes. We should have been glad to have met with some admission of the injustice of that proceeding, some expression of regret at its ever having happened: but nothing of the kind escapes their lips; they part with no atom of their superstition; and there appears no symptom of their having grown more tolerant, or less bigotted. With them, salvation continues to be still confined to the Romish pale, and they afford us no hope of gaining admission to heaven without the passport of the Pope. They publish in this country the doctrine of the Council of Trent, the most offensive to Protestants of all the papal councils, and which the old government of France never would allow to be received in that country; and they prefix to this compendium a complimentary letter to one of our titular bishops. There were persons of very high rank, and no doubt of the best character, among those who emigrated to this country: but there do not appear to have been among them any who were very eminent for learning. Indeed, learning seems to have been for some time very much on the decline in the Gallican church.

Art. 50. *The Anti-Gallican;* or Standard of British Loyalty, Religion, and Liberty; including a Collection of the principal Papers, Tracts, Speeches, Poems, and Songs, that have been published on the threatened Invasion; together with many original Pieces on the same Subject. 8vo. pp. 500. 7s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1804.

This political olio consists of a vast number of ingredients, of various flavour, but altogether forming a dish which must be agreeably seasoned to the taste of every patriotic Englishman at this juncture. Many of the materials would be well relished, separately taken; particularly those called *Songs*, most of which are good of their kind.

Art. 51. *Affecting Narrative of the Deposition, Trial, and Execution of Louis XVI.* with interesting Particulars of the Trials and Execution of the Queen of France, and Princess Elizabeth; and the premature Death of the Dauphin. 12mo. 1s. Neil, Somers-Town, and all other Booksellers.

A cheap

A cheap selection of the principal facts relative to the tragical events specified in the title; derived from the journal of the faithful Clery, the King's valet, and from the writings of M. Montjoye, Dr. Moore, and others.

FAST SERMONS, *Oct.* 19, 1803.

Art. 52. *Divine Judgments on guilty Nations; their Causes and Effects considered:* delivered at Newport in the Isle of Wight, before a Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, on the late Fast Day: by Robert Aspland. With a Preface and Notes containing Remarks on our National Sins, and an Inquiry into the Justice of the present War, in reply to the Observations of Messrs. Hall, Fuller, &c. in their late Sermons on public Affairs. By Benjamin Flower. 8vo. 2s. Conder.

A discourse peculiarly adapted to a day of national humiliation, and to the purport of the Fast-day as expressed in the Royal Proclamation. With the boldness of an antient seer, and in a style truly serious and impressive, Mr. Aspland addresses himself, not so much to the humble individuals of his little congregation, as to the *national* conscience; and by manfully exposing and skilfully probing those sins which may be justly termed national, he endeavours to produce that amendment of our national character, without which, under the moral government of God, we cannot expect his blessing in the awful crisis of our public affairs. Who can survey his catalogue of our sins without gloomy apprehension? In the present shaking of nations and trying visitations of Providence, can we expect to escape his judgments and corrections? The preacher accuses us of an eagerness for WAR, and charges on us as a crime the Alliance of the Christian Religion with the Civil Power; he then bids us look to our treatment of Ireland;— to our *treacherous and bloody conquests* in the East-Indies; to our Slave-Ships, and to the slavery which we cherish in the West Indies;—to the multiplied oaths which abound in every department of our civil and ecclesiastical administration;—and to the severity of our Penal Laws. That our conduct as a nation has, in some of the instances here enumerated, been at variance with the principles which we avow as Christians, cannot be denied; and if, in the appointed season of public humiliation, we do not repent of them, the solemn appeal to heaven by prayer is something worse than an idle farce and solemn mockery. At this alarming juncture, Mr. A. does not discuss questions relative to the war, but exposes the opprobrious parts of our national character, that we may be roused to avert the judgments of God hanging over us. We cannot however perceive that he cherishes much hope of our repentance; he rather seems to anticipate the application of a terrible remedy, and only consoles himself by looking forwards to the future purposes of Infinite Benevolence. An introductory address contains some sensible Remarks on Fasting.—Mr. Flower, in the preface, animadverts with keenness on Mr. Hall's view of *national sins*, and has certainly suggested remarks which, though far from complimentary, are well deserving of that reverend gentleman's attention: but we shall

shall excuse ourselves from farther discussion of the merits of Mr. Hall's sermon. In the Notes, which are given as comments on certain passages of Mr. Aspland's sermon, Mr. Flower condemns the present war as unnecessary and unjust, accuses the ministers of hypocrisy, and is of opinion that Mr. Fuller and other preachers have with precipitancy entered on the vindication of the war, as instituted purely on the grounds of self-defence. He quotes Mr. Hall's former opinions on the Union between Church and State, adverts also to the state of Ireland, to the Slave Trade, to our enormities in India, and concludes with charging a plagiarism on Mr. Hall, which we had not observed.

Art. 53. Preached on the Day appointed to be observed as a Fast Oct. 19, 1803. By the Rev. John Clarke, LL. B. 4to. 1s. R. Baldwin.

Being in a probationary state, in which calamity is made the instrument of punishing vice and of exercising virtue, we are taught by this preacher to regard the present condition of the country as an awful summons to religious consideration and virtuous exertion. Trusting (we will not say with what reason) that the present divine visitation is intended rather as a moral trial, than as a punishment of our guilt, Mr. C. exhorts his countrymen to humility, contrition, prayer, and trust in God, the discharge of our religious duty being the best preparative for meeting the enemy without fear. The hazard to which we are now called to submit our ease, fortune, and lives, for the public safety, is represented as the probation of our virtue. In this, therefore, Britons! fail not.

Other SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 54. *The Case of Hezekiah considered as a Ground of Consolation, and a Motive to Union in Prayer, at this present alarming State of the King's Health, and of the British Empire;* preached at Woburn Chapel, Feb. 26, 1804, by the Rev. G. A. Thomas, LL.D. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

A loyal, patriotic, and pious effusion on the interesting subjects mentioned above.—We extract part of a note, relative to the miraculous sign which had been requested by the Jewish monarch:—'The precise manner in which this sign was wrought can only be conjectured. That the miracle did not consist in *a* reversing the earth's rotation, but was confined to the country of Judea, is plain from the original term לְאַרְצָ, which limits its extent to that land then spoken of. It was effected, probably, by the refraction of a cloud, miraculously interposed between the sun and the gnomon of the dial-plate. Nor does this suggestion lessen the importance of the sign itself, as an evidence of the prophet's divine inspiration and veracity; for though the effect might be thus produced by natural means, yet the wonder still remains, that a cloud, or body of air, of different density from the common atmosphere, should be brought on the sun-dial at a particular instant previously announced by the prophet. A similar effect is mentioned to have been produced at Metz, in Alsace, in the beginning of the eighteenth century; where, says Rosenmuller, "by the refraction of a cloud, the shadow of the gnomon

was

was turned back to the hour and half preceding." See the comments of Scheidius apud Rosenmuller.'

Art. 55. *Adapted to the Circumstances of the present interesting Crisis,* preached at Chiswick, Sept. 4, 1803; published by particular Desire, and dedicated to the Society for the Suppression of Vice. By Thomas Horne, D.D. Master of Chiswick School. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Assuming the undeniable principle intimated in the text (Rom. viii. 31.) that dependence on God is the only sure dependence, and that all human skill and power must be inadequate to our happiness and protection without the concurrence of the divine favour, Dr. Horne proceeds to state the means by which this favour is to be secured, or to inculcate conformity to the will of God as the only way of obtaining his blessing on individuals and nations. He regards the present awful crisis as demanding from ministers of Christ the most energetic exhortations to practical religion and virtue; and with commendable zeal he avails himself of this opportunity of "*lifting up his voice like a trumpet*, and of shewing *the people* of this land *their crying sins and transgressions.*" He instances covetousness, oppression, injustice, extortion, dishonesty, pride, malice, revenge, intemperance, fornication, adultery, and murder, as sins which peculiarly subject nations to the divine displeasure; and in the list of our immoralities he places the general neglect of the Christian sabbath, and expresses a pointed disapprobation of 'the dismantling the Sabbath of one-half of its sanctity.' Some may object to Dr. Horne's particular remonstrances on this subject, that he does not appear to have fully considered the liberty in which Christians are left in this respect by the Gospel; and that he has not sufficiently discriminated between the Jewish and the Christian sabbath, though they are certainly very different institutions.

Art. 56. Preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary, Newington, Surrey, 16th October 1803, before Lieutenant-Colonel Gaitskell, of the First Regiment of Surrey Volunteers, &c. By Robert Dickinson, Curate. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

If Mr. Dickinson employs some disjointed and incongruous metaphors in describing our patriotic sentiments, he yet writes with feeling, and considers Divine Providence at the present season as making trial of our attachment to loyalty, virtue, and religion.

Art. 57. *Union and Firmness, Perseverance, and Trust in God necessary for the Defence of the Country*; and to form the finished Character of its Defenders. Preached before the Regiment of Royal Westminster Volunteers, on the Re-Presentation of their Colours, in the Parish Church of St. Clement Danes, Sept. 8, 1803. By the Rev. Jos. Jefferson, A.M. F.A.S. Chaplain of the Regiment. 4to. 1s. 6d. Robson.

The ordinary social affections are considered by this preacher as only 'pleasing episodes in human life:' but patriotism he dignifies with the appellation of a 'grace,' proceeding from 'a ray of the divine essence.' Having thus produced the pedigree of Patriotism, he next compliments the Royal Volunteers for their noble and courageous

geous exertions in behalf of this high-born grace. Menaced in our independence, he reminds us that united hearts and united counsels are required; and he exhorts also to promptitude of action, persuaded that, by union and valour combined with a pious trust in "the only giver of all victory," we can prove in the present crisis that England, single-handed, is a match for France.

The whole discourse forms no unsuitable address to citizens in arms for the defence of their country against a menacing invader.

Art. 58. *The Benefits of Wisdom and the Evils of Sin*, preached before the Hon. Society of Lincoln's Inn, Nov. 6, 1803, and published at the Request of the Bench. By the Rev. Robert Nares, Archdeacon of Stafford, &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

The thought pursued in this discourse is acknowleged by the author to have been taken from Mr. Simeon's Skeletons of Sermons. It is closely paraphrastic of the text (Eccles. ix. 18.) and displays a doctrine not less important than indisputable.

Art. 59. *A Loyal Tribute to the Virtues of our amiable Sovereign*, offered in a Sermon preached at Navestock, Essex, on a Day appointed to enrol Volunteers. By J. Filkes, Vicar. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

To confirm loyal attachment to our temporal Sovereign, and to inspire sentiments of piety towards the Sovereign of the Universe, form the avowed design of this sermon. It is very short, and contains nothing objectionable.

Art. 60. Preached in the Parish Church of St. Chad, Shrewsbury, Sept. 23, 1803. being the Day of the Anniversary Meeting of the Subscribers and Friends to the Salop Infirmary. By the Rev. J. Todd, M. A. F. A. S. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

A sensible and impressive discourse, establishing the truth of Christianity, on the threefold evidence of *miracles*, *prophecy*, and *history*; and at the same time urging an attention to the object immediately in view, from the example of our Saviour: who so frequently, and with such great compassion, exerted his miraculous power in healing the diseases, and removing the infirmities, of great numbers who resorted to him.—The pamphlet is published at request; and whatever profit may accrue will be devoted to the benefit of the Infirmary, some account of which forms several additional pages.

Art. 61. *Preached before two Friendly Societies*, by the Rev. Francis Skurray, M. A. Curate of Horningham, Wilts. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1803.

Mr. S. professes that this Sermon was sent to the press, in order the more strongly to imprint on the minds of his parishioners the sentiments of Unanimity and Loyalty, at this critical and eventful period; and that 'he was also actuated by a wish to contribute his mite towards cementing the peace and harmony of his neighbourhood, which had suffered interruption from disorder and alarm.'

The discourse is sensible and animated, and calculated to promote the laudable purpose of the preacher:—but why has he omitted the first clause in the verse of his text,—'Honour all men,'—to which the

the admonition that follows is in some degree opposed,—'Love the brotherhoood,'—plainly signifying their *fellow christians;* who, though surprisingly numerous, considering the early time when this apostolical command was uttered, constituted but a small as well as a despised and persecuted body, in comparison with the other communities and nations of this globe:—wherefore it was the more requisite that they should cultivate mutual affection and concord.

Art. 62. *Preached at the Anniversary Meeting of the 'Female Friendly Society' at Campsall*, Nov. 11, 1802, by the Rev. John Lowe, M. A. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

This preacher's intention is to 'consider the advantages of Female Friendly Societies;' which he does in a sensible, and we may add a successful manner; for, we apprehend, every reader will be convinced of their utility, under suitable direction. Greatly to their honour, three ladies (sisters) have for some time established and supported a school for girls in the above named parish: from among whom, with an addition of others, a number of young women are collected, who by habits of industry and virtue contribute mutually to each other's assistance and future support. Two funds are formed for this purpose, one arising from the small but constant contribution of each member, and another from the donations of those who are styled honorary members, which provides for that kind of aid and encouragement which the former would be insufficient to obtain. The institution is well recommended by Mr. Lowe, and most certainly deserves praise, if 'a supply is promoted of religious, virtuous, and industrious, servants, wives, and mothers.'

CORRESPONDENCE.

The line of conduct which Mrs. Cappe informs us she has chosen to adopt precludes us from attempting any answer to the subject of her note, since we have never seen, and probably never shall see, the publication to which she refers; and if we did, we could not take any notice of it.

Candidus will do us the honor to accept our thanks for his admonition and his offers: but perhaps he will not be much surprized if we demur to the former and decline the latter.

We have received a 2d Letter from Mr. Bristed, which is very creditable to his powers of self-examination and his openness to conviction. He expresses himself fully determined to make every beneficial use of the criticisms which we thought it our duty to offer on his *Pedestrian Tour* (reviewed in our last Number): but, in reference to our remark that "the result of his researches is only that the Scotch are a less cleanly people than the English," he wishes it not to be forgotten that he 'endeavoured to do justice to the purity of the morals, and to the extent and diffusion of knowledge, which adorn the Scottish people, in p. 266. of Vol. II.'

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. xliii. of the M. R. is published with this Number.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1804.

ART. I. *Travels in Turkey, Asia-Minor, Syria, and across the Desert into Egypt*, during the Years 1799, 1800, and 1801, in Company with the Turkish Army, and the British Military Mission. To which are annexed Observations on the Plague, and on the Diseases prevalent in Turkey, and a Meteorological Journal. By William Wittman, M.D. of the Royal Artillery, and Surgeon to the British Military Mission acting with the Army of the Grand Vizier. 4to. pp. 600, and 22 Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1803.

IF our government did not attach a professed corps of *savans* to our military expedition to the East, it has been made evident from the several publications which have originated in that enterprise, that it included men of science and curious observation, who were capable of availing themselves of every opportunity for collecting useful knowlege, and of making us better acquainted with regions which as yet are very imperfectly known to Europeans. Syria and Egypt having been the theatre of the various singular and important transactions recorded in sacred history, our curiosity is peculiarly excited by the relations of the modern traveller into those regions. He carries us to places with the names of which our ears have been familarized from our childhood, and respecting which our religion induces us to wish for particular information. The inquisitive are desirous of comparing existing facts with antient details; of ascertaining the present state of one country which is described by the antient Jews as "flowing with milk and honey," or as possessed of the most uncommon fertility, and of another which stands prominent in the earliest pages of history. Many travellers have endeavoured to satisfy this general desire for information: but, as we conceive that a variety of interesting particulars yet remain to be told, we are prepared to receive every new observer with complacency and satisfaction.

Our recent publications respecting Egypt and Syria have this advantage over their predecessors, that the circumstances which they record were witnessed by gentlemen who enjoyed oppor-

tunities for research which are not attainable by the ordinary wanderer. It has been remarked that the French *literati* were protected by their army; and it is equally proper to observe that, as Dr. Wittman travelled in company with and making a part of the army which was dispatched from Constantinople to co-operate with our forces in Egypt, his privileges were those of a native Turk:—he had full leisure for observation on the characters of the people, and on the soil, climate, and natural productions of the countries through which the route lay. From the size of this volume, which is in the form of a journal, it will be apparent that Dr. W. was not an idle traveller; though, in certain instances, we should have been better satisfied had he been more diligent in his inquiries and more minute in his details. Lest, however, too much should be expected from the present work, the author thus speaks of his undertaking:

'In the course of his travels, he saw many things which, to him at least, were uncommon; and he was in the habit (partly to relieve his mind from the irksomeness of his situation, and partly in the hope of gratifying his particular friends) to note down whatever appeared worthy of remark. On communicating these notes to those for whom they were originally intended, it was their wish to see them in print, as containing matter which, according to their partial opinion, was calculated to interest a still wider circle. Such a task, when he commenced his journal, he did not expect he should have to encounter; and this statement, in every respect consonant to truth, he trusts will shield him from the severity of criticism, which is most properly directed against such publications as are, from the first, intended to challenge the approbation of the Public.

'He cannot flatter himself with the hope that these pages will be found equally agreeable to all readers. To some they will appear in parts defective, as they undoubtedly are; to others, the author may seem occasionally prolix, in recording the particulars of conversations held with different individuals, either on the civil or on the military state of the countries in which he resided. Yet those books are perhaps the most instructive, and not the least entertaining, which record things as they really happened. "Truth," says an admired author, "needs no ornament; and in my opinion what she borrows from the pencil is deformity."

The journal commences with a short account of the British Military Mission sent to the Grand Seignor in 1799, which was designed to join the Turkish army and to co-operate with it against the common enemy. General Koehler and a few officers under him were appointed to act on this occasion; Dr. W. was associated with them in the capacity of surgeon to the mission; and they were to rendezvous at Constantinople; to which place the chiefs of the party went over-land, and the rest by sea. The author was among the latter; and he relates the particulars of his voyage from Gibraltar through the straits

of

of Messina, and among the Greek islands, to the capital of the Turkish Empire: where he arrived and joined the mission, June 14, 1799.

Full leisure having been afforded to Dr. W. for the examination of this city, a description of it is first given:

'Constantinople, comprehending its suburbs, some of which are so large that several authors have been led to consider them as distinct cities, is of very considerable extent. It is in the form of an unequal triangle, having one of its sides towards the sea of Marmora, another in front of the harbour, and the third towards the land. Being built on seven hills, on the sides of which the houses are placed, it has at a little distance the appearance of a vast amphitheatre, stretching itself over a very extensive territory. The mosques, or places of public worship, of which the principal one was the celebrated Christian church of St. Sophia, which name it still retains, are numerous, and several of them very large. They are not provided with bells; but each of them has one or several minarets, on which the muezins, or criers, are stationed to call the people to prayers. These minarets bear a strong resemblance in their form to a tall candle, having an extinguisher at its top.

'Nothing can be grander or more beautifully picturesque than the external appearance of Constantinople and of its vicinity. Within it has less to recommend it, the houses being but indifferently built, and the streets very narrow.

'The Seraglio, or palace of the Grand Sultan, occupies the space on which the ancient city of Byzantium formerly stood, at the extremity of the angle formed by the sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus. It is by far the most beautiful part of Constantinople, the projecting land on which it stands being covered by groves of cypress trees, which give a sublime effect to the magnificent buildings of which the palace is composed.

'On the opposite side of the harbour, the towns, or more properly speaking, suburbs of Galata, Pera, and Tophana, are situated; and, on the Asiatic side, opposite the point of the seraglio, stands the town or suburb of Scutari. From the great sloping of the hills on which they are placed, these suburbs have a very fine and romantic appearance, the houses seeming as if built tier upon tier. Being, however, principally constructed of wood, which is soon fretted and decayed by the intense heat of the sun in such a climate, the grandeur of the scene is diminished on a near approach. Between them cypress trees rear their lofty heads, and add greatly to the sublimity of the general effect. The cemeteries are also thickly planted with these trees; and the scene is thus rendered beautifully picturesque. In short, the external view of Constantinople, and of its environs, is at once sublime and pleasing; and with this view the traveller ought to content himself, since, on a nearer inspection, he will find little to gratify his curiosity, or to excite his admiration.

'The Bosphorus, a beautiful canal, or narrow sea, from a mile to a mile and a half in breadth, and about twenty miles in length, forms the communication between the Euxine, or Black Sea,

and the sea of Marmora, the ancient Propontis. In the formation of its banks, which are lofty, and lined with an exquisite variety of beautiful trees and shrubs, nature has been lavish in the extreme. Several villages are interspersed; and at the sea-side the Grand Seignor, the Vizier, Capitan Pacha, &c. have elegant kiosques, or pleasure-houses, for their summer residence. Throughout the whole extent of the canal the highest state of cultivation prevails, its shores being covered with vineyards, gardens, and orchards, containing a great diversity of the finest fruits. Were the Turks possessed of a taste at all proportionate to the advantages which this situation affords, and at the same time placed under a government similar to our own, the banks of the Bosphorus would become one of the most beautiful spots in the world. They at present lose all the beauties of the perspective from the eminences, their villages being built close to the canal side, with stages or landing places projecting over the water. There the inhabitants assemble, and remain for several hours together, smoking their pipes, and enjoying the cool refreshing breeze.'—

'I was confirmed in the observation I had made on my first arrival, that the streets of Constantinople are, without exception, narrow, ill paved, and dirty. Almost all the houses are built with windows projecting to the streets, which nearly touch those of their opposite neighbours; this custom greatly obstructs the free circulation of air through the streets. The roofs of the houses are miserably ill covered; they are formed of a reddish tile, loosely put on without any fastening; occasionally loose stones are laid on here and there, but a cat running over the top of a house will frequently untile it; consequently they are wretchedly constructed for rainy or tempestuous weather. The external appearance of the houses is at the same time heavy and dismal, all the ornaments being reserved for the interior.'

Subjoined is an account of the village of Buyukdere, 12 miles from Constantinople, on the European side, near the Bosphorus, where the mission took up their residence. This spot was not only beautiful in point of situation, but was plentifully and cheaply supplied with the necessaries of life:

'At Buyukdere, mutton, beef, and bread are plentiful, and sold at a very reasonable price; as are also poultry of every description. Eggs are in great plenty; but the cheese and butter are very indifferent. The wines, both red and white, made at Buyukdere, are very cheap, the *oke* (which weighs two pounds ten ounces, or somewhat more than an English bottle) being sold at from eight to ten paras, that is, from four pence to five pence English money. The vegetables, which are pretty nearly of the same kinds as in England, namely, broad beans, French beans, pease, cabbages, cucumbers, gourds, water melons, &c. are in great abundance. The fruits, which are no less so, consist of peaches, apricots, pears, apples, (which, however, are all very insipid), figs, cherries, pomegranates, red currants, wood strawberries, and grapes. Besides these, there is a profusion of walnuts, filberds, and hazle nuts. As there is no procuring

procuring malt liquor here, the principal beverage is wine and water. The milk is good and tolerably cheap. The oxen are small, and are for the greater part of a light grey colour; they are employed, in common with the buffalo, an animal very unseemly to the view, in ploughing, for draught, &c. Here, as well as at Constantinople, Pera, and indeed in all this part of Turkey, the dogs are very numerous. They do not appear to belong to any particular masters, are very ferocious, and occasionally very troublesome.

'A very agreeable dish called *yourt*, of which the natives are very fond, is made here, and brought in with the dessert. It is prepared by allowing a certain portion of milk to become sour, and throwing into new milk as much of this acidulated fluid as will curdle it in a slight degree. It is then eaten with sugar, is very palatable, and, mixed with strawberries, becomes a good substitute for cream. The milk sold here is generally a mixture, being drawn from goats, sheep, cows, and buffaloes.'

During the author's stay in the neighbourhood of Constantinople, he visited the plain of Troy, the antient Sigæum, &c.; but he makes no remarks on these subjects that are peculiarly worthy of notice. His attention as a medical man is particularly directed to the great and sudden variations in the state of the atmosphere, which he considers as having a strong tendency to the production of disease; and the different heights of the thermometer are accurately marked.

In proof of the degrading superstitions and ignorance of the Turks, Dr. W. relates that the launch of a ship of war was delayed till a favourable report of an opportunity had been made by the astrologers and dealers in magic; and he very judiciously asks, 'Can such a people be formidable?' Indeed, the whole military detail exhibited in this journal, as far as it respects the Turks, very clearly proves that, had it not been for the British army, the French must have retained Egypt in their possession.

As a set-off in favour of the Turkish characters, the Doctor relates an anecdote of judicial sagacity after the manner of our old friend Sancho Pança:

'A case of usury was brought before the Grand Vizier. A Turk had lent to another a sum of money equal to a thousand pounds sterling, at an interest which was immoderate even in this country, where the legal interest, in some instances, amounts to twenty per cent. The borrower kept this money in use during ten years, when he refunded it to the lender, but refused to pay the interest, on the ground of its illegality. The Grand Vizier acknowledged the justice of his plea; but with great ready wit, and a nice discernment of the case, ordered him to lend to the Turk, whose debtor he had been, without interest, an equal sum for the same space of time.'

Exploring the Asiatic coast opposite to Constantinople, Dr. W. necessarily met with many vestiges of antient magnificence. 'We landed, (says he) near the ruins of an antient imperial

palace, over which we walked.' Nothing more is added, and such *extreme* brevity is very mortifying and unsatisfactory.

A second navigation of the Grecian archipelago enabled Dr. W. to visit St. John's retreat, of which a short account is subjoined:

'Patmos has an excellent harbour; and the town being situated on the loftiest part of the island, makes a pretty appearance in entering. The houses being constructed of a white free-stone, have a peculiarly neat aspect, very different from what we had hitherto seen in this quarter of the globe. It has been calculated that the town has an elevation of nearly five hundred feet above the level of the sea. In its centre is a large convent dedicated to St. John the evangelist, who was banished to this island. It was here that he wrote the Revelations; and after we had landed, we saw, in walking to the summit of the hill, the grotto in which he is said to have composed them. We next visited the convent, which has a resident bishop, with a considerable number of monks, and in which is a college for the education of the young men of the Greek persuasion. Over the gateway of the entrance are three large bells; and the chapel within has a neat mosaic pavement. In ascending the island the road winds considerably, and presents otherwise great difficulties, insomuch that it cost us no little labour to reach the summit. In those parts of the island which the inhabitants were able to cultivate, we saw several small fields, or patches of corn, banked up with stones to prevent the soil from being washed away by the rains: it appeared, however, that it was capable of producing but an inconsiderable quantity of grain.

'The town, which contains about two hundred houses, all of them provided with balconies, is, as well as the rest of the island, inhabited exclusively by Greeks. The women are to the men in the proportion of five to one. They are pretty; and wear on their heads a high turban of a peculiar form, made of white crape, a narrow slip of which falls down behind, and nearly reaches the ground. The inhabitants procure sheep and cattle from the neighbouring islands, their own being so barren as to make but a scanty return to the labour and industry they bestow upon it.'

Dr. W. corroborates the former statements of the massacre of the Turkish garrisons of El Arish and Jaffa by Bonaparte's orders, saying that he has 'seen the skeletons of these unfortunate victims;' and with regard to the poisoning of the French sick troops, he informs us that 'not only was such a circumstance positively asserted to have happened, but that while in Egypt an individual was pointed out to them, as having been the executioner of these diabolical commands.'

We were amused in attending the author in his progress through the Holy Land; yet we must confess that we should have been more gratified, had he detailed fewer of the pious frauds practised by priests and monks on credulous travellers

to

to Jerusalem and its vicinity, and had penetrated to the Dead Sea and given the result of his own observations. At one time, the Dead Sea was in his view; yet he does not visit its shores, but contents himself with a strange tale of the monks of the convent of Ramla, often related by them, but credited only by weak minds:

'We were told by the reverend fathers belonging to our convent, that the mountain which is contiguous to the Dead Sea, exudes a bituminous matter, with which the sea itself is occasionally overspread. They produced a specimen of this substance, which had the appearance of common pitch. I do not wish to accuse them of dealing in the marvellous, but they surprised us not a little when, in speaking of the noxious quality of the air in the vicinity of the Dead Sea, they asserted, that notwithstanding the fruits and vegetables which grew there were very fine in appearance, they were destitute of all flavour; and that the oranges in particular, instead of containing a pleasant and refreshing juice, were filled with a cineritious matter. The superior assured us that he had sent several of these oranges to Europe as a curiosity.'

Instead of Dr. W.'s candour in not wishing to accuse them of dealing in the marvellous, it would have been more in character for him as a philosopher to have questioned the fact; and to have '*marvelled*' that, of such wonderful productions as 'oranges filled with cineritious matter,' they should not have reserved a single specimen to shew to strangers.

We have not room for the descriptions of Jerusalem, Nazareth, Bethlehem, &c. but we shall copy the picture of the principal features of the country:

'Syria may in general be considered as a mountainous country; but the part bordering on Jaffa has several very extensive plains, which are intersected, at certain distances, with moderate heights. In approaching Jerusalem, after having proceeded to the other side of Ramla, the mountains are very lofty, and, having but a slender superficies of earth to cover their rocky prominences, are exclusively adapted to the cultivation of olive-trees, which take root in their very clefts, and hide the naked appearance they would otherwise exhibit.

'In general the country is but thinly covered with trees, and has few woods, or thickets. In the parts where there is no texture of soil, but merely a white loose sand, not a tree nor shrub is to be seen.

'To the north side of Jaffa, a small river, which empties itself into the sea, presents itself at the distance of two or three miles. It is the only one which I met with in Syria: it is probable, however, that others may have been formed, subsequently to the excursions I made into the interior, by the abundant falls of rain I have had occasion to notice.

'From the information I was able to collect, as well as from my own personal observation, I could not learn that either mines or eruptions of volcanic matter are to be met with in Syria.

'The soil in many parts, in those more especially bordering on the deserts, consists almost exclusively of a fine white sand, the reflection from which is extremely painful to the sight. This barren territory extends, to the northward, beyond Jaffa. It contains, however, in common with the other parts of Syria, several fertile spots, covered with a rich black mould, which very copiously repay the labour bestowed on them. On the rocky grounds an inconsiderable portion of calcareous earth is found blended with marl.

'Wherever the land is susceptible of cultivation, and has not been neglected, it affords abundant crops of wheat, barley, Indian corn (dourra), tobacco, cotton, and other productions. Fruits and vegetables are in equal abundance. Among the former are pomegranates, figs, oranges, lemons, citrons of an uncommonly large size, melons, grapes, and olives. The melons are large, and have a delicious flavour; as have also the grapes, of which we partook so late as the month of December, when we found they still retained their exquisite flavour. I have already adverted to the uncommon size of the water-melons, many of which weigh from twenty to thirty pounds. They are a great and valuable resource to the inhabitants, who are so passionately fond of them, that, during the summer months, they form a great part of their subsistence. Notwithstanding they are as cooling and refreshing, as grateful to the taste, I was surprised to see the natives eat them in such immoderate quantities, without experiencing any unpleasant consequences.

'Among the vegetable productions for the table may be ranged the coulcas, the okre, or bannier, the coussa, a species of gourd, the tomata, and a kind of bean which has some resemblance to our French bean. The coulcas is a root brought from Bairout, Acre, Sidon, and Damietta, which when cooked, is in taste not unlike the potatoe, from which it differs in appearance by its darker hue and less regular shape. In its raw state it is extremely acrid, and produces on the mouth and fauces, when tasted, a sensation of pricking and smarting, such as is caused, under the same circumstances, by the Arum root. It is considered by the inhabitants as a wholesome and agreeable vegetable, and, being scraped and boiled, enters into the composition of many of their dishes. The okre is a fine mucilaginous vegetable, which gives an excellent flavour to the soups.

'To the above list may be added other vegetables, the quality of which is excellent, such as cabbages, cauliflowers, spinage, lettuce, endive, turnips, cucumbers, radishes, and onions; the latter extremely mild. Both fruits and vegetables, as well as all other marketable commodities, are sold by weight.

'The grounds in Syria are in general open. Where enclosures have been attempted, they are fenced in with the prickly pear-tree.

'Numerous flocks of goats and sheep are distributed over the plains, as well as in the mountainous territory. The tails of the latter are uncommonly large, resembling those of the sheep of the Cape of Good Hope. Many of them have an extraordinary length of ear; but this observation applies still more particularly to the goats, an ear of one of which I had the curiosity to measure, and found it to be nine inches in length. The cows and oxen are small, and of a reddish

reddish hue: large herds of them are driven out in the mornings, to browze in the plains, and in those parts of the mountainous territory, where a scanty superficies of soil, spread over the rocks, affords a feeble hope of pasturage.'

From this description, it may be seen that Syria, the antient Palestine, is a country of which the vegetable productions depend much on the state of cultivation. Under a wise government and an active people, its fertility may be carried to an incalculable extent: but under the neglect which results from scanty population and despotic institutions, sterility will ensue. Hence the difference between the land of Judea in the flourishing state of the Jewish people, and the modern Syria.

Frequent examples are adduced to shew the prevalence of the plague in Syria, and of its devastating effects; yet the temperature of the air is represented as salutary: in proof of which, Dr. W. mentions 'the very rare occurrence of pulmonary diseases, as well as the numerous instances of longevity among the inhabitants, who frequently attain the age of an hundred, and, in some instances, of an hundred and ten years, and upwards. Were they in a more civilized state, and united in a social compact under a good government, they would become very numerous and powerful, the Syrian women, who marry very young, being remarkably prolific.'

The march over the desert was attended with many hardships and disasters, independently of the ravages of the plague; to which latter the Turks are extremely insensible:

'Ibrahim Bey (says Dr. W.) was positively encamped on the burial ground of El-Arish, where the bodies of several thousands of persons, who had fallen victims to that disease during the course of the last six weeks were interred. His own tent covered a part of the graves!

'This being the fourth day our unfortunate horses had passed without food, we made a strong representation in their behalf, in consequence of which a small proportion of damaged biscuit-dust and decayed rice was issued to them. To such an extremity had these animals been reduced by hunger, that they had eaten their halters, together with the dung, and whatever lay within their reach. Several of them, as well as many of the camels, had perished. Our own situation, reduced as we were to bad biscuit and water, was almost as deplorable.'

As the French, in passing the desert, have mentioned a phænomenon noticed in scripture and by antient writers, to which they have given the name of *Mirage*, we shall subjoin our countryman's account of it:

'The progress we had made on this day's march was about fifteen miles; and in pursuing our route we were gratified by the view of the surprising visual deception, which the French term *mirage*, and

which has been described with great ingenuity by Monge, of the French National Institute. It is peculiar to the desert, and presents the distant appearance of water with such an air of truth and reality, that the shadows of the camels who were in advance, seemed to be reflected on the apparent watery surface. To give a more extraordinary effect to the illusion, the bodies of these animals appeared to be narrowed and elongated upwards, so as to give them the appearance of trunks of trees, the branches of which had been lopped off. The most elevated of the distant sand hills represented light clouds; while the smaller ones appeared like ships under a press of sail in the midst of beautiful lakes. This phenomenon was more particularly apparent on the levels, which were in some parts covered with a saline substance, finely crystallized, and very shining and brilliant.'

Having lately made large extracts from books on the antiquities of Egypt, we shall not follow this writer in his visits to catacombs and pyramids: but we shall extract the particulars of a short conversation with an Abyssinian priest, which induced Dr. W. to give more credit to Mr. Bruce's accounts than they generally receive:

'On the 25th I had a particular conversation with an Abyssinian priest, recently arrived from his own country, who was about to leave Cairo for Jerusalem, from religious motives, and whose details relative to his native territory were extremely interesting. He assured me that the indigenous inhabitants still persevered in their custom of eating raw flesh, a luxury in which, however, the priests were not allowed to participate, but were, in conformity to their religious tenets, obliged to cook the meats necessary to their subsistence. He calculated that his return to Abyssinia would occupy a space of three months. In the course of our conversation it appeared that he was familiarly acquainted with many of the plants and animals, of which the celebrated Bruce has in his Travels given engravings and written descriptions. Mr. Bruce's book being at hand, the engravings, &c. were shewn to him, and he gave to the animals and other productions the names which Bruce had annexed to them. I was thus enabled to satisfy myself of the accuracy of a part of what has been so strongly questioned in the accounts which the above traveller has published.'

This evidence, however, is not conclusive, unless it can be proved that the Abyssinian had not previously seen Bruce's book.

At Cairo, the author notices the procession accompanying the sacred carpet designed for covering the house of God at Mecca:

'The procession which accompanied the camel destined to carry the cloth, or carpet, with which the caaba, or house of God, at Mecca, was to be covered, took place on the morning of the 29th, and afforded to the inhabitants of Cairo a very grand and solemn spectacle. It was preceded by the chiaous of the Vizier, who was immediately followed by the cadi, or judge, accompanied by great numbers

numbers of dervises with their sacred banners. Next followed several of the Grand Vizier's principal officers, with bands of music, and colours flying. Taher Pacha, and a considerable number of armed men, attended the procession. Green cloths, elegantly embroidered in gold with Turkish characters, were carried on biers. The camel on whose back the sacred cloth was borne, had plumes of feathers on the head, and over the body an embroidered green cloth. In passing through the streets, the inhabitants displayed a great eagerness to touch a portion of the cloth. Other camels, each of them covered with a plain green cloth, followed, with the boxes in which the treasure was to be contained. The priests, as they proceeded, chaunted hymns from the Koran; and the procession was closed by a body of armed men on horseback.'

Dr. W. appears to have been skilful and assiduous in his medical profession, and the Vizier is said to have duly expressed his obligations. He thus adverts to this circumstance:

'The labours of the British military mission acting with the Turkish army, drew at length towards a conclusion, after a series of painful, harassing, and critical events, many of which cannot, from obvious motives, meet the public eye. The patience, forbearance, and circumspection of the individuals engaged in this long and perilous service, were manifested on a variety of trying occasions, which required all the energy inherent in the British military character.

'I cannot, in justice and gratitude to his Highness, omit mentioning, though it savours a little of egotism, that the Vizier, on this occasion, did me the honour to express his acknowledgments and thanks in a letter of recommendation which he sent me, to be delivered to the English ambassador, Lord Elgin, at Constantinople, for the medical assistance which he, as well as many of his people, had received during our connection with his army.'

After the termination of the mission, Dr. Wittman departs again for Constantinople, and is subject in a sea voyage to new adventures: but we must briefly dismiss these supplemental rambles; and indeed we have already been forced to pass over numerous interesting remarks, which occur in the course of the volume, and for which we could not afford room.

Embarking March 24, 1802, on board a corvette, Dr. W. left Alexandria, and was forced by stormy weather to take refuge in the island of Castel Rosso, the antient Cistene; whence he proceeded to the islands of Rhodes, Stancho, Samos, and Scio. In the excursions of the author and his companions on this island, he says:

'We proceeded to the spot where the celebrated poet Homer is said to have kept his school. Whatever disagreements there may be among historians relative to the birth place of this extraordinary man, it seems to be generally allowed that he had chosen Scio as his residence at the time he followed the avocation of a school-master. Our road, to the north of the town, was along the

sea-shore; and after a walk of nearly two hours and a half, our guide conducted us to a rock, at a little distance from the sea, which, as we were told it contained the classic object of our visit, we ascended with a satisfaction bordering on enthusiasm. In the centre of the rock a kind of table is hewn out, behind which it is conjectured the orator was posted; and around it we perceived the remains of the seats, likewise hewn out of the rock, where the scholars are supposed to have been seated. Having procured several small fragments of the mutilated table, and of other parts of the rock, as memorials of our visit, we retired to a groupe of fine trees in the vicinity, to repose from our fatigues, and shelter ourselves from the scorching heat, beneath their shade. Near to this cluster of trees there is a fountain of cool and delicious water. It is one of the favourite retreats of the Turks and other inhabitants of the island during the warmer months. Several neat villages are interspersed on the sides of the mountains, surrounded by well cultivated enclosures of corn, vines, lentils, and other vegetable productions.'—

'From beneath the rock, which I have already described as being the site of the school of Homer, a spring of water issues, which is celebrated for its purity and medicinal properties. It is resorted to by all the valetudinarians of Scio, who ascribe to this water a diuretic quality. It is indeed so much extolled, and held in such general estimation, that large quantities of it are occasionally sent to Constantinople, for the use of the Grand Seignor and of the Seraglio. Every part of the island is supplied with delicious water, which is conveyed by aqueducts from place to place for the use of the inhabitants of the different villages.'

Hence Dr. W. shaped his course to Tenedos, on which he found fine flocks of sheep, cheap mutton, and wine of a superior quality. On the 21st of May he again arrived at the village of Buyukdere near Constantinople; quitting this place, he embarked on the Black-Sea, and proceeded up the Danube to Vienna; where he visited the cabinet of Natural History belonging to Dr. Gall, and remarks on his singular doctrine relative to the brain. Journeying through Germany and Holland, and then once more taking shipping, he landed at Harwich, July 21, 1802, full of gratitude for the protection of Divine Providence during the course of his long and perilous travels.

Subjoined are a medical Journal in Syria and Egypt, from July 1800 to March 1802, an Historical Journal of the Plague, a Paper on Ophthalmy, and a Meteorological Journal.

On the subject of the Plague, Dr. Wittman, without directly espousing any particular hypothesis, wishes his brethren of the faculty to attend to facts:

'In the most violent attacks of plague, the vital principle appears to be suddenly, in a great measure, extinguished; or otherwise so much enfeebled, as to render the system capable of resisting the first shock of the disease only for a very short time.

'Examples

'Examples of this kind occurred. Several of the sepoys of the Indian army in Egypt, and others, appeared to sink under the first impression of the contagion, their attack being sudden, instantaneous, and violent. I was informed that several dropt down when in the ranks, and died within a few hours afterwards.

'A civil artificer died after thirty six hours illness.

'A choarbadgi, or colonel of Janissaries, died at the expiration of two days, within our buildings at Cairo. The death of these two individuals was instantaneous, and without a struggle.

'The plague may be defined to be a disease *sui generis*, which can affect persons more than once in their lives; and, from a variety of circumstances, is evidently contagious.

'The most evident and leading symptoms which attend this dreadful malady, are head-ach; more or less fever; thirst; generally an intense or burning internal heat about the præcordia; nausea, and occasional vomiting; the vessels of the eyes are turgid, accompanied with diarrhœa (which is often a troublesome and dangerous symptom); hæmorrhages; delirium; petechiæ, and large livid spots cover the body in different parts; buboes in the groin, axillæ, &c.; carbuncles; an early and great prostration of strength, &c. &c.

'Sometimes the disease is ushered in suddenly and violently; at others the symptoms commence more slowly, and with more moderation. This variety and manner in the mode of attack may probably depend upon some particular disposition or constitution of the subject, or nature of the prevailing epidemic.

'Upon the decline of the plague season, several patients are seen to recover: the symptoms of the disease at this period are more moderate, and favourable to recovery. We had examples of this kind while with the Ottoman army at Jaffa, &c. in Syria. The same fact is observed at Constantinople. Although it has been noticed that the plague does not frequently attack the same person more than once in the same pestiferous season, yet there are instances where this has happened, and where the relapses which have occurred have proved fatal.'—

'It is generally remarked, that a deviation from a light diet under this disease, and after its recent disappearance, is frequently productive of mischief, in as much as it favours a relapse, or protracts recovery.

'The danger is proportioned to the diminution of vital energy, and extent of fever. Deaths happen from the first to the seventh, and even eleventh days of the disease; the most frequent from the fourth to the eleventh day: yet fatal terminations occur often at the expiration of twelve or twenty-four hours. Among the youths and middle aged there is said to be the greatest number of deaths.'—

'From all that one has seen and heard, it would appear either that the virus of plague does not always possess the same activity and force, or that certain persons are occasionally insusceptible of its action: and also, that from the sudden appearance as well as termination of the disease, the necessity of some powerful agent is implied to put the contagion into action, and give it its full force, as well as to destroy its effects when present, leaving, however, a sufficiency of the contagious

contagious principle latent within the country, to propagate the disease, whenever such circumstances shall favour its action, and call it forth, without having recourse to the annual generation of fresh matter, or virus, as necessary to account for the re appearance of disease at each plague season.

'May it be imagined that this agent resides in the atmosphere? But whether this peculiar constitution of the air consists in a superabundance, or in a diminution of the ordinary proportion of oxygene in the atmosphere, or in the combination of some peculiar gas, or gasses, diffused in it; or whether the whole may be brought about by variations of temperature only, connected with moisture or dryness of the air, I must confess my inability to determine. Time alone may unfold this mystery. Indeed, a series of eudiometrical and other observations, continued for several years, at the different places in the country, might possibly throw some light upon the subject.

'I am much disappointed to find that so little light has been thrown on plague by the results of the French practitioners in Egypt.

'I should have been happy if, after several years residence in a pestiferous country, where I constantly searched for useful information, my labours had been rewarded in the discovery of an improved, or more successful treatment of plague. No such happiness has attended me; and as my own experience is, I think, too limited to presume to lay down a plan of cure, I must in preference content myself in the relation of the experiments and practice of others, which came to my knowledge while in the country.

'For my own part, a prompt and early use of remedies appears to me of the utmost importance: indeed, the interval between the seizure and death is frequently so very short, that the trial for remedies is very limited. I treated the several cases which fell under my care, as far as it was practicable, in the manner adopted in fevers of the malignant kind, with this difference, that in the second case I conjoined the trial of oily frictions. Although I cannot venture to speak generally of the treatment of this disease, yet I would hazard an opinion, that where proper establishments are formed for the reception of pestiferous patients, with proper attendants, a cautious and fair trial of mercury and the oxygenated remedies would merit attention.

'The practice of a Venetian doctor, who lately died in Cairo, and who was much celebrated for his professional skill and prognosis in plague, was, first to bleed, but never after the expiration of thirty-six hours from attack. He administered large doses of camphor, and gave the patient a lump of it to hold constantly in the hand. He attended much to diet; gave rice water, chicken broth, boiled cucumbers, lettuces, &c. and, as a cordial, occasional small quantities of a diluted spirit; but always forbade wine. He entertained the opinion that a certain disposition or susceptibility in the patient was necessary to the reception of the disease.

'A free perspiration has been generally found useful; copious perspirations are the sensible effects of the oily frictions, and are excited without distress or inconvenience to the suffering sick. 'Our

'Our interpreter, who was seized at El-Arish with plague before the Vizier's army arrived there, was seen and treated by a Turkish doctor, who had great confidence in a strong spirit which is distilled with aniseeds, and is in the country called rackey. He administered this spirit repeatedly and liberally in the day time to his patient; whose symptoms of plague were accompanied by a large carbuncle formed in the side, and a bubo in the axilla. As soon as I saw him, I recommended the bark liberally to him, and cataplasms to be applied to the sore in the side, which was very extensive from the repeated sloughings that had occurred since the opening of the carbuncle. One of the eyes was severely inflamed, and it was long before he recovered his perfect intellects as well as his sight.

'The partial and unsteady manner in which plague patients appeared to be treated among the Turks, I confess afforded but little chance of success in the removal of the disease.

'Bleeding, as a remedy in plague, has been the subject of much dispute among celebrated physicians. While at Jaffa, it was the practice of the Venetian doctors to make use of blood letting. Many patients died suddenly after the operation: the deaths appeared hastened by the evacuation of blood.

'The indiscriminate employ of bleeding may be of serious consequences in weakening those natural powers of the system which might be usefully exerted to the subduction of disease.

'I used the oily frictions in the manner recommended and adopted by Mr. Baldwin, late English consul at Alexandria.

'A typhus patient evidently derived great benefit from the use of the oily frictions. The result of my observations and practice with the oil induces me to hope it will be found useful as a preventive. I repeatedly recommended the frictions with oil to the Turks, but all to no purpose. While their prejudices continue, it will be in vain to attempt reform, or to annihilate the disease from among them. At Smyrna they continue to use the oil in plague, and it is said that this mode of treatment is more efficacious than any other. The merchants, however, from whom I collected this account, observe, that the proportional success with the oil is not every year the same. Sometimes the half and more of the infected are saved, at other times not more than a fifth or sixth.'

The paper on Ophthalmy contains many judicious remarks: for which, considering the length of this article, we must refer to the work itself.

This volume is decorated by handsome coloured portraits, exhibiting the costume of the East, (among which is one of the Sultan himself,) views of places, a frontispiece representing the march of the Ottoman Army across the Desert, various maps, and a fac-simile of a Turkish Firman or Passport.

On the whole, the public must feel themselves much obliged to Dr. W. for making them partakers in a gratification which was originally intended only for the circle of his particular friends.

Art.

ART. II. *Daphnis and Chloe*, a Pastoral Novel, now first selectly Translated into English from the original Greek of Longus. 12mo. pp. 265. 4s. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

THE anonymous author of this version of Longus has done great justice to the elegant original, not only in what he has translated, but in what he has omitted. Longus was a writer of a genius truly pastoral; and both the terseness of his style and the charming simplicity of the rural life, which he describes, contribute to delight the reader:—but it must be lamented that this author shares the general character of the *erotici scriptores* of the first centuries of our æra, whether Greek or Latin, in the unchaste freedoms and familiarities of the manners which they depict. It would be well if the same censure did not attach to too many writers of this kind in later times, whether in our own country or on the continent. The present translator has judiciously omitted whatever might be thought to sully the beauty of this pastoral tale; and, on comparing it with the original, we have great reason for commending his industry and his talents. Although he does not render the Greek, "*verbum verbo fidus*," yet, which is much more to be desired, he generally preserves the sense and spirit of the author; and in some respects, we think that he has done this very happily; as in the expression borrowed from Bloomfield's Farmer's Boy, "wily antics" of the flocks, for "σκιρτήματα ποιμνίων." * We extract the passage, as a specimen of the merits of the translation, and as it may convey an idea of the simplicity and elegance of Longus:

'It was the beginning of spring.—Through the woods, the meadows, and the mountains, the flowers were shooting forth amid the buzzing murmurs of the bee, the song of birds, and the "wily antics" of the sheep.—The sheep were skipping on the mountains, the bees flew buzzing through the meadows, and the songs of the birds resounded through the bushes.—The tender and susceptible minds of Daphnis and the young shepherdess were inspired with the gaiety of the season: they felt alive to every impression and imitated in sportive sympathy whatever they saw or heard. Hearing the carol of the birds, they sung: seeing the playful skipping of the lambs, they danced: and in imitation of the bees they gathered flowers; some of which they placed carelessly in their bosoms, and others they wove into chaplets and carried them as offerings to the Nymphs.

'They tended their flocks and herds together, and all their occupations were in common to each other. Daphnis frequently collected the sheep, that had strayed, and when a goat had ventured too boldly near a precipice Chloe drove it away. Sometimes one

* Some objectionable phrases, however, have escaped correction; such as 'the Dolphin lay *right* in his path,' p. 165.

took

took the entire management of the pastoral concerns, while the other was engaged in some amusement.

'The usual sports of youth were their common diversion, Chloe neglected her flock to range about in search of flowers, whose stalks she twisted into traps for butterflies; while Daphnis played sweetly from morn till eve upon his Pan's pipe, which he had formed of reeds by perforating the smooth part between the joints, and by glueing them together with soft wax. They made a common banquet of the milk, wine, and food which they brought from home as provision for the day: and you might sooner see one part of the flock divided from the other than Daphnis separate from Chloe.'

Another passage will display some of the accomplishments of Daphnis:

'On the fourth day Dion and Clearista arrived. Their train of male and female servants, and the pack horses, which carried their baggage, occasioned no inconsiderable noise and confusion. The hair of Dion was half grey, but he was tall and handsome; and in strength few young men were able to excel him. In riches he had not many equals, in virtues he had none. On the first day of his arrival he sacrificed to the deities of the place, to Ceres, to Bacchus, to Pan, and to the Nymphs, and poured out one common libation to them all. The next day he amused himself with viewing the ploughs at work in the fields, the vines, whose thick clusters remained ungathered, and the garden in high beauty. Astylus took the blame about the flowers on himself, so that his father upon the whole was highly delighted, praised Lamon exceedingly, and promised to give him his freedom. After viewing the farm he went to see the herds, and their young herdsman.

'Chloe fled to the woods: she was ashamed to appear before so many strangers, and was terrified at so large a company. Daphnis stood still: a shaggy goat-skin served him for a coat, a new-made script was suspended on his shoulder, in one hand he held a cheese, that had just been pressed, and in the other a sucking kid. If ever Apollo tended the herds of Laomedon; such as Apollo must *then* have been, Daphnis was *now*. He never opened his lips, but crimsoned with blushes bowed to the ground, and presented his offerings. "This, Sir, (said Lamon) is the young man who has taken care of your goats. Fifty she goats, and two he goats were the number, which I received from you: this youth has increased the former to an hundred, and the latter to ten. Observe how whole their horns are, and how fat and sleek their bodies appear.—He has made them quite musical;—for all their actions are regulated by the pipe."

'Clearista, who was present, and heard what was said, expressed a wish to see a specimen of what he asserted, and desired Daphnis to pipe to his goats in his usual manner, promising him for his pains a coat and waistcoat, and a new pair of sandals. Daphnis desired the company to sit round, and placed them so as to form a little theatre; he then stood under the shade of a beech tree, took his pipe from his scrip, and just breathed into the reeds. The goats

hearing the sound stood still, and lifted up their heads.—Now he played the tune, that usually soothes them while they feed: they all put down their heads, and began to nibble the grass. Now he blew some notes of a soft and sweeter tone:—all his herd at once laid down. He suddenly changed to a sharper key, and they ran off to the wood, as if a wolf was in sight.—After a short interval he played the melody, that bids them return:—they darted from their covert, ran to his feet, and skipped around him.—Few domestic servants obey their master so well.—Clearista promised to reward the beautiful and musical goat-herd: all the company were surprized at his skill, but she was particularly astonished. The party now returned to the cottage, sat down to dinner, and sent Daphnis part of what was on the table.

'Daphnis invited Chloe to partake, and was delighted with the viands, that had been prepared by a city cook. The flattering prospect, which now opened to him, of success in his marriage suit put him in high spirits; and it was impossible to see a finer youth, than he now appeared. His air and mien were those of a freeman rather than a slave. "His hyacinthine locks in clusters parted," and his eyes shone under his eyebrows like gems set in gold. His face was suffused with the red blush of health, and his mouth displayed teeth as white as ivory. If Venus loved Anchises, well might Chloe love Daphnis.'

The present editor makes no mention of former English versions of this author, neither that of Craigs in the middle of the last century, nor that of George Thornley in the year 1657. As we have not their performances at hand, we are not able to speak of the comparative merits of the three translators: but it is sufficient that we have compared the present with the Greek, and find it the work of a scholar and a man of taste. Since Longus abounds in imitations of the antients, this version might have been set forth with much more of pomp and the garb of learning: but the modesty of the editor appears to have induced him to prefer the humble form of a little novel. Who Longus was, and whether the 5th century be the period justly assigned to him, are very uncertain points. We only know that the manuscript is one of the many which took refuge at Florence, when the capital of the East was surrendered to Mohammed the 2d in 1453. The critical reader will perhaps be struck with the resemblance between Gesner's pastoral romance of Daphnis, and the pastoral of Longus; and he will probably be led to inquire whether Gesner has not borrowed more from this source, which he conceals, than from the Idyllia of Theocritus, which he professes to have imitated.

The translator proposes, if this work should be favourably received, (and we doubt not that it will be so,) to give a version of the Ethiopics of Heliodorus. When freed from certain vicious blandishments, which the discrimination of this editor

editor would undoubtedly expunge, that highly poetical tale is to be valued for inculcating several moral truths of importance. Theagenes is indeed a second Joseph under the solicitations of vice, while the constancy of Chariclea affords a pattern of female virtue; and there is true poetry in "the zone of Chariclea," and in other passages. Perhaps, however, it is not known to the translator that an English version of this romance appeared a few years since, under the title of "The adventures of Theagenes and Chariclea." See Rev. Vol. vii. N. S. p. 352.

ART. III. *Letters on the Study and Use of Antient and Modern History:* containing Observations and Reflections on the Causes and Consequences of those Events which have produced conspicuous Changes in the Aspect of the World, and the general State of Human Affairs. By John Bigland. 12mo. pp. 520. 6s. Boards. Williams, &c. 1804.

THE candid historian, who proposes to exhibit to his readers a genuine picture of the period of which he treats, will avoid, as far as it may be possible, all theoretical discussion and minute investigation into the springs of human action. He will content himself with a simple statement of events; accompanied with as faithful a delineation as his materials allow, both of the characters of distinguished individuals, and of the prominent features of the age.—The *reader* of history, on the contrary, treads a wider and more flowery path. The mere enumeration of facts and dates, of bloody battles and protracted sieges, or even the treasured remembrance of serious or amusing anecdotes, form but a partial and subordinate occupation for him. His office is to apply his knowlege of the past, to the examination of both the causes and consequences of curious and interesting events, to make improving reflections on the vicissitudes of human affairs; to observe the never-failing tendency of certain modes of conduct, in promoting or undermining the prosperity of nations and individuals; and, from a judicious combination of reflections and inquiries, to furnish his mind with important lessons of political, moral, and religious wisdom.

This is the proper business of the reader of history, as far as his ability and opportunities admit. It is, however, essential in the mean time to give a just direction to this faculty of reflection and retrospection, especially in the younger student; to point out proper objects for his notice; and to lead him gradually to exercise a much neglected talent,—the art of *think-*

ing for himself. It is on this account that we consider a judicious survey of the History of the World, if it point out the principal outlines which merit the student's attention, and be also accompanied with remarks of such a nature as we have described above, as a very useful and valuable acquisition; and it gives us great pleasure to observe, that this desirable end is very successfully promoted in the collection of letters now before us.

Mr. Bigland displays in this volume a well cultivated and comprehensive mind. His style is generally correct though not highly polished; his information is extensive; and the many pertinent remarks and inferences, with which he has inriched this summary of general history, meet our cordial approbation. We do not, however, conceive with the author that a work of this nature, however ably it may be executed, is calculated to furnish the uninformed reader with any material stock of historical information. It is true that history abounds with a great portion of matter which is of little comparative importance: but without somewhat more of circumstantial detail than the narrow compass of a single volume allows, it cannot be expected that more than a slight and transient impression should be made on those readers to whom the events, which are cursorily mentioned, are altogether new:—but for those, who have previously made themselves acquainted with historical subjects, a general review of this nature will become a valuable memorial: particularly as it suggests so copious a train of important reflections, whether they are regarded in a political or a *religious* point of view. In the latter respect, every serious and liberal Christian will reap great satisfaction from these letters. Perhaps, in what is remarked on Plato's philosophy, we should arrive at a different conclusion with regard to the similarity of his tenets on certain points with those of our church: but, in general, we have the pleasure of coinciding with the author in his remarks.

This summary is arranged in chronological order, and divided into ten distinct periods:

'Of which the first includes the whole space of time from the earliest records to the subversion of the Babylonian monarchy; the second contains the space between the establishment of the Persian empire, by Cyrus, and its overthrow by Alexander; the third comprises the time which elapsed from the reign of Alexander to the coming of Christ; and the fourth begins at the Christian æra, and ends at the elevation of Constantine to the sovereignty of the Roman empire; the reign of that prince, on account of its singular importance and conspicuous effects, is distinctly considered as the fifth period; from the death of Constantine to the final subversion of the empire constitutes the sixth period; the seventh begins at the subversion of the

Roman empire, and continues to the reign of Charlemagne; the eighth begins at the death of Charlemagne, and continues till the fifteenth century, which was peculiarly characterized by the revival of letters, the invention of printing, the discovery of America, the extension of commerce, &c., the ninth comprehends that age of enterprise and adventure which begins at the middle of the fifteenth, and continues to near the end of the sixteenth century; and the tenth period commences from that important æra, and exhibits a general view of modern times.'

The letters are twenty three in number; and although some of them are of considerable length, the reader will find no occasion to make that circumstance a subject of complaint. A copious list of the contents of each is prefixed to the work, and will prove an useful remembrance after the perusal of a letter; serving not only to imprint the reflections on the reader's mind, but as a clue to guide him to the consideration of the subject in a more ample manner at his own leisure.

In the 15th letter, we meet with these remarks on the merits and defects of Constantinople as the seat of empire; which our readers may combine with Dr. Wittman's description of that city, as extracted in the first article of this Review:

'If we consider, not only the geographical position, but also the topographical situation of Constantinople, with the beautiful and picturesque arrangement of the land and water which form its environs, we shall easily be convinced of the eligibility of its situation, and of the preference due to it when compared with that of Rome. They are both in a temperate climate, Rome being situated in 41°. 50′, North latitude; and Constantinople in 41°, 10′, North latitude. Constantinople is situated on an elevated ground, consisting of gently swelling eminences, rising like terraces one above another, without any of those deep valies which separate the seven hills on which Rome is situated; and which, together with the marshes adjoining to the Tyber, render the air unwholesome. The city was laid out in a triangular form, and filled the triangle formed by the harbour, the Bosphorus, and the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora. The harbour, on the north side of the city, is secure and capacious, being five hundred yards wide at its entrance, from the Bosphorus, and runs seven miles into the land. From the Euxine sea to the Seraglio point, the whole length of the Bosphorus extends about 18 miles, and its ordinary breadth about a mile and half; but in many places somewhat broader, and in some much narrower, with several beautiful windings. In sailing up the Propontis towards Constantinople, the most enchanting prospects charm the eye of the Navigator, who, from every part of that sea, may discover the high lands of either Thrace or Bythinia, and never loses sight of Mount Olympus, till at last the city itself, rising from the strand, attracts his view, and exhibits the most magnificent appearance. Constantinople may, by its situation, command the commerce of the vast regions of the North, by means of the Euxine sea, and the rivers Don and Dnieper, which

discharge themselves into it. By the streight of the Hellespont, which forms the communication between the Propontis and the Mediterranean, as the Bosphorus opens a passage from the Euxine sea to the Propontis, it is equally well situated for the trade of the south and west; and when Egypt is under its dominion, its position is extremely advantageous in respect of the trade to India and the eastern coasts of Africa. In fine, geographers commonly tell us, that Constantinople is the most eligible situation for commerce that can any where be found; and when we cast our eyes upon the map, its geographical position seems to indicate the same. We may, however, be imposed on by unqualified descriptions, and general appearances. Geographers, as well as historians, are not always correct; and the omission of one single circumstance will sometimes alter very much the description, as the want, or the distortion, of one single object, changes materially the appearance of the picture or landscape. The situation of Constantinople, considered in a commercial point of view, has one great defect, and is, in that respect, much inferior to London, Lisbon, and several other ports. The length of the Hellespont is not less than sixty miles, and its ordinary breadth not more than three miles, but in many places much narrower. A strong current sets through the Bosphorus, the Propontis, and the Hellespont, from the Euxine sea, into the Grecian Archipelago, and a strong north wind often blows in that region during several months; which, together with a strong current setting in the same direction, through so narrow a streight, sometimes renders Constantinople, for a long time together, almost inaccessible, to vessels coming from the Mediterranean. Those ports, which are situated on the ocean, or on large rivers, which have an immediate communication with it, have a great advantage over those which are situated on the inland seas; such as the Mediterranean, Euxine, Baltic, &c. or on the rivers which fall into them, in having the tides to facilitate the approach and entrance of vessels, in case of a calm or contrary winds; whereas the latter, in similar cases, possess not that advantage; and if a strong wind sets in the same direction with a strong current, their aggregate force is so great, that it is almost impossible to make head against it. This is the great disadvantage of the commercial situation of Constantinople, which the strong north winds, that often blow in those parts, the rapid current always setting from the Euxine, and the long and narrow streight of the Hellespont, all combine, at certain times, to render almost unapproachable. It must, however, be granted, that Constantinople enjoys an excellent commercial situation, although not the best that can be found, as it has been often asserted. Its position was also the most eligible that Constantine could have chosen for his new capital, it being a most commanding post for repelling the attacks of the enemies of the empire, and almost unequalled in regard to the amenity and beauty of its situation.'

In the 10th letter the interesting state of religion, after the death of Constantine, is considered in various and improving lights. Among others, the author's reflections on the nature and use of monastic institutions arrested our attention in this letter,

letter, because we find him at least a *restricted* apologist for seminaries which have often provoked our censure. There is some truth in his plea, but it is also open to many observations in reply; and it is obvious that he speaks of them rather as what they were *ostensibly*, or what they *might be*, than as what they too generally *were in reality*. Connected with the same subject, is the succeeding remark.

'The exorbitant elevation of the church was a natural consequence of the circumstances of the middle ages. In this enlightened age nothing can appear more shocking, or more abhorrent, from the universal feelings of human nature, than this spiritual usurpation; but if we dispassionately consider the circumstances of the times, and the state of the human mind, in the ages we are now contemplating, it will be found, not only consistent with the condition of mankind, throughout the Christian world at that time, but also, perhaps, better adapted to the then existing circumstances of Europe, than we are, upon a superficial view, inclined to imagine. For the general benefit of society, a very extensive power must be lodged in the hands of some of its members; and if we consider how few, in those dark ages, were endowed with abilities and learning requisite for conducting the great affairs of human society, we must allow, that the clergy were the persons best qualified for that important undertaking. This could not fail of giving an extraordinary influence and power to that order; and it is not the nature of man lightly to cast away that power which he sees naturally thrown into his hands. Whatever we may think at this day, when the circumstances of Europe have experienced so happy a change, if we contemplate, without passion or prejudice, the times of ignorance and barbarism, which, during the space of seven or eight centuries after the subversion of the Roman empire, overspread the face of Europe; perhaps it might be conducive to the benefits and tranquillity of society, that, in those times of tumult and anarchy, so great a portion of power fell into the hands of an order of men, to whom the sacred name and authority of religion ensured the veneration and obedience of a turbulent, but superstitious people; perhaps it might even have been necessary to the existence of Christianity, during so many ages of barbarism and unlettered ignorance. The counsels of Divine Providence are unsearchable, and far above our comprehension; but whatever disorders may, to our short-sighted capacities, seem to prevail in the divine government of the moral, as well as physical world, there is no doubt but that all events coincide with perfect harmony in the universal plan.'

We have sometimes been disposed to think, with this author, that the religious establishments of those days of darkness were necessary to 'the very existence of Christianity' at that period: our readers will recollect the sensible remarks of Dr. Jortin on this point; and perhaps we may add that the very superstitions and subtle disquisitions of churchmen on mysterious points of doctrine all conspired, if we may so express

it, to *inshrine the truth*, and to keep alive the embers which were destined in happier days to be again "a light to lighten the world."

We shall conclude our extracts with the writer's remarks on the Reformation:

'On contemplating the effects of the Reformation, in another point of view, we shall, however, perceive that this remarkable event, after the first commotions it occasioned had subsided, contributed in no small degree to the improvement of the human mind, not only by setting it free from the uncontrolable authority formerly exercised over it by spiritual judges, but also by the profound and learned investigations which arose from those religious disputes; as in every subject of disquisition the collision of opposite opinions strikes out new sparks of genius, and affords new lights to the inquisitive mind. Difficult investigations of complicated subjects, by exercising the mental faculties, ripen and invigorate the understanding. Things are viewed in new lights in which they would never have been seen, had they not been brought forward to distinct inspection by this kind of mental process, and appear with a train of dependent images, with which they would not otherwise have been seen in connection. Whenever any question appears so interesting as to become a subject of general investigation and inquiry, reading and conversation furnish new ideas, which reflection arranges and combines. Thus are new combinations formed in the mind, by which the sphere of human knowledge is enlarged, and its objects multiplied. The watchful eye of opposition, ever prone to censure the conduct and expose the faults of adversaries, also rendered the clergy of the different parties and sects of Christians more circumspect and regular in their morals than before those divisions took place. It was, indeed, absolutely necessary, that the clergy of every denomination of Christians should regulate their moral conduct in consistency with their sacred character, in order to avoid exposing themselves, and their party, to the contempt and censure of their opponents; a degree of circumspection, of which they would not, perhaps, have so sensibly felt the necessity, if there had been no adversary, whose censure they might apprehend. And it is a fact, which scarcely any one will call in question, that the clergy of the whole Christian church are both more learned, and more pious, than they would have been if those divisions had never taken place. Difference in religious opinions, among men, is a circumstance which appears inevitable. Those persons who never think, may, indeed, silently and supinely acquiesce in any opinion proposed to their belief; and the bulk of mankind assent to doctrines, which they cannot with propriety be said to believe, because they have never once bestowed a thought on them, nor ever endeavoured to ascertain their truth; but, it appears absolutely impossible, that thinking persons should all think alike on any complicated subject, especially on subjects of abstract speculation, which cannot be brought under the inspection of the senses. The diversity of opinion on the subject of religion, could not, however, be productive of any bad effects, if men, in exercising freedom of conscience themselves, would allow

allow to others the same privilege; but it is a melancholy circumstance, that the diabolical spirit of intolerance, and religious persecution, has not been peculiar to one single party or sect, but has insinuated itself into almost every system of religion. Those who most of all declaim against persecution, when they themselves are the objects of it, seldom make any scruple of exercising it against others; and whenever they see themselves possessed of power, soon find a pretext for imposing those restraints upon others which they so bitterly complain of themselves. But however men may deceive themselves, all pretexts of advancing the glory of God or the interests of religion, by intolerant measures, are nugatory. God knows the weakness and incapacity of his finite creatures, the nature and extent of our intellectual powers, and the contracted limits of human comprehension, and looks with a compassionate eye on those errors which originate in a mistake of the judgment only and not in any perverseness of the will. Ought then presumptuous man to snatch the balance of justice from the hand of his Maker, and exercise cruelty and oppression in the name of the God of mercy and love; and ought not the arrogant usurpers of the divine prerogative to apprehend the most dreadful punishments? The present age, however, happily displays a prospect very different from the scenes exhibited in the days of fanaticism and religious bigotry; and the different sects and denominations of Christians, if they disagree in the minutiæ of opinion, or the ceremonial part of religion, agree in a liberality of sentiment, and a spirit of religious toleration, unparalleled in any former period.'

What enlightened mind will not heartily concur in these just and liberal reflections! If our limits permitted, we could with pleasure proceed to state the author's views of America, and the probable effects which the discovery of that new world may ultimately produce: but it is time for us to close our remarks, together with the interesting volume which has excited them.

ART. IV. *Gleanings in England;* descriptive of the Countenance, Mind, and Character of the Country. With near Views of Peace and War. By Mr. Pratt. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 674. 12s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1803.

SCORNING to be 'a mere brick and mortar traveller,' Mr. Pratt does not glean up in his rambles any of the ordinary notices respecting the architecture, dimensions, &c. of public buildings. Mind and Character are the curiosities after which he seeks; and all that memory, reading, or reflection can furnish, is employed either as web or woof in his literary loom: for it must be observed that this gentleman is not a mere gleaner, but makes ample use of the materials which he collects. On former occasions, (see M. R. Vols. xiii. xxi. and xxxvi. N. S.) we have given our opinion of Mr. Pratt's merits

as

as a writer, and of the distinguishing character of these Gleanings. He continues, *qualis ab incepto*, to be entertaining, though often too diffuse; and to be successful in exciting our tender feelings, though forgetful that protracted pleasure terminates in something that is not pleasing. Could he learn to compress, and not "spin out the eternal theme, as he the fatal spinners would outspin," we apprehend that his works would be more acceptable to his readers; and we suggest this hint to his consideration with no malevolence of criticism, but with the purest view of contributing to his still farther utility; for Mr. Pratt is one of those writers who endeavour to speak to the heart, and to disseminate those virtues which constitute at once the glory and the felicity of social Man.

The first of the series of letters which form this 3d and last volume of Gleanings in England is dated from St. Ives, Huntingdonshire; near to which place the author's father resided, and 'kept a pack of hounds.' In this letter, a number of sonnets are included; the first of which, *On a Prospect of the Author's Birth-place*, we shall transcribe:

'Scenes of my boyish days—yet scenes of woe!—
From cradled childhood up to manhood bloom!
At my approach, why do my eyes o'erflow,
As if in grief to meet was *still* our doom?

'Yet why—tho' half involv'd in shades of night,
Dim thro' the river's mist thy spire appears,—
Impatient do I strain my aching sight,
Eager to own each object thro' my tears?

'And as thy well remember'd bridge I gain,
And draw more near, alas! my natal earth—
Tho' faster fall the drops - tho' sharp the pain,
I hail my birth-place, tho' I weep my birth.

'Ah, tender tears, which tender thoughts impart,
And leave no room for malice in my heart!'

Passing from Woodhurst to Warboys, Mr. Pratt introduces the reader to a mole-catcher, formerly his father's huntsman; thus sketching the man, and the hut which serves him for a daily retirement:

'Reared of turfs, on a few poles by way of pillars, and here and there a rude lath to fence the sides and to form the door-way, behold a sort of hermit-seeming hovel. Yet it is not the abode of an Anchorite: it is the daily retirement of a little social old man, aged eighty-eight years*, whose name is John Grounds. He has fol-

'* A few days previously to the revision of this page for the press, the Author heard that the person here alluded to, is still living, which advances his age to ninety three; and still in the enjoyment of health.'

lowed

lowed the occupation of a mole-catcher above thirty of those years, gaining from the parish the sum of two pence for the capture of each mole; and, so uninterrupted has been his health, that he has not been prevented in his employment more than thrice in the whole of that long space of time; though the walk from his cottage at Warboys to his turf hovel on the moor, is a full English league: and most of his time passed upon marshy land amidst humidity and vapours. Yet how few people who live in the air of a palace, and in the bosom of luxury, can vie with our poor Fenlander in all that makes life desirable—health, spirits, and content.

'But having shewn you his place of business by day, I will reconduct you to the hut where he has passed the nights of those thirty years in unbroken repose; and as we bend our way to the spot, I will present you with a true portrait of the man, and a brief sketch of his family and of his adventures.

'John Grounds, about sixty years preceding the date of this letter, had been a follower of my father's hounds, and distinguished himself as a lover of the sport, to partake which he would bound over the interposing fields, hedges, and ditches, with almost the speed, and more than the spirit of the hounds themselves, upon the first summons of the bugle horn. This early activity recommended him to the notice of the huntsman, who preferred him to the whipperinship, then vacant; and having, in this office, acquitted himself much to the satisfaction of the 'Squire, and of the pack, which, as he used to say, "all loved him to a dog," he was elevated, on the removal of his first patron, to another appointment, even to the entire command of the kennel: a situation which he filled for many years with great dignity and reputation. And, although it was not till late in his reign, that I was of sufficient age to form any personal opinion of those atchievements which, to the enthusiasts of the field of sports, are reckoned as important as any which are appreciated by heroes of another description, in the field of battle: (and perhaps with more reason, certainly with less criminality, considering the general causes of war,) I was old enough before he resigned the canine sceptre, to attest, that his government exhibited that happy mixture of fortitude and moderation, encouraging the true, correcting the false, paying honour to the sagacious, and rearing up the young and thoughtless to steady excellence, at the same time punishing the babbler, and teaching the ignorant. And I remember I even then thought, that poor John Grounds might furnish no mean model, whereby to form those who are destined to rule a more disorganized and extensive empire; and how often has this idea since occurred to me, as I traced back the events of my boyish days. That simple monarch of my father's kennel, thought I, might come forth in the blameless majesty of dominion, and dictate wisdom to ministers and kings. The only poetical work which my father seemed truly to enjoy, was Somerville's fine poem of the "Chace," and often meeting it in my way, I perused and repertused it with avidity; not so much from any love of its glorious subject, as my father often called it, nor because I caught any thing of the spirit which the music of the hounds and of the horn is said to inspire, for I was extremely degenerate in that respect; but because I seemed

to be led over hills and dales, and scoured the plains, and followed the echoes through their woods, and brushed the dew, and passed the stream, in company and under conduct of the Muses. These appeared to shew me the hare, her velocity, and her energy, without worrying her. In numbers more harmonious than the sounds, which were reverberated from the hills or thickets, these tuneful associates brought every thing of beauty and of sense to my mind's eye: and in reciting aloud different passages, that painted the loveliness of early morn, the fragrance of nature, the sagacity of the dog, and the pride of the horse, I was not seldom praised by my dear father, who thought me at length a convert to the joys and honours of the chace, when in effect, I was only animated by the charms of verse; and I was complimented for my feelings being congenial with the sportsman, when in truth, I was in raptures only with the poet.

'As time warned my father of the necessity of relinquishing the vehement exercise connected with these diversions, John Grounds passed with a fair character into the service of Lady St John, of Bletsoe, as her ladyship's gamekeeper: in which office he remained, in "goodly favour and liking," as he expressed it, till the sorrowful day of her death. After this he married, and lived well pleased, till his first wife's decease: but he found the holy estate so happy, that he entered upon it again; and jocosely now advises his second dame not to give him another opportunity, for fear the third time should not be so favourable.

'His mole catching is united with the occupation of bird-frighter, in those parts of the year when the feathered plunderers assault the corn and fruits: or when, as their poetical advocate observed "the birds of Heaven assert their right to and vindicate their grain." But, "poor fools," would Grounds often say; "I sometimes think they have as good a right to a plumb, or a cherry, or a wheat ear, as any Christian person; and so I seldom pop at them with any thing but powder; and that more for the pleasure of hearing the noise of a gun than to do any execution; except, now and then, indeed, I let fly at a rascally old kite, who would pounce upon cherry and bird too, and carry off one of my chicks into the bargain, if it lay in his way.

"And when I *do* try my hand at a thief, I am not often wide of my mark," cried the old man, in a late interview; "I can still give him a leaden luncheon, when I have a mind to it. Now and then too, a carrion crow, with a murrain to him, and a long-necked heron, with a fish in his mouth, goes to pot: but some how, I don't relish fixing my trap for these poor soft creatures! (taking one from the mole bag slung over his shoulders) they look so comfortable, and feel so sleek and silky; and when they lie snugly under the earth, little think, poor souls! what a bait I have laid for them, seeing I cover the mumble-stick with fresh sod so slyly, there seems to be no trap at all. Though they turn up the ground, to be sure, and rootle, like so many little hogs; and for that matter, do a power of mischief: and as for blindness, 'none are so blind, as they who won't see, your honour' These fellows know a trap as well as I do, and can see my tricks as plain as I can see their's: and sometimes they

they lead me a fine dance from hillock to hedge, with a murrain to them! pass through my traps, and after turning up an acre of ground, sometimes in a single night give me the slip at last."

'But it is time to look at the portrait of the man. And lo! seated on a brown bench, cut in the wall within the chimney place, in a corner of yon rude cottage, he presents himself to your view. Behold his still ruddy cheeks, his milk white locks, partly curled, and partly strait—see how correctly they are separated in the middle, almost to the equal division of a hair—a short pipe in his mouth—his dame's hand folded in his own—a jug of smiling beer warming in the wood ashes—a cheerful blaze shining upon two happy old countenances, in which, though you behold the indent of many furrows, they have been made by age, no sorrow—the good sound age of health, without the usual infirmities of long life—exhibiting precisely the unperceived decay so devoutly to be wished. On the matron's knee, sits a purring cat: at the veteran's foot, on the warm hearth, sleeps an aged hound, of my father's breed in the direct line of unpolluted descent: or "a true chip of the old block," as John phrased it; and who, by its frequent and quick-repeated whaffle, or demi bark, seems to be dreaming of the chace—an antique gun is pendent over the chimney—a spinning wheel occupies the vacant corner by the second brown bench: and a magpie, with closed eyes, and his bill nestled under his wing, is at profound rest in his wicker cage. To close the picture, the mole bag, half filled with the captives of the day, thrown into a chair, on which, observe, a kitten has clambered, and is in the act of playing with one of the soft victims, which it has contrived to purloin from the bag, for its pass-time: while the frugal, but sprightly light, from the well stirred fargot, displays on the mud, but clean walls, many a time embrowned ditty, as well moral as professional; such as "God rest you, merry Gentlemen,"—"The Morning is up and the Cry of the Hounds"—"The Sporstman's Delight"—"Chevy Chace,"—and "The Jolly Huntsman."

'Such, exactly, were persons and place, as, in one of my visits of unfading remembrance of good old folks, whom I had known in early days, I walked to Warboys, and surveyed its famous wood and fen.'

Warboys introduces a long history and dissertation on *old* Witches: but, as the nation at large is now of opinion with the Judge before whom "a wrinkled hag" was brought for trial, that "there are no witches but *young* ones," we shall glean nothing from this obsolete topic.

We enter into Mr. Pratt's feelings on the subject of Literature. He laments that it is not patronized by princes and mighty men; he contends, in opposition to the authority of Dr. Adam Smith, that men of genius rank in the productive class; and he applauds the commendable exertions of the Literary Fund to succour them in distress, asserting, with a warmth of expression which comes from the heart, the full Claims of Literature. Authors, he is of opinion, have indiscreetly contributed to their own degradation in the general esteem, by continually

tinually exhibiting the fiction of their garret with its disgusting appendages; and he thinks that the representation of them on the stage has farther assisted in destroying the public respect for them. From playfulness of mind, authors often hold themselves up as subjects of public ridicule: but it has sometimes happened that, while they afforded amusement to others, they themselves have been objects of the greatest compassion. An anecdote is told of Carlini, the drollest buffoon who ever appeared on the Italian stage at Paris, which strongly illustrates this remark:

'A French physician having been consulted by a person subject to the most gloomy fits of melancholy, advised his patient to mix in scenes of gaiety and dissipation; and particularly to frequent the Italian theatre, and if Carlini does not dispel your gloomy complaint, says he, your case must be desperate, indeed. Alas! Sir, said the patient, I myself am Carlini, and while I divert all Paris with mirth, and make them almost *die with* laughter, I myself am dying with melancholy and chagrin.'

A letter is appropriated to *Dogs*, which are termed by Mr. Pratt 'inestimable appendages of human society;' and an affecting account is given of the noble and generous instincts displayed by these most amiable and faithful animals: but, partial as we are to Dogs, and well as we know their extraordinary capabilities, we can scarcely credit all the parts of this narrative.

Cruelty to animals is a subject which is extended to some length; and in the discussion of which Mr. Pratt reprobates the sentiment expressed by a celebrated member of the House of Commons, 'that the English soldier learns courage from the English bull and bull-dog.' 'I do not,' continues he, 'believe a naturally brave man ever yet derived one particle of reflected courage from any of the inhuman amusements whatsoever. They are heartless diversions, during which, there is not room enough left in the bosom for one noble or generous thought. And I again enter a caveat against your receiving such a satire upon our patriotism and humanity.'—Tenderness to the brute creation is recommended as an early part of education: 'Believe me, there is not a virtue, within the wide extent of your vast empire over youth, more necessary to be inculcated, than that of establishing in them a principle of humanity for the DUMB CREATION. Give them genuine compassion founded upon justice, not sickly sensibility founded on affectation, and you give them the richest "jewel of their souls;" because it is the foundation of all that is good and great in human, and inevitably connects with all that will render them most acceptable to the divine nature.'

Though much is gleaned respecting London, we must be satisfied with the first and general glance:

'London

'London invites—the imperial seat of what is most good and most bad, most fair and most foul, perhaps, in the universe, because like the language which is spoken in it, it is a compound of every other town and country; and what the sublimely sorrowing Dr. Young has said in his famous apostrophe on that greatest of all compounds, *man*, himself, may with the change only of a single word, be applied to the metropolis of Britain! How rich! how poor! how abject! how august! how complicate! how wonderful is London!'

A sentimental traveller cannot ramble through the streets of the metropolis without compassionating the case of the chimney-sweeper's *climbing-boys*. From one of these miserable beings, Mr. Pratt received the following account:

'A *sweep* being called by a tradesman at the door of a house, the man went in, and was desired to examine the state of the chimneys—while he did which, he placed the boy whom he had been carrying, in a jutting of the shop passage, and ordered the other two to wait without. I now entered into discourse with these, and the elder apprentice who appeared to me in extreme ill health, told me in a fearful whisper, on my asking concerning his mode of living and labour, that he should be sixteen in July, and then if he lived would rather be a shoe black or a galley slave than a chimney sweeper, especially to the brute who is gone into that house, for he not only almost starves but beats me and my brothers to death, though I have gone all weathers through my morning work for many years. I have nothing to sleep on but some of these sacks in a soot cellar, and what's worse, my master won't allow us to wash and tight ourselves up not once a month: so that I am quite sore with the clogged stuff that has almost eat into my flesh—only look, Sir, at these sore places and these great lumps. Scarcely had he finished this account of himself, during which the second boy had fallen asleep beside the door, and the youngest was exciting kind words and good deeds of the servant maid of the house, who was bathing his wounded foot, than the hoarse sound of the master's voice assailed the ears of the speaker from a chamber window, ordering him and the climbing boys to come up stairs. Not doing this, however, as expeditiously as the impatient tyrant required, he ran down to the offending parties and struck the apprentice on the head, exclaiming he could not clamber, tossed him again over his shoulder, bitterly swearing that he should go up if it was only for his yelping—yes, that you shall you little blackguard, if I was sure you would be stuck fast in the middle of the chimney—And do you go on to Covent Garden, you sleepy headed hound you, I find you have been napping as usual, and see that the chimney at No. 7. is swept before I come, or I'll sleep you I warrant. The servant maid implored a respite for the lame child, and the master of the shop edged in a side way word favourably though gapingly, but the tyrant was inexorable.'

This moralist, in noticing *Middle Row*, Holborn, where odd books are often sought, suggests a hint to the borrowers of books,

books, which, as it is much wanted, we shall transcribe for the benefit of all ladies and gentlemen who have libraries:

'Pausing a little at the different stalls, I noted several persons enquiring for odd volumes, to compleat broken sets, which had been lost by the commerce of lending or borrowing; for you must know, that detention of books, is amongst the negligences, or petty larcenies in friendship, which is generally as little attended to by the lender as the borrower—the proprietor as the purloiner; and it is as common to ask the loan of a book for a week and keep it a year, on pretence of not having had time to read, or even for the lender to lend it again, and so lose it at last; or, which is quite as convenient, take a memorandum to forget that it was ever lent at all.'

In the *Dog and Bird-shop*, the Gleaner finds matter for reflection. Fleet Market presents to his view a London epicure replete with *Cheapside* wit, which is delineated *to the life*; and a visit to the Fleet prison offers a melancholy contrast to this picture of bloated gluttony. The pathetic scene is thus described:

'I now passed into the interior of the prison, and saw a powerful illustration of the difference already remarked upon of captive man and other animals—I followed the exquisite Sterne's touching idea of "selecting a single captive," and I made the selection from a disastrous groupe which were sitting in a rueful state, almost at the entrance of the area—A more squalid specimen of poverty, disease, and dirt, could not well have been chosen out of all the receptacles of want and woe in this world of sorrow. The face was alike worn by sickness and penury—pale, lean, and that yellow sort of hue which is often the effect of hard fare and exposure to the elements. The eyes sank almost to the bottom of their sockets, and her lips, for it was a female, had that livid cast, and were in that peeling state which denotes a feverish habit of body; a patched red cloak was thrown over her rather to cover her infant, which had been born in prison, than to be of use to herself. The bosom of the mother was partly bare, and a sickly looking child was attempting to draw nourishment, from a source that appeared to have nothing to bestow. Never did I behold two of the human beings, generally amongst the most interesting of any in the world—a babe and a parent giving it suck, in so revolting a condition.

'The features of the mother, so far from being naturally disgusting, were sweet; but defiled by the neglect which want of food and health in the poorer classes, who have no idea of creating interest by external appearance, occasions. Her affections were, as I had soon too good reason to believe, unpolluted, even by these sore pressures upon almost the best emotions of the heart. While one hand was employed to console herself with a pinch of snuff, the other was engaged in drawing the ragged hood of the cloak more closely round the head of the forlorn little wretch; which seemed to be divided between the act of feeding and sleeping on an impoverished breast.

'Upon

'Upon questioning the mourner, respecting the circumstances which produced her confinement—she told me, and ah! I am sure, Baron, she told me true—for such a look, and such a voice were never allowed by the Lord of nature to assist a lye—she told me, "that she was a prisoner not for herself, but for having ministered to her husband's effects. She thought these would cover all, and put something besides into her pocket; but that she found she was mistaken, and was when debts were paid near sixty pounds worse than before, from some claims of old standing which she thought settled years agone—"but that the creditors had found she did for the best, and therefore she was now in jail only for the fees, which were to be paid, by a good soul, that very morning."

"Then wherefore are you so melancholy, and why do you sit here on the ground and in the cold?"—"Only Sir, because it is too close in the room, of which I have a third part, and I thought a little fresh air might do poor Billy good—though for my part, I am almost parched to death."

'So you are not in immediate necessity? No Sir, thank you—I *have* been—but good creatures have befriended me within and without the walls—there are many charitable persons here I assure you—but all the charity in the world will not bring about this poor stinted boy—who, though he is so starvely and dwarfish, is near fifteen months old, and ought to have been weaned long ago; but he has not strength to eat, and was always a weakly baby.'

'While the poor woman uttered the last sentence, she drew her cloak gently aside, and bending over her child dropt the presaging tears of a mother on its pale and emaciated cheeks.—On lifting up her head, I discovered her own cheeks copiously wetted with those drops, which, when a suckling infant is their object, always come from a sorrowing heart, and may be trusted. The most hardened or the most deceived spectator, must have given her credit for every drop. And if he had been proof against these evidences, how would he have resisted what followed?

"Poor baby! you were born here, and you may as well die here too; for you must go, you must leave me, and very, very soon too; and what signifies my being out of prison or in it; only that I can, perhaps, put you in the same ground, or near it, where your father lies, whom you are as like as two peas are to one another; and though he *did* get into debt more than I knew of, and potted away his money and brought himself here, and me after him, I took him for love; at first, he was a kind husband, and I loved him to the last. He breathed that last, poor fellow, upon this very arm, as I held him up on his pillow, just as you will do. And to be sure it will be some comfort to have you both near one another, and I won't be far off, for I will not give up the old place, and there I shall be almost within sight of your graves, though I don't think I shall be long after you, and I am sure I don't wish it."

'The mother was overwhelmed by her sensations, and most of the speech was broken into those fragments of expression which genuine agony excites, when proceeding from genuine affection, and particularly of a mother bewailing a child in danger: At the end of her heart's

effusion, she tenderly kissed the feeble creature she had bewailed, folded it up more warmly, and seeing it begin to close the eyes, rocked it on her lap, and hushed it to slumber.'

This detail is followed by some observations on the impolicy of imprisonment for debt, with a selection from which we shall finish our extracts:

'There is here no need of declamatory vehemence; we live in an age of commerce and computation; let us therefore coolly inquire what is the sum of evil which the imprisonment of debtors brings upon our country.

'It seems to be the opinion of the late computists, that the inhabitants of England do not exceed six millions, of which twenty thousand is the three hundredth part. What shall we say of the humanity or the wisdom of a nation that voluntarily sacrifices one in every three hundred to lingering destruction!

'The misfortunes of an individual do not extend their influence to many; yet if we consider the effects of consanguinity and friendship, and the general reciprocation of wants and benefits, which make one man dear or necessary to another, it may reasonably be supposed, that every man languishing in prison gives trouble of some kind to two others who love or need him. By this multiplication of misery we see distress extended to the hundredth part of the whole society.

'If we estimate at a shilling a day what is lost by the inaction and consumed in the support of each man thus chained down to involuntary idleness, the public loss will rise in one year to three hundred thousand pounds; in ten years to more than a sixth part of our circulating coin.

'I am afraid that those who are best acquainted with the state of our prisons will confess that my conjecture is too near the truth, when I suppose that the corrosion of resentment, the heaviness of sorrow, the corruption of confined air, the want of exercise, and sometimes of food, the contagion of diseases, from which there is no retreat, and the severity of tyrants, against whom there can be no resistance, and all the complicated horrors of a prison, put an end every year to the life of one in four of those that are shut up from the common comforts of human life.

'Thus perish yearly five thousand men, overborne with sorrow, consumed by famine, or putrified by filth; many of them in the most vigorous and useful part of life; for the thoughtless and imprudent are commonly young, and the active and busy are seldom old.'

The statement of the population of England, included in this passage, is below the mark: but the force of the argument is not thus much diminished.

On the views of Peace and War, Mr. Pratt's reflections are truly spirited and patriotic: but, as they do not differ from those of other writers, who have liberally volunteered their services in the present momentous crisis, we may excuse ourselves from subjecting them to particular notice.

With

With much apparent reluctance, the gleaner takes leave of the reader; for to a *Retrospect* he adds a *Summary*, and to the *Summary* he affixes something by way of *Appendix*.—In the preface, he produces evidence of a fact formerly maintained, that, in some parts of Wales, lovers carry on innocent courtship in bed: but, however true this account may be, we do not recommend the adoption of the practice in England. What Mr. Pratt means (p. 83,) by Pliny's history being a pleasing romance, we do not understand; and there are several expressions, such as '*gleanworthy*;' '*some two years ago*,'* &c. which we as little approve as the following line in one of the Sonnets,

'To mark the place where god-like friend has been.'

Mr. Pratt's intentions, however, are so good and benevolent, that it is impossible not to pardon trifling errors in style; and though fastidious readers may at times disapprove his prolix sentimentality, it must be their own fault if their hearts be not warmed in the cause of virtue.

We are glad to find that Mr. Pratt has adopted a hint thrown out in one of our former articles, and is preparing for publication a work in two octavo volumes, forming 'an Inquiry into National Inventions, Improvements, *moral and social state of the Artizans in manufacturing towns, public prisons*,' &c. &c. We hope that he will be diligent in collecting *facts* sufficient to warrant indisputable deductions, and that from them he will reason logically, temperately, and successfully.

ART. V. *Indian Antiquities*: or, Dissertations, relative to the Antient Geographical Divisions, the pure System of Primæval Theology, the Grand Code of Civil Laws, the Original Form of Government, the widely extended Commerce, and the various and profound Literature of Hindostan: compared throughout with the Religion, Laws, Government, and Literature of Persia, Egypt, and Greece. The Whole intended as introductory to and illustrative of the History of Hindostan upon a comprehensive Scale. Vol. VII. and final. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. White.

WE have ever been most willing to bestow on this author the praise which is due to a spirit of enterprize, and to allow him the distinction which belongs to the occupant of a novel field. As far as it was permitted to us, we laid aside the severity of criticism; and when we felt ourselves obliged

* This expression is employed when speaking of M. de la Condamine's visit to London, and is a great error in chronology as well as inelegance of construction. See the Gentleman's Magazine for June 1763, (Vol. 33.) p. 304.

to remark on his unwarrantable flights and his strained hypotheses, or to point out his defects and his mistakes, we endeavoured to perform this duty with gentleness, and were carful not to disregard any grounds for praise which we were able to discern; being unwilling to damp laudable ardour, or to deprive the public of the benefit of labours which, however they may be appreciated, will be admitted by all to have been directed to useful and important objects *. If Mr. Maurice since our acquaintance commenced, has improved in his style, and displays greater judgment, he still continues more the rhetorical than the philosophical narrator; he is industrious in accumulating, but takes not much pains in arranging his materials; his collection is an exhibition of specimens of the ore mixed with its various alloys, and adhering to its matrix,—not of the purified metal. He may be compared to a traveller who has marked out the boundaries of a country, and traced some of its prominent features, but who leaves it to more accurate adventurers to draw out a distinct and correct map; he has sketched a design, rather than executed a chef d'œuvre. If, however, we regret what has not been accomplished, we applaud much of what has been done; and we express our unfeigned thanks to him for the large stores of knowlege which he has amassed relative to a subject of great interest to the republic of letters, and of high and peculiar importance to this country.

This volume is introduced by a dissertation on the bullion and coined money of the antient world; the facts to elucidate which are very judiciously selected. Mr. M. gives a short account of the several mines which in former days furnished the precious metals, as those of antient Arabia, which he supposes to have been the Havilah of the Pentateuch; those of Sofala, the Ophir of the scriptures, as he contends after Bruce; those of the Pyrenean mountains of Spain; those of the Thebais in Egypt; those of Caramania in Persia; those of silver at Sunium in Attica; and those of Thrace, which are said to have yielded three millions of our money annually to Philip and Alexander. To illustrate this subject, he exhibits to his reader the wealth which centered at Persepolis when Alexander held his court there; and he then traces it to the capitals of his Generals who divided his conquests among them. He discovers an immense portion of it displayed in the procession at Alexandria, made to celebrate the coronation of Ptolemy Philadelphus, of which Athenæus gives an account; another division of it fell to the share of Seleucus, and was

* See M. R. Vols. xii. pp. 1. 129. 246. xiv. p. 311. xix. p. 401. and xxiv. p. 37. N. S.

exhi-

exhibited at Daphne near Susa by Antiochus Epiphanes, the particulars of which are related by Polybius; the remaining share of it went to the kings of Macedon, and we meet with the statement of its contents in Plutarch's relation of the triumph of Paulus Æmilius. Mr. M. next enters into a detail of the riches of Rome in the days of the republic, and under the first emperors. It appears that, in the time of Antony, the revenue drawn annually from Asia exceeded three millions of our money, and that the taxes paid by Alexandria alone in the reign of Augustus amounted to more than a million and a half.

In the subsequent extract, our modern bankers will see what venerable persons their predecessors were in antient times; yet, notwithstanding the sanctity of their characters, they do not seem to have been so well entitled to confidence as their less pretending successors:

'The principal hoards of treasure, both in bullion and coined money, among the Greeks, we know to have been in their temples, which were crowded with presents of immense value, brought by the superstitious from every part of Greece. These temples were considered as national banks, and the priests officiated as bankers, not always indeed the most honest, as was once proved at Athens, where the state-treasurers, having expended or embezzled the public money, had the audacity to set fire to that part of the temple of Minerva where the treasure was contained, by which sacrilegious act that magnificent fane was near being wholly consumed. Their purpose, however, was fully answered, since the registers of the temple were reported to have perished with the treasures, and all responsibility precluded.

'The temple, just mentioned, the superb fane of Jupiter Olympius, at Elis, and that of Apollo, at Delphi, were the principal of those sacred depositaries. The priests, at all times, concealed the total sum of the treasures lodged in them with too much caution for us to know the amount, yet, when the Phocenses, urged to despair by the exactions of the Thebans, seized on the treasures of Delphi, they amounted to ten thousand talents, above two millions two hundred and fifty thousand pounds sterling; and probably that but a small portion of what holy perfidy had previously secured. Those deposited at the great temple of Ephesus, considered through all ages as inviolable, probably far exceeded those of the three last-mentioned.'

We shall now copy the details of some facts, which will enable the reader to form an idea of the opulence and extravagance prevailing in the latter days of Rome:

'Its inhabitants, in their magnificent entertainments and sumptuous mode of living, far surpassed the princes of Asia itself; for, we soon after find them sleeping on beds of gold and ivory, quaffing the rich wines of Chios and Falernus out of gold and silver goblets, and

riding in carriages shining all over with those bright and precious metals. To supply this unlimited extravagance, the governors of these provinces, whence they were principally obtained, as we learn from Cicero against Verres, committed the most unheard-of extortions; while the most shameless corruption pervaded every department of the state, and the most infamous crimes polluted the whole body of the citizens. Indeed, how was it possible for the stream to be pure when the fountain itself was so deeply contaminated? When we find a Vitellius consuming between seven and eight millions a year on entertainments, and a Caligula expending above eighty thousand pounds sterling on a supper, we cannot wonder at the tragedian Clodius Æsopus lavishing on one luxurious dish 600 *sestertia*, £.4,843, 10*s.** or the young spendthrift, his son, treating each of his guests, after dinner, with a superb cordial, in which a costly pearl had been dissolved †. The wealth of Crassus was proverbially great, and amounted to £.1,614,583, 6*s.* 8*d.*; but far greater was that of Pallas, the freed man of Claudius, for it was valued at £.2,421,875; but both were exceeded by that of Lentulus, the augur, who was worth *quater millies*, or £.3,229,166, 13*s.* 4*d.* Even poets and philosophers, in those golden days, amassed vast fortunes; for Seneca, in four years, acquired *ter millies*, £.2,421,875; and, according to Servius, in the life of Virgil, that poet was worth *centies* H.S. or £.80,729, 3*s.* 4*d.* This sum, however, though great for a poet, was not thought sufficient to support existence by a pampered Roman senator, since the famous Apicius, after spending in culinary delicacies *millies* H.S. or £.807,291, 13*s.* 4*d.* and squandering, besides, the amount of immense grants and pensions, on casting up his accounts, finding he had only this exact sum remaining, poisoned himself, that he might not perish by the severer pangs of famine.

'In their dress and furniture they were equally expensive; for Lollia Paulina, the great beauty of Rome in the time of Caligula, and on that account compulsively advanced to his bed, when full-drest, constantly wore jewels of the value of £.322,916, 13*s.* 4*d.* and the price for rich Babylonian *triclinaria*, coverlids, or carpets for their dining-beds, was £.6,458, 6*s.* 8*d.* Nor could their houses themselves be of mean fabric or decoration; since that of Crassus was valued at *sexagies*, H.S. or £.48,437, 10*s.* while that of Clodius cost *centies et quadragies octies*, or £.119,479, 5*s.* 4*d.* ‡ Those houses were externally cased with marble, and had marble pillars to support the lofty ceilings; they were internally decorated with rich tapestry; with costly hangings of Tyrian purple; with urns and statues exquisitely sculptured and polished, and paintings of the most beautiful design and brilliant colours; fountains of variegated marble played in their cœnacula, or great banqueting-rooms, cooling the air and refreshing the guests, who dined off gold plate, served up on tables overlaid with silver, and reclined on sofas sustained by legs of ivory, silver, and sometimes even gold. They were also uncommonly splendid in the article of lamps, which were often fabricated of the most precious

'* Pliny, lib. x. cap. 60.' '† Ibid. lib. xxxv. cap. 12.'
'‡ Ibid. lib. xxxvi. cap. 15.'

materials,

materials, and in which they burned the most costly and fragrant oils.'

Treating of the stamp which the first money bore, and premising that the primitive race of men were shepherds, whose wealth consisted principally in their cattle, Mr. Maurice observes:

'When, for greater convenience, metals were substituted for the commodity itself, it was natural for the representative sign to bear impressed the object which it represented; and thus accordingly the earliest coins were stamped with the figure of an ox or SHEEP. For proof that they actually did thus impress them, we can again appeal to the high authority of Scripture; for there we are informed that Jacob bought a parcel *of a field for an hundred pieces of money*, Gen. ch.xxxiii.v.19. The original Hebrew term, translated *pieces of money*, is KESITOTH, which signifies LAMBS, with the figure of which the metal was doubtless stamped. We have a second instance of this practice in the ancient Greek coin, denominated Βοῦς, the *ox*; and we meet with a third in the old brass coins of Rome, (whence I before observed the public treasury was called *ærarium*,) stamped, before that city began to use gold and silver money, with the figure of a *sheep*, whence the Latin name *pecunia*. *Signatum est notis pecudum; unde et pecunia appellata.* (Plin.) In process of time, when empires were formed, and men crowded into cities, coins came to be impressed with different devices, allusive either to the history of its founder, some remarkable event in the history of the nation, their accidental situation, or the predominant devotion of the country. Thus the shekel of the Jews had Aaron's rod budding, with a smoaking censer. The Tyrians had their Petræ Ambrosiæ, and serpentine emblems, of which some curious examples may be seen in the fifth engraving of this volume. The Athenian coins bore impressed an owl, and Pallas. The maritime race, who inhabited the Peloponnesus, had a testudo, or shell, as their symbol; the Persians, practised in the use of the bow, an archer, which is the constant device on the Darics; the Thessalians, a horse; the Byzantines, situated on the Thracian Bosphorus, a dolphin twisted about a trident.'

The author supposes the Lydians to have been the first who stamped the effigies of their princes on their coins, whence those issued by Crœsus were called Crœsei. The Crœsei, he conjectures (with great probability), were recoined by Darius, and became the Darics so famous in antient times; those issued by Philip of Macedon, the produce of the mines of Thrace, were called Philippi, and were of the value of a pound sterling. A curious trait of Alexander is here noted:

'Alexander, content with the full tide of glory which he was convinced would attend his name and actions in future ages, seems to have declined the celebrity which arises from multiplying the regal effigies upon coins; and, soon after his exaltation to the throne of Macedon, forbad the impression of his own portrait to be used at the mint.

This was so strictly observed, that we have only one small silver coin, a hemidrachm, struck during his whole reign, (which indeed was but short,) bearing his effigies, and that is an unique in Dr. Hunter's collection. It exhibits a very juvenile aspect; and the reverse is a man on horseback, the usual ornament of Macedonian coins. His gold coins exhibit, on one side, a head of Minerva; and, on the other, a Victory, standing: his silver, a head of young Hercules, and the reverse, Jupiter sitting:—a collection of symbols that doubtless flattered the pride of the victorious son of Jove, far more than the diffusion of the impression of the head of a mere man. What pride or caprice, however, prevented being done by himself, was abundantly accomplished by his successors at Macedon and his admirers elsewhere; so that posterity are in no want of genuine similitudes of that wonderful man.'

The account which the author gives of antient Hindoo literature, in the next dissertation, is not in itself unpalatable fare, but will (we suspect) be deemed ordinary by those who have feasted on the learned researches of Bailly, the able investigations of Playfair, and the well arranged and finely narrated details of Robertson.

By those who have not perused the Institutes of Menu, (for a translation of which the public is indebted to the late Sir William Jones,) and the Gentoo Code of Mr. Halhed, the Dissertation on the antient government and jurisprudence of India, in which the material parts of both these curious communications are judiciously and neatly combined, will be deemed an acceptable present.

'The government of India (says the author) certainly was in the strictest sense *monarchical*, but with very just and severe checks to guard against the possible abuse of the powers intrusted to the ruling sovereign. The Indian monarchy, as originally established, at the same time exhibits to us in a more marked manner than most other countries of Asia glaring vestiges of the original *patriarchal* mode of government, founded on the model of the *paternal*, in which the chief of each family exercised the sovereign jurisdiction over the individuals of it, even to the infliction of death, when merited; continuing to flourish unviolated for a long succession of ages. With the regal, in him were combined the sacerdotal dignity, and a kind of prophetic sanctity of character, supposed to have descended to him from that venerable personage who was the grand fountain of all post-diluvian honours; the KING, PRIEST, and PROPHET, of the regenerated world! A band of holy Brahmins, who, like the Magi of Persia, were the hereditary counsellors of the Indian crown, constantly attended in the palace, and around the sacred person of the prince, to give him their advice in the most important concerns of his empire, to inculcate upon him the duty of a just and wise sovereign, at stated periods to chaunt the solemn hymns of devotion, to assist at the frequently returning rites of sacrifice, and explain the omens of the blazing altar.'

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The sacerdotal pre-eminence established by the Hindoo code would of itself prove its high antiquity; for the more remotely we penetrate into its recesses, the more powerful do we find the supposed ministers of the gods. The prerogatives of the priests under the Indian policy are great indeed, as is thus manifest:

'An assembly of the Brahmins, sitting in judgment on a vicious or tyrannical king, may condemn him to death, and the sentence is recorded to have been executed; but no crime affects the life of the Brahmin, he may suffer temporary degradation from his cast, but his blood must never stream on the sword of justice; he is a portion of the deity, he is inviolable, he is invulnerable, he is immortal!'

As these matters have been already communicated to the world, we must refer such as are curious with regard to them to the original works themselves; or to the able and very satisfactory summary of them which forms the concluding article of Mr. Maurice's Indian Antiquities.

ART. VI. *The Modern History of Hindostan:* comprehending that of the Greek Empire of Bactria, and other great Asiatic Kingdoms, bordering on its Western Frontier. Commencing at the Period of the Death of Alexander, and intended to be brought down to the Close of the Eighteenth Century. Vol. I. Parts I. and II. 4to. pp. 508. 2l. 2s. sewed. White.

To elucidate any portion of history has always been deemed a service which intitles the meritorious labourer to distinction. If this be true generally, it must be so *à fortiori* when applied to those favoured and interesting regions, which are regarded as the cradle of the human race, of science, and of civilization: but, moreover, the value of the undertaking is enhanced in the eyes of every subject of these united kingdoms, when it is considered that the regions in question are dependencies on the British empire, the pillars of its political pre-eminence, and the grand sources of its power and wealth.

On such grounds, then, none can be more disposed than we are to applaud the object of Mr. Maurice's labours, or to commend his zeal and perseverance. To those who have perused our accounts of his former works, we have no information to give in regard to his claims as an author. If the valuable qualities which we have been forward to notice, whenever we sat in judgment on his past performances, are not wanting in the present, truth compels us to state that the faults and defects, which we have so often pointed out on prior occasions, are scarcely in any degree diminished in the volumes before us; and that the same marks of haste, immaturity of plan, and indiscrimi-

nate

nate aggregation of materials, which reduced the value of the preceding publications, equally affect that which we are now examining *. The reader is still wearied by diffuse details, where the matter has little interest, or little relevancy; while a perverse conciseness is introduced when events of great general concernment are related. The same causes occasion the narrative in many places to be confused; and the most attentive reader must repeatedly peruse it before he can discover the relations of its parts, or make it in any degree his own.

The subject in itself considered, as well as the interest which is so eminently connected with it in the country in which Mr. M. writes, was calculated to excite every energy, in order to render worthy of it the volumes which were to be dedicated to its illustration. Two literary heroes had occupied part of the ground, and the adventurer on the same scene should have been aware that comparisons would be made, or contrasts drawn; he ought therefore well to have estimated his strength; and to have ascertained whether he was equal to follow such great steps, in order to determine either on abandoning the attempt, or on gaining a name that would not have been eclipsed by the lustre of fellow labourers. Mr. Maurice possesses one of the principal and most indispensable requisites in order to excel; namely, a fertile and even exuberant genius: but he is an exception to the critic's observation, *Multum inde decoquent anni, multum ratio limavit, aliquid velut usu ipso deteretur.* He does not practise the delay which antient authority has prescribed. He is a candidate for distinction, not a little querulous because he is not invested with its prerogatives, and does not share in its rewards; forgetting that he has not duly paid the price without which it can never be attained. *Nihil enim rerum ipsa natura voluit magnum effici cito, preposuitque pulcherrimo cuique operi difficultatem.* The field of Indian history, for the purposes of fame and immortality, remains still unoccupied; because Mr. Maurice, with talents which might have secured to him a long possession, shrunk from the conditions on which alone a title could be made good. Such a work, therefore, from a pen well versed in the languages of the East, stationed on the scene, and guided by talents properly chastened, will still be a desideratum even when Mr. M. shall have completed his undertaking: but, in the mean time, the public will be grateful for the information which he has placed within their reach, and will feel anxious that he should bring his design to a close. Mr. Maurice takes frequent occasion to state

* For Mr. M.'s *antient* History of Hindostan, see Rev. Vols. xxii. and xxxii. N. S.

his high sense of the dignity of his province, and to profess his solemn resolution not to prostitute the authority with which it invests him. Precedents for professions of this sort are to be found in the first writers, when they treat of contemporaneous or recent transactions of their own country: but they seem superfluous when the narrative refers to remote events, and widely distant regions. Recollection, however, suggested to us that these gratuitous professions were less improper in Mr. M. than, at first view, they might appear: but this would be hardly worth the mention, did it not happen that the words scarcely escape his pen before he violates them. Ceylon, inauspiciously for his fame, but conveniently he might think for his fortune, comes in his way; and he gives a fulsome and extravagant description, in which we are confident a certain personage was more regarded than historic truth, to which he had just sworn most dutiful fealty; namely, the personage termed in the dedication of the work the glorious pacificator of a conflicting world: whose diplomatic feat it was, in a recent treaty, to retain this all but solitary token of the conquests which had cost his country so much.

Mr. Maurice, having brought his antient history of India down to the death of Alexander, has chosen to denominate that part which intervenes between this event and the close of the century recently terminated, its *modern* history; assigning unquestionably to the term *modern*, an extent which usage by no means sanctions. The division of his work, here commenced, is intended to comprize the whole of this vast and important period.

Among other miscellaneous matters introductory to the narrative, we meet with an account of the peculiar manners and customs which distinguish the inhabitants of Hindostan; speaking of whom, Mr. M. says:

'They were in past times, as at present, divided into various tribes, or casts, never intermingled in marriage, at entertainments, or in any intimate manner associated. Their great ingenuity in all the mechanical arts, their genius for commerce, which they carried on to a considerable extent with Egypt and Arabia, the liberal hospitality and love of truth, the rigid temperance and frugality by which they were distinguished; but above all the profound learning and lofty precepts of morality inculcated by the ancient Brachmans, are celebrated with lavish encomiums, not only by the above-cited authors, but by many others of the most respectable character for veracity in pagan antiquity.'—

'Strangers, in general, to the turbulence of ambition, to the fever of intemperance, and all the tumultuous violence of the more boisterous passions, it cannot, however, be denied that the Hindoos are often the victims of one most fatal and degrading vice, insatiable avarice! When

When inflamed with this passion, its influence over their bosom is said to know neither limit nor restraint. In the accumulation of wealth all their faculties are absorbed; but, ever mindful of the grasping extortion of their Mohammedan governors, they are reported to bury that wealth under ground, and dare not trust even their children with the fatal secret. The most cruel tortures cannot compel them to reveal the place of its concealment; the horror of threatened defilement has alone any influence over their firmness, and to avoid this menace, they fly for refuge to the destroying steel, or elude the inventive malice of their persecutors, by swallowing a dose of poison. Thus are the plains of Hindostan, like those of modern Tartary, covered with hoards of secret treasure; and in this manner, may partly be accounted for those enormous sums of silver bullion which are constantly importing into the country, and swallowed up as in a vast vortex, without ever being exported, or visibly increasing the quantity in circulation.

'If however, they are sometimes hurried away by this destructive passion, and by the stings of jealousy, the result of disproportionate marriages, into extremes which militate against that mild cast of character by which they are in general distinguished, the Hindoos have a thousand excellent qualities to counterbalance the defect. They are not less ardent in the love of their country, than zealous in their attachment to the institutions of their forefathers. In domestic life, they are tender and affectionate, and in their morals, for the most part, unsullied.'

The expectations, which the reader may form of the work before us, will be best collected from the account of it given by the author himself:

'From the death of Alexander till the commencement of the Hegira, or Mohammedan æra, in the sixth century, the path of Indian history becomes again gloomy, cheerless, treacherous, and unconnected. We are possessed of few authentic documents to guide, and still fewer important incidents to vary, the uninteresting narrative. We shall trace, however, some vestiges of ancient fortitude and independence in the daring and successful efforts of Sandracottus, the *Sinsarchund* of Ferishtah, to shake off the Macedonian yoke, or rather that of Seleucus, the successor of Alexander, in his Syrian conquests; but we shall still be compelled to acknowledge, notwithstanding the vigorous, and, for the moment, effectual, opposition of Sandracottus, that in the time of Antiochus the Great, India was not entirely independent of the power of the Seleucidæ, since, as we are informed by Polybius, this monarch exacted a tribute of elephants from Saphogasinus, its king, who seems to have been the *Jona* of Ferishtah, or one of his posterity, who, about that period, (two centuries before the Christian æra,) sat on the imperial throne of India. Dark and barren as this part of the work must necessarily be, I shall endeavour, from various fragments relative to India in the history of these Seleucidæ, and that of the Ptolemys in Egypt; from the scanty records of the Greek sovereigns of Bactria, the dynasty of the Arsacidæ, and the other neighbouring nations; and from the twilight glimmering

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ing of information scattered through the pages of Roman history, both of the eastern and western empire; to connect the chain of events, and retain, unextinguished, the spirit that ought to animate every historical composition.

'After this long interval of doubt and obscurity, we shall observe the scene grow gradually more clear and luminous. The clouds that darkened the historical page vanish before the effulgence of the crescent of Mohammed, now rising in baneful glory in the terrified East. Urged on by the sanguinary precepts of the Coran, and the same insatiable ambition that distinguished its author; fired with the love of military glory, and impatient for the honourable title of Gazi, we see the heroes of the Arabian superstition successively pour their armies into the desolated plains of India. Filled, as we must be, with ardent admiration at the invincible fortitude with which, in pursuit of those objects, they surmounted difficulties almost insuperable, and, at the same time fired, as we ought to be, with indignation, excited by nature and Christianity, at their intolerant and destructive principles, we see them penetrate, with equal ease, the snows of Caucasus, and the deserts of Thibet. Descending thence, more terrible than all the inundations of her Ganges, we behold those remorseless marauders plundering her pagodas, sanctioned by the devotion, and rich with the accumulated wealth, of ages; mutilating her idols, venerable from the remotest antiquity; driving her rajahs from their fortresses, before deemed impregnable; and laying the noble capitals of Canouge and Delhi in ruins.'—

'Having taken rather an extensive retrospect of the rise, decline, and fall, of the Gaznavide, the Gauride, and Charazmian, empires, whose respective sovereigns, for more than two centuries, gave law to India; that is, from the first invasion of Sultan Mahmud, in the year 1000, to the defeat of Gelaleddin, by Gengis Khan, on the banks of the Indus, in 1221 of our æra,—having noticed the principal events in the life of that celebrated conqueror, and traced the history of his successors down to Timur Bec, I shall direct my attention to a more particular review of the domestic history of India; and from the ample sources in my possession, record the history of what Mr. Orme calls the first dynasty of Mohammedan kings of Delhi. This dynasty of Afghan emperors, commencing in the person of Cothbeddin Ibeck, and ending in Mahmud, dethroned by Timur, will carry us down to the year 1398, in which year that great founder of the Mogul empire, in India, erected the Tartarian standard on the imperial towers of Delhi.'—

'Timur far surpassed both Alexander and Cæsar, as well in the vast extent of his empire, as in the boundless diffusion of his munificence. I feel an ardent desire of public applause enkindled in my mind, and I am impatient to plunge into this most interesting and splendid period of Asiatic history. But, before I can arrive at its commencement, a tedious and barren waste must be toiled over; and indeed from the death of Timur, till the expulsion of Baber by the Usbecks, great and almost insuperable difficulties will again arise, in the attempt to preserve the connecting chain of history between his descendents, who reigned in Grand Tartary, and the princes of

Hindostan. All that we know for certain, from the few scanty and precarious fragments of history in our possession, chiefly to be found in Mirkhond, Herbelot, and the continuation of Arabshah's Life of Timur, is that the Indian dominions were, in some degree, dependent on the Tartar emperors, who, to overawe those distant provinces, constantly kept a numerous body of cavalry at Gazna, or Candahar, at all times ready to exact the tribute, to extinguish the flame of rising rebellion, and pour, when necessary, their vengeance on that devoted country. For the clearer elucidation of the domestic history of India, during this period, Ferishtah will be of great and important advantage. Timur appointed no regular king to govern Hindostan; but by this author we are informed, that Chizer, whom he had stationed in the soubah of Multan, and its dependencies, rose by degrees, after the destruction of the weak Mahmud, and his weaker successor Lodi, to the imperial dignity, and founded another dynasty of Patan kings of Delhi. This dynasty flourished, with little interruption from the Tartar monarchs, from the death of Timur, in 1405, till the fifth invasion of Hindostan, by the great, the politic, the immortal Baber, whose chequered life was equally distinguished by glory and misfortune; and who, in a pitched battle, fought in 1526, totally defeated Sultan Ibrahim Lodi, at the head of an army of 100,000 Afghans. Baber, more justly than Timur, may be called the genuine founder of the Mogul dynasty in India; as from him, in regular lineal succession, descended that glorious race of kings, who governed India, for the space of near two centuries, with wisdom unequalled, with moderation unprecedented, and with justice hardly impeachable.

'Baber was not less eminent as a scholar than as a warrior: he wrote the commentaries of his own life and actions, called Vakeat Baberi, mentioned in Fraser's Catalogue of Oriental Manuscripts; containing "a full account of his battles in Tartary and India; a correct description of India; the soil, climate, and the manners of the people; a list of the several powers who then possessed India, &c. &c." From the Vakeat Baberi, now deposited among the Bodleian manuscripts, and orginally written in the Mogul language, but translated into Persian, in the reign of Akber, by Khan Khanan, will be extracted a faithful history of this illustrious character, who mounted the throne of the Tartarian empire at twelve years old, and lived to see the new empire, which he had founded in Hindostan, established in peace, and rising in renown.

'Pursuing the regular course of our history, and referring constantly to the dates of Fraser, as the most accurate chronological statement of Indian events of that period, in our possession, after Baber, the chequered life of Homaion, distinguished, in a great degree, like that of Baber, by alternate triumph and depression, will engage our attention. In this life of Homaion, and in those of Scheer Shah, Selim, Mohammed, and Ibrahim, three successive monarchs of Patan extraction, who usurped the Mogul throne, I shall have occasion once more to compare Ferishtah with the Persian history, as it was entirely owing to the vigorous assistance of Tahmas, the Persian monarch, to whom Homaion in his misfortunes fled, that the royal exile was enabled to recover possession of the empire of Timur

Timur or rather of his father Baber. As, about this period, the affairs of the peninsula of India, and the settlement of the Europeans on its coast will more immediately come under consideration, I shall present my readers with a concise, but authentic, history, of the gradual rise, to eminence and power, of all those European nations who successively established themselves under those emperors in India, from the first landing of the Portuguese at Calicut, to the present day. I shall be particularly attentive to mark the gradations by which the HONOURABLE EAST-INDIA COMPANY OF GREAT BRITAIN have risen to their present exalted state of power and splendour in that country.'—

'The whole life of the illustrious hero who succeeded Homaion is a continued series of great and shining events. The annals of Akber may be justly styled the annals of glory. Equally great in the council and in the field, the zealous patron of genius, and the munificent rewarder of literary merit, he sat on the throne of Hindostan, which he ascended at the early age of thirteen, during a period of fifty years, the most splendid in the history of the Mogul dynasty. The life of Akber, in Ferishtah, is a professed translation of the "Akber Namma," written by Abul Fazil, secretary to that emperor, the most elegant writer of India. I have not contented myself, however, with the information to be gleaned from that work, but for the more ample illustration of the events of his reign, have taken a very extensive range through Asiatic annals; and trust that I have concentrated, into one point of view, whatever, relative to Akber, is to be found in the historians and travellers of the last century, or of the present, that can at all be considered as important, or worthy of that distinguished and immortal character.

'With the life of Akber, the Indian history of Ferishtah concludes; but Mr. Gladwin, in his recently published life of the Emperor, Jehaun Geer, as well as many other Oriental scholars, have supplied ample materials for the reigns of his successors, down to Aurengzeb.

'Aurengzeb, who died in the year 7 of the last century, left the richest and most powerful empire in the world to be rent asunder and convulsed to its very centre by the ambitious contentions of his surviving offspring. India had not for ages seen two such immense armies assembled on her plains, as those which accompanied to the field his sons Azem Shah and Mohammed Mauzim, the rival competitors for his vacant throne. The black and aggravated crimes by which the father himself ascended to empire, seem to have been avenged by heaven in the successive destruction of his immediate descendants.

'From the death of the victorious Mauzim to the irruption from Persia, in 1738, there occurs a period of Indian history, the events of which it is painful to record,—a period deeply stained with blood, and marked by many progressive scenes of national calamity, the effect of that general anarchy and that uncontrolled spirit of faction which diffused itself among the Omras at the court of Delhi. From this melancholy æra, the page of the Mogul history hastens rapidly to its close, and the scene grows gradually darker, till at length it is extinguished in tenfold and total gloom. Indeed, of the Tartarian empire,

pire, in India, which flourished in its proudest zenith under the great Aurengzeb, it can hardly with propriety be said that it *gradually declined:* for, as no succeeding emperor arose, endowed with the same great military talents to defend, and animated by the same enlarged views of policy to govern, its vast extent, that empire may, with more precision, be represented as rushing at once, by its own enormous weight, into general and irretrievable ruin

'The scene of desolation and horror that commenced under the avaricious Nadir Shah, was finally completed by the ferocious Abdallah, who, after plundering the treasury of his master led back his insatiable Afghans to Delhi to divide the remaining spoil, and riot on the refuse of the feast. In the general plunder, the Mahrattas and the Rohillas (another tribe of Afghans.) have since largely participated, and, at this day, hardly a vestige remains of that mighty empire, which was founded by the illustrious Timur, and established by the persevering fortitude of Baber, which derived its most permanent column of glory from the wise regulations of Akber, and was carried to its greatest extent by the sword of the dauntless and politic Aurengzeb.

'In contemplating the various and astonishing revolutions which have, within the last century, taken place throughout the whole continent of India, a wide and almost boundless range is opened to the historian. The principal events, so interesting and multifarious, that are comprised within this period and have led to those revolutions, I shall endeavour to record with fidelity, and to arrange in a regular and connected manner. Amidst the necessary abridgment of so vast a mass of historical information, perspicuity will be my chief aim, and I have spared neither labour nor expence to procure authentic documents.'

If these promises have been strictly fulfilled, we have certainly been unjust to the author: but we are ready here to join issue with him, and to put ourselves on the country. We do not however deny that his style, with many glaring faults, is on the whole perspicuous; nor do we see any reason to call in question his stock of authentic documents:—we do not complain that the *res* is wanting, but the *lecta potenter*;—if we have the *facundia*, it is that which throws a false glare, not that which diffuses a steady light;—and as to the *lucidus ordo*, we are persuaded that, among the admirers of Mr. M., not one will attempt to point out a trace of that feature. Though we cannot perceive that Mr. M. has, in any degree, repressed the impatience which has induced him to usher forth his productions in an unripe and crude state, and though the execution of the magnificent plan above stated communicates less instruction and information than we expected from it, still the careful and attentive reader will find it a field which affords good gleaning; and we would willingly cherish a hope that the parts, which yet remain to be thrown open, will still more liberally reward his toil.

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The materials of the first book of this work have little relation to India, since they principally respect the empires founded in Asia by the successors of Alexander, and the governments which branched out of them, or which were founded on their subversion.

The second book, in which the modern history may be said properly to commence, opens with a very interesting chapter, which gives a detail of the authors, and their works, whence this history has been compiled.

In the account of Mohammed, the tale rejected by the best modern writers, of the absolute ignorance of the impostor, and of the assistance which he received from a Jew and a Monk, is again revived by Mr. Maurice.

One of the chapters in this book contains a very interesting and well composed narrative of the twelve incursions into India, made by the famous Mahmud, first Emperor of Gazna of that name. Mohammedan zeal, and a love of pillage, are justly said to have equally animated the Mussulman invaders of India.

'Mahmud, inflamed with all the unrelenting bigotry of a true mussulman, at his accession to the throne of Gazna, had made a solemn vow to Heaven, that if ever he should be blessed with profound tranquillity in his own dominions, he would follow the example of his father, in attacking with his whole force, the idolaters of Hindostan. That period was now arrived. His stern justice and politic wisdom made him respected at home, while his valour and martial skill rendered him dreaded abroad. It was a period of repose and felicity to Gazna; but pregnant with storms and tumults, and dismay to Hindostan. In the year one thousand of the Christian æra commenced the earliest of those TWELVE dreadful irruptions, in which, as is well observed by Mr. Orme, he treated the unfortunate Indians, "with all the rigour of a conqueror, and with all the fury of a converter;" in which the innumerable symbols erected in their temples and palaces, by a philosophical and ingenious people, intended to represent the deity and his various attributes, but stigmatized by their more pagan invaders, as unmeaning idols, were compelled to bow before the crescent of Mohammed; in which her pagodas, those stupendous structures, supposed too vast to be the labour of mortal hands, and therefore attributed to celestial architects, were defaced, and where practicable, fired or levelled by his desolating arm; and in which her long-accumulated and heaven-devoted treasures were violated and dispersed by a barbarous and rapacious soldiery

'Lahore was the first object of his attack, and of this province, as allusions to it will frequently occur in these pages, the reader will not be displeased with the following short account from the Ayeen Akbery and the Indian Antiquities. Lahoor, or Lahore, is one of the largest, richest, most fertile, and populous provinces of India, and is watered by five large rivers, whence its native name of Panjab, from PANJ, five, and AB, water. Its length given in the Ayeen Akbery, is 180 coss; and its breadth 86, which taking the coss, with Major

Rennell, at two British statute miles, makes the former 360, and the latter 172 miles. Its exact boundaries having varied from time to time, under successive conquerors, are not necessary to be assigned in this general sketch. They have, however, been hinted at before. These rivers uniting below Multan, form the Sinde or Indus. Lahore, its capital, is situated in the 31st degree of north latitude; and stands on the banks of the Rauvee, the ancient Hydraotes. It is a city of such great antiquity, that if it be not in reality the Bucephala of Alexander, as has been with reason supposed, it will be extremely difficult to fix for certainty upon its founder; for the Ayeen Akbery is silent on the subject.

'Lahore, lying on the direct road that leads into the heart of Hindostan, has ever been harassed, both in ancient and modern æras, by the armies of contending princes, and has experienced every vicissitude to which the alternate triumph and defeat of the sovereign can subject a capital. From the time of Alexander to the present day the Panjab has been more deeply stained with blood than any other province of the empire: and the frequent battles that have been fought within its territory, have probably continued to keep alive that ardour of fortitude for which its rajahs, and the subjects under their government, have been ever distinguished. They opposed with vigour the progress of the Macedonian invader, and the generals of Valid were prevented, as we have seen, principally by the valour of those frontier warriors from penetrating to the Ganges.

'By a prince thus resolutely determined on invasion and war, opportunity would soon be found for renewing hostilities with Jeipal, the nearest Indian rajah on his eastern frontier, and the plea of either retarded or diminished tribute, did in fact immediately bring down upon Peishore, a dependency of Lahore, the new sultan of Gazna, at the head of ten thousand of his chosen horse. Jeipal, though he had been before vanquished by Subuctagi, did not decline the contest, but collecting an army of twelve thousand horse and thirty thousand foot, supported by three hundred chain elephants, advanced to give the invader battle. Contempt, either for the youth, or the comparatively small force of Mahmud, or perhaps an ardent ambition to retrieve his former disgrace, might induce the rajah to this imprudent step. The event was, that after an engagement long and obstinately maintained by both parties, Mahmud, notwithstanding the vast inferiority of his army, in point of numbers, was completely victorious, killed five thousand of Jeipal's troops, and took the rajah himself, together with many of his friends and relatives prisoners. Of the immense booty obtained on this invasion, by Mahmud, some faint idea may be formed from this circumstance, that, round the neck alone of the captive sovereign, were found suspended sixteen strings of jewels, each of which was valued at one hundred and eighty thousand rupees, or about three hundred and twenty thousand pounds sterling. The spoil produced by the capture of the others, and the plunder of the Indian camp, must have been proportionably great. Jeipal, together with his friends and relatives, were at length liberated, on paying a large ransom, and the obligation of an highly increased tribute. Stung with shame and sorrow, the unhappy and degraded monarch returned to his capital,

capital, and there overcome by a tempest of passions, partly impelled by his agitated feelings, and partly in obedience to a custom then prevalent among the Hindoos, which forbad a rajah, who had been twice vanquished by the Mussulmans, longer to hold the reins of government, he resigned the throne to his son. He then ordered a funeral pile to be prepared and kindled, and leaping into the flames, died, according to Hindoo prejudice, as heroically as he had lived.'

The remainder of this detail is full of interest, and affords abundant matter for reflection to the intelligent reader.

The third and concluding book of this volume brings down the history from the death of Mahmud, to the moment immediately preceding the invasion of the dread Timur. It includes the accounts of the Gaznavide, Gauride, and Charazmian Dynasties, and of the Afghan Dynasties, in which Delhi was made the capital of their territories.

The ensuing extract, which relates to the reign of the fourth prince of the Gaznavide race, discovers the spirit which animated the warfare of that period:

'Burning with resentment against the whole family of Mahmud Gaznavi, for the dreadful and sacrilegious devastations they had, during a period of forty years, committed in Hindostan, in A. D. 1041, the rajahs of the northern provinces combined together, to expel his posterity from all its boundaries. The apparent imbecillity of the Gaznavian empire, drained both of its soldiers and treasure, by frequent and bloody contests with the Seljukian Turks, gave new animation to their hopes of revenge; and the Brahmins, actuated by a holy fury, against the fierce destroyers of their idols, endeavoured by every possible artifice, to keep alive the fire of that impetuous zeal that glowed in every bosom. At the head of this combination, as first in power and eminence, was the rajah of Delhi, who left that city with a most numerous army, that in its progress multiplied itself in such a degree as to sweep all before it. The recovery of the castle of Hussi was the first object of their attack. This they effected without difficulty; as no force which the Mohammedans had in that district, could resist the assault of so mighty an army. Tannassar, long defiled by the unhallowed footsteps of Mussulmen, [Mussulmans] again opened her gates to receive the devout worshippers of her numerous, but degraded divinities. The fort of Naugracut was the next object of assault, but being a more important post, was both more strongly fortified, and more vigorously defended. For four months the resolute garrison, expecting daily succours from Lahore, resisted with equal firmness, every hostile attack, and every overture for accommodation, from the besieging enemy. That the ardour of the assailants might not grow languid during this investment, a story was propagated through the camp, to which the enthusiasm of those bigots listened with extreme avidity, and which not a little contributed to their ultimate success.

'It was reported that the rajah of Delhi had seen a vision, in which the great idol of Naugracut, whose image had been first muti-

lated, and then sent to Gazna by Mahmud, had appeared to him, and informed him, that having now revenged himself upon Gazna, he would meet him at Naugracut, in his former temple. The rumour of this vision, industriously spred far and wide by the interested policy of the Brahmins, drew from all quarters, the infatuated populace, who eagerly enlisted under the banners of a chieftain marching to battle by the command and under the auspices of heaven. By this pious fraud, the multitude were wrought up to such a pitch of superstitious frenzy, as rendered them absolutely irresistible, and the garrison of Naugracut, wearied out, and almost famished for want of provision, were at length compelled to capitulate. It is impossible to describe the general and frantic joy, which this event inspired, especially when the idol itself, or rather an exact representation of it, made at Delhi, and secretly conveyed by the Brahmins, under cover of the night, into the fort, appeared the following morning, conspicuously erected in the centre of the consecrated grove. At the sight of the idol, a shout of tumultuous ecstasy burst from the throng, who exclaimed, that their divinity was returned from Gazna. They then bore him on their shoulders in triumph, to his ancient temple; with circumstances of great pomp and magnificence, celebrated his restoration to his former honours; and renewed their pious vows with additional fervour.

'The fame of this idol was henceforth so widely and generally diffused through that country, that thousands came daily to worship at his shrine, from all parts of Hindostan. Others came to consult him as an oracle upon all occasions of importance, and no expedition was undertaken without the sanction of the god. The mode of consultation was as follows: The person who came to inquire into futurity, after taking some dose of an opiate quality, administered by the Brahmins, reposed on the floor of the temple at the foot of the idol, till the morning, when relating his dreams to those artful priests, the chimæras of a heated and distempered brain, were interpreted by them to be the irrevocable decrees of destiny, productive of the fortune, and generally favourable to the suit, of the inquirer.

'Animated by the success of the rajah of Delhi, the different rajahs that reigned throughout the district of Panjab, who, from being more particularly under the eye, were restrained from hostility, by a more immediate awe of their haughty tyrants, now began to assume bolder confidence, and openly set their masters at defiance. Three of those rajahs with ten thousand horse, and an innumerable army of foot, advanced to Lahore, and invested that ancient city. The Mohammedans, in defence of their laws, families, and effects, exerted all imaginable valour upon this occasion, during the space of seven months; defending the town, street by street: for the walls being decayed, were soon laid in ruins. Finding, however, that in the end they must be rooted out by this defensive mode of war, unless they had speedy succours from Gazna, they bound themselves by a solemn oath, to devote their lives to victory or martyrdom, and suddenly sallying out of the city, presented themselves before the enemy's camp in order of battle. The Hindoos, astonished at their unexpected appearance, or intimidated by the daring resolution they dis-

played, betook themselves instantly to flight, and were pursued with great slaughter, by the triumphant foe.'

The conflict, hardly paralleled even in the bloody annals of Asiatic warfare, between the terrible Gengis and Mohammed the Charazmian, with its causes, and the result, are such as must particularly fix the attention of the reader; and they are so singular that we are induced to add the passages in which they are detailed, although this article is already too much lengthened.

'GENGIS KHAN'S INVASION OF SOUTHERN ASIA.

'Triumphant on every field where his banners had hitherto been displayed, they represent to us the emperor of the Moguls as content with his large acquired moiety of divided Asia, as anxious to cultivate friendship and commerce with the Charazmian monarch; as sending successive ambassadors to announce these friendly sentiments, and confirming them by ample presents of the richest productions of his country. The stern, suspicious, unaccommodating nature of the sultan, led him to consider those presents as snares, and those ambassadors as spies. His haughty soul brooked not a rival, especially an infidel rival; and secretly meditated that dreadful blow which, though it convulsed Asia, and plunged myriads of human beings into the abyss of eternity, he seemed to think deserving of the great Mohammed, in the full career and confidence of victory, to strike. The species of insult which he offered to Gengis, was of a nature never to be forgotten or forgiven. In every age, and among the most barbarous people the character of an *ambassador*, the image of the sovereign, has ever been held sacred. The arrestation and murder, by his order, of three ambassadors and a caravan of peaceable merchants at Otrar, instantly became the bloody signal of a war interminable, unextinguishable, but by the death of one or of the other of the royal champions. Called upon by fresh ambassadors, dispatched by the policy of Gengis to demand an explanation of the fact, the sultan returned no other answer than a repetition of the daring crime; and the heads of three other noble Moguls, severed by the sabres of his attendants, while delivering their master's commands, stained with blood the foot of the throne of the perfidious tyrant. Gengis, on receiving this intelligence, in the fury and anguish of his heart, is said to have separated himself for three days and three nights, from his family, and during that space, to have devoutly supplicated the assistance of heaven against a monster black with so many crimes. It is added, but by a Christian historian, (Abulfarajius,) that on the third night, a person in the habit of a Christian monk appeared to him in a dream, and encouraged him to fear not, but instantly lead his troops to battle; a relation justly rejected by his more modern biographer, as unworthy a Christian monk, and the God of Christianity. The spirit that incited Gengis to arms was the dæmon ambition, and the vision which he beheld was the vast and beautiful landscape of southern Asia, full of noble cities, abundantly stored with the costly articles of luxurious com-

merce reciprocal among various and distant nations, that had grown rich under the protection of the more peaceable sultans of the Gaznavide and Seljuk dynasties. Though plunder and aggrandizement were the real, the primary object of Gengis; yet the murder of his ambassadors was a theme on which he neglected not to expatiate in terms of the warmest and bitterest invective; imparting in a bold and manly strain of eloquence, the fire and vengeance that glowed in his own bosom, to those of his sons and his courtiers. The battalions of his immense army were instantly put in motion; the arms of the common men were the sabre, the bow, the quiver full of arrows, and the battle-axe. All the officers of this army were clothed in complete suits of mail, and their horses also wore breast plates of iron, and other defensive armour impenetrable by the arrows of the enemy. The positive order of Gengis was, that every man should fight in his station till he conquered or fell; the flight of individuals or of single squadrons, was to be punished with instant death, by their nearest comrades. By a singular law of the military code of Gengis, it was ordained, that if *ten* commanders at the head of their combined squadrons, the whole army being divided into bodies regulated by that number, should think it necessary to *retreat*, they were at liberty to do so; but smaller parties, by a retrograde movement, rushed only on inevitable destruction. In this manner disciplined and armed, the soldiers of Gengis, under the command of himself and his four valiant sons, marched forth to battle, and on a review previous to the engagement, were found to consist of no less than seven hundred thousand men; MEN, says the historian, of an athletic make, of high-braced vigorous sinews, impatient for action, breathing nothing but war and blood; yet though fiery, perfectly obedient to their prince: MEN, who unlike the dainty Moslems, could banquet on any kind of food, wolves, bears, and dogs; MEN able to brave the rigours of every climate, and soundly slumber on a bed of flint.

'Mohammed, without terror, heard from his scouts the details of their number and ferocity. He considered these savage hordes as utterly destitute of all true military science, and as unable to stand before the veteran conquerors of Persia, who had triumphed over the bravest nations of Asia, and who themselves amounted to four hundred thousand fighting men, being the flower of the warlike regions dispersed over the domains of this mighty prince in Iran, Transoxiana, Chorasan, and all the vast frontier of Western India. The terrible concussion of two such immense armies can be better conceived than described. It took place, according to Le Croix, at Karaku, near Otrar, north of the river Jaxartes, in A.H. 615, or A. D. 1218, a memorable epoch in Eastern annals, being the date of the first grand irruption of the Moguls and Tartars into Southern Asia, and with such intense fury did the battle last, that the darkness of the night alone separated the contending armies. The ensuing morn discovered a sight horrible to humanity, one hundred and sixty thousand Charazmians, and a still more numerous body of Moguls, weltering in an ocean of human blood. A dreadful pause ensued; the Charazmian army retired within its lines, where for some days it remained strongly intrenched,

intrenched, to avoid the hazard of surprize from the Moguls, and at length a retreat before so potent and still numerous an enemy was resolved upon, and effected. All the considerable cities and strong holds of Charazm and Transoxiana were powerfully reinforced with fresh troops; and the sultan hoped to retard, at least, if not to weary out, the Mogul emperors, by the length of tedious sieges, and the desultory harassing attacks of a large flying army of horse, of one part of which he took himself the command, and gave the other to his brave son, Gelaleddin, who had gloriously distinguished himself during the late severe engagement. But Gengis had four sons, lions in courage like himself, and these were placed at the head of armies vast in numbers, and ever supplied with fresh recruits from the still overflowing tribes of the north. Opposition from a routed and dispirited army was utterly fruitless. Otrar, though it had been recently strengthened with a body of no less than sixty thousand troops, after a desperate resistance of five months, fell beneath the vigorous assaults of his sons OCTAI and ZAGATHAI. The subjugation of the other great cities lying on or near the Jaxartes, particularly the celebrated and well fortified city of Cogende, situated in about the latitude of 41° 25′, was committed to his eldest son TUSHI; and it must be owned, that if the besiegers shewed invincible courage in assailing, the besieged, in every instance, resisted with an ardour and an obstinacy that evinced equal loyalty to their prince, and love of their country. But the due reward of unsuccessful valour was not allotted to the unfortunate Charazmians by the ungenerous Moguls. After being despoiled of their property they were generally led forth to be butchered in cold blood, without distinction of either age or sex, by their savage conquerors, who, under the pretext of avenging the outrage and murder at Otrar, seemed to delight in shedding torrents of Mohammedan blood: unconscious of pity, and callous to all remorse.'

The exploits of the brave Gelaleddin are recorded in a manner worthy of the subject: indeed the narrative shews to great advantage the talents of Mr. Maurice, and proves that he wants nothing from Nature to intitle him to class in the first rank of historians.

In relating the end of Gengis, the author accompanies it with a very striking observation:

'After recovering Tangut by his arms, and awing China to peace by the terror of his frown, this great, this politic, but stern and sanguinary prince, being seized with a fever, the consequence of extreme grief for the loss of his most beloved son, Tushi Khan, expired on his march into the latter country, in the latter end of A.H. 623, or A.D. 1226, in the seventy-third year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign. He who without pity had slaughtered above two millions of the human race, had made so many children fatherless, and so many fathers childless, yet could not bear the loss of one son, though three remained to cherish his declining age:—astonishing proof of exquisite sensibility and the most callous ferocity dwelling in the same bosom.'

In the history of the second Gauride Dynasty, founded by Cuttub, with the exception of the prosperous and splendid reign of Balin, the reader will find nothing that can greatly interest him.

Among the monarchs with which the Chilligi tribe furnished Delhi, Alla, an usurper, alone attracts our regard by his able and successful administration. The successive invasions of the Deccan, the first of which he conducted, and the incredible booty which they yielded, impart very high interest to this portion of the Indian narrative.

The present volume closes with the extinction of the Afghan Dynasty; in the next, the author proposes to place before the reader that great scourge of the Eastern world, the dreadful Timur: on which occasion we shall be again happy to pay our respects to Mr. Maurice, trusting that we shall meet him chargeable with fewer faults, and retaining his present claims to praise.

A coloured map of Hindostan is prefixed to Part II.

ART. VII. *The History of England,* from the Peace of 1783 to the Treaty concluded at Amiens in 1802: being a Continuation of Coote's 'History of England from the earliest Dawn of Record to the Peace of 1783' By the Author of the former Part. 8vo. pp. 466. 8s. Boards. Kearsley. 1803.

OUR readers have already * been sufficiently informed of the merits of this writer as an historian, for we have introduced him to their acquaintance as accurate and well-informed, moderate and candid. Though in his pages we are not enlightened by what is termed the philosophy of history, we are never startled by paradox, nor disgusted by prejudice. Though his style is not marked by strength, nor distinguished by elegance, it is never deficient in perspicuity and ease, and is remarkably exempt from every species of affectation. To his original design we objected, because we conceived it to be too comprehensive for an abridgment, and at the same time not sufficiently ample to give a satisfactory view of many interesting events in our annals: but the execution of the work we represented as reflecting credit on the talents and knowlege of the author.—Such being our sentiments, which we fully expressed, we are both sorry and surprized to learn from the Preface, that the writer has reason to be dissatisfied with the reception of his labours; which has proved so little favourable, as to make him regret *something beyond the loss of time* in presenting them to the public.

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* See Rev. Vols. xxviii. and xxix. N. S.

The

The critic's province, however, extending only to the *merits* of a work, we shall proceed to state the principal contents of this volume, and express our opinion of the manner in which it is executed.—Many great and important events form its subject; events at the same time of such late occurrence, as to prevent the necessity of our enlarging on them. The debates, to which his Majesty's indisposition in 1789 gave rise, are fresh in the recollection of most readers; the conduct, the progress, and the termination of Mr. Hastings's Trial are also so well known that, although this author's account is judicious and impartial, we deem it unnecessary to make any extract.—The insurrections of our seamen, and the rebellion in Ireland, with the subsequent union of the two countries, are narrated with impartiality and clearness. Of the latter event, Dr. Coote says that 'few are disposed to deny that it was one of the most judicious acts of this eventful reign;' indeed his Majesty, after its enactment, declared that he "should ever consider this great measure as the happiest event of his reign."

In the period embraced by the present volume, in addition to the occurrences which we have already mentioned, the author's attention has of necessity been directed to the French Revolution. The circumstances of this event, so far as they have had an influence on this country, are discussed by Dr. Coote in as satisfactory a manner as the circumscribed nature of his plan would admit; and the conduct and progress of the war, which it occasioned, are fairly and succinctly narrated. On the subject of the Treaty of Amiens, which the ambition of our enemy had *virtually* infringed, and thus again involved us in the miseries of war, the historian shall speak for himself:

'While this definitive treaty was yet unadjusted, a great force was deemed necessary for the national defence, as doubts were entertained of the pacific inclinations of the first consul of France. From the eagerness of the public for a complete peace, the interval of negotiation seemed a tedious delay; but the anxiety of suspense was at length removed. A treaty was signed at Amiens by the marquis Cornwallis and Joseph Bonaparté, differing from the preliminaries in the following points. A part of Portuguese Guiana was given up to the French by a new adjustment of boundaries. With regard to Malta, it was stipulated that no French or English *tongue*, or class of knights, should be allowed; that one half of the soldiers in garrison should be natives, and the rest should be furnished for a time by the king of Naples; that the independence of the island under the sway of the knights should be guarantied by France, Great Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia, and Prussia; and that it's ports should be free to all nations. It was agreed that the prince of Orange should receive compensation for his loss of property and of power. Persons who might hereafter be accused of murder, forgery, and fraudulent bankruptcy, were to be surrendered to the demands of each party.

'This

'This treaty was only opposed by a very small part of either house. Mr. Windham endeavoured to prove it's weakness, fallacy, and insecurity, and to rouse the zeal of the country against the insatiate eagerness of Gallic ambition, and the restless spirit of Jacobinical machination. In discussing the terms to which we had agreed, he contended that we had placed Malta in the hands of the French; that the cape of Good Hope was in fact at their disposal; that, from this settlement and Cochin, they might make hostile preparations against British India; and that we had suffered them to trick us in that part of the negotiation which concerned Portugal. He blamed the ministers for the non-revival of former treaties, as the omission might affect our interests in the bay of Honduras, and even shake the foundation of our power in India. He also complained of their acquiescence in the cession of Louisiana to the French, who by this advantage, might obtain the command of North America, while that of South America would be in a great measure secured to them by the medium of the river of Amazons. In treating of the war, he lamented that it had been pursued merely as a common war, and that it had not been carried on with that extraordinary spirit which alone could prevent the mischievous extension of Jacobinical principles.

'Our exertions, he thought, had by no means been equal to our resources; and we certainly had not been successful in repelling the danger which we sought to avert. We had suffered the French to acquire as great a degree of power in ten years, as the Romans had obtained in several centuries. While we were menaced by their ambition, we ought to be extremely vigilant and alert; and he would therefore move for an address to his majesty, promising to keep inviolate the public faith, but hinting a disapprobation of some of the engagements into which he had entered, and requesting him to take measures, both by negotiation and by ample establishments naval and military, for obviating the danger that might arise from such stipulations, or from other circumstances in the posture of affairs. Lord Hawkesbury was sensible of the enormous aggrandisement of the French republic, but did not deem that a sufficient reason for an indefinite continuance of the war. He was surprised at the apprehensions entertained by Mr. Windham of the influence of France in North and South America, as it appeared to him to be very inconsiderable. He maintained that the treaty amply provided, by a strong guaranty, for the independence of Malta; that, while we had a powerful army, we had no cause to be alarmed at the sway which the French might obtain at the Cape; that, though we had resigned many of our conquests, we had insisted on retaining two of the most important naval stations in the East and West Indies; and that the ministers had, in all the proceedings, consulted the honor and security of the nation as strenuously as any of the opponents of the peace could expect upon an impartial review of the state of Europe at the time of the negotiation. Mr. Dundas highly disapproved the cession of Malta and the Cape; yet refused to concur in a vote of censure. Mr. Addington allowed, that the treaty was not such as the people could receive with extravagant joy or exultation; but he did not think it dishonorable. He had endeavoured to procure

procure the best terms, and, in agreeing to those which were now concluded, he had yielded to the dictates of prudence. Mr. Sheridan imputed greater blame to those ministers who had reduced the country to a state which rendered such a peace necessary, than to those who had concluded the treaty.

'Only twenty members voted for the address proposed by Mr. Windham, while 276 gave their suffrages against it. An amendment moved by lord Hawkesbury, expressing an approbation of the treaty, was then adopted. A debate of the same kind occurred in the house of peers, on the motion of lord Grenville for an address of dissatisfaction. The duke of Norfolk having suggested such an amendment as coincided with the views of the ministry, a majority of 106 voted in support of the peace.

'In negotiating a pacification, three objects ought to be kept in view—*honor*, *advantage*, and *security*. That we succeeded in all these desirable points of attainment, none will be so hardy as to affirm. After the frequent boasts of a full determination of acquiring indemnity, the dereliction of the far greater part of our conquests, and the loss of the effect of a brilliant series of naval triumphs, besides a very oppressive augmentation of the national debt, present a scene remarkably and essentially different from the prospect to which we were taught to look forward. The *honor* of a negotiation does not consist in being dislodged from the commanding posts which the conductors of the war affected to occupy and to secure, or in being successively driven to the last verge of evasion; nor will such a close of hostility be considered as a material *advantage* by the generality of political speculators; and in point of *security*, we have less reason to boast of our complete ability of self-defence than we had before the war commenced it's mischievous career. Yet the ministers deserve not the severity of censure. They had a difficult task to execute. The unfortunate predicament in which the preceding leaders of the cabinet had involved the nation, rendered peace particularly necessary; and the extraordinary and portentous increase of the power of France, with the high claims of a nation which accused Great-Britain of the guilt of aggression, precluded the hope of favourable or beneficial terms. Viewed with reference to this state of affairs, the treaty of Amiens calls for acquiescence and approbation, rather than disgust, objection, or complaint; and if it should not be permanent, the fault will be that of the rash statesman whose impolicy promoted by war the extension of Gallic power, not that of the prudent minister whose endeavours were exerted for the restoration of peace. In the mean time, let us not give way to pusillanimity or despondence. Though our security has been diminished, our resources are by no means contemptible. Confining our views to insular defence, we may defy the threatening storm; and, by the terrors of a naval war, we may humble the arrogance of the enemy, and produce a desire of continued peace.'

We believe that the majority of the country entertained sentiments regarding the Treaty of Amiens, similar to those which are here expressed by Dr. Coote.

With

With the succeeding account of Mr. Burke, some of our readers will be dissatisfied, as deeming it scarcely just to the merits of that very extraordinary man:

'In the last month of this session, the country was deprived, by death, of the political exertions of one of the greatest men of the age —Mr. Edmund Burke. He had for some time retired from parliament, having resigned his seat to his son, whose decease in the flower of his age was a great shock to his declining parent. That Mr. Burke possessed great abilities, and a genius superior to that which is usually observed among mankind, will not, we think, be denied by any one. He had a great compass of mind, a considerable share of learning, and a never-failing stream of eloquence. He adorned every subject which he handled, and animated every speech with the excursions of fancy and the charms of imagery. His allusions, however, were sometimes of the coarsest kind, drawn from the lowest objects of nature and of art. He was too digressive, frequently deficient in argument, and so absurdly hyperbolical, that he would magnify a speck to an immense body, or, if it equally suited the temporary purpose of his oratory, would diminish a mountain to a mole-hill. His invectives, both in speaking and writing, were so bitter and severe, that they seemed to argue a malignity of disposition, though they rather proceeded from an irritability of temper. His political principles were more favourable to aristocratical claims than to popular freedom; and he was in his heart a Tory even when he affected (during the American war) to be a zealous Whig. In private life he was generally benevolent and friendly; a kind husband, father, and master. He was a pleasing and instructive companion; and no one could long be a witness to his conversation without being convinced of the great extent of his understanding.'

We close our extracts with the account of Mr. Pitt's Resignation; a passage in which we were sorry to observe some contemptuous expressions, which are not usual with Dr. Coote when speaking either of men or of measures:

'In these debates, occasional reference was made to the case of the Hibernian catholics, whose claims, after the completion of the act of union, formed a particular subject of discussion in the cabinet. The premier and lord Grenville represented an acquiescence in the wishes of those sectaries as necessary for the perfect consolidation of the interests of the united kingdom, and affirmed that, as no danger could arise from it, policy required the concession. Several of the royal counsellors expressed opposite sentiments; and his Majesty took a decided part in the dispute, alleging that the oath taken by him at his coronation precluded his assent to a scheme which might in its consequences endanger the religious establishment. As this repugnance obstructed the recommendation of the measure to the parliament, and diminished the probability of its success, Mr. Pitt declared that he conceived himself bound by his duty, his conscience, and

and his honour, to resign that situation in which he was not at full liberty to pursue his ideas of equity and public benefit. His resignation was accepted, as was also that of lord Grenville; and earl Spencer, at the same time, relinquished all concern in the affairs of the admiralty, which he had directed with credit to himself and advantage to his country.

'Whether the reason alleged by Mr. Pitt for his retreat from office formed his real motive, or was merely a pretext, may fairly be doubted. We are inclined to imagine, that he was less influenced on this occasion by the disappointment of his hopes of gratifying the catholics of Ireland, than by a wish to extricate himself, with some appearance of honour, from that unpleasant situation in which he had involved himself by his declarations and his conduct during the war. He was convinced that peace was the general desire of the nation; and, being apprehensive that his efforts for procuring it would not be successful, as he had rendered himself highly obnoxious to the rulers of France, he resolved to give way to the appointment of a successor, and thus make an opening for an effectual negotiation. His mode of retreat, under the pretence of a dispute respecting the catholics, was not very manly; but, as the effect was fortunate, we shall not be severe in examining or arraigning the policy which led to it.

'After some deliberation, his Majesty selected Mr. Addington for the office of his first minister. That gentleman had long been an intimate friend of Mr. Pitt, whose influence had placed him in the chair of the house of commons, which he filled with high reputation. In point of oratory he is inferior to his patron, but is perhaps equal to him in political wisdom. This, indeed, is faint praise from one who never considered Mr. Pitt as a very judicious or able statesman. Lord Hawkesbury was selected for the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of lord Grenville; and the earl of St. Vincent was deemed a proper successor to earl Spencer.

'The minister elect having resigned the office of speaker, Lord Hawkesbury moved that Sir John Mitford should be called to the chair; and the house agreed to the proposal. The aspiring member hinted, that he did not consider this dignity as the *ne plus ultrà* of his ambition, but merely as a step to other honours and emoluments.'

We shall now dismiss this Article, with the observation that the present volume forms a very fit companion for its predecessors; and that together they present a satisfactory view of our history.

ART. VIII. *Letters written by the late Earl of Chatham* to his Nephew Thomas Pitt, Esq. (afterwards Lord Camelford) then at Cambridge. Crown 8vo. pp. 130. 5s. Boards. Payne. 1804.

THIS little volume possesses so many claims to notice, that we are happy in introducing it thus early to the acquaintance of our readers. In these Letters, we view Lord Chatham in

in a very different light from that in which we have been accustomed to contemplate him. Instead of the commanding orator, or the accomplished statesman, we here see him engaged in the duties of domestic life, and exercising the powers of his enlightened understanding in the education of a near relative. The instructions given by him are of the purest nature, and calculated to produce a perfect character; and he directs the attention of his pupil chiefly to the practice of moral and religious duties, which are represented as the groundwork of all human excellence. The Letters, indeed, exhibit those virtuous and admirable sentiments, which rendered the noble writer a fit companion for West and Lyttelton; and they discover that similarity of character, in the most essential particulars, which must have rendered the meetings of these illustrious men at Wickham so peculiarly interesting. "West was very often," says Johnson, "visited by Lyttelton and Pitt, who, when they were weary of faction and debates, used at Wickham to find books and quiet, a decent table, and literary conversation. There is at Wickham a walk made by Pitt; and, what is of far more importance, at Wickham Lyttelton received that conviction which produced his *Dissertation on St. Paul.*"—This volume evidently shews that its author derived his share of improvement from so beneficial an intercourse, and that he was anxious to contribute it for the advantage of others.

The Letters are only twenty-three in number, and some of them are remarkable merely as proceeding from so distinguished a character, while others are recommended by intrinsic excellence. The composition of them is not always polished and correct, but displays the ease of unstudied and familiar correspondence.—Of their authenticity, no doubt can be entertained, since they are edited by Lord Grenville, and by him dedicated to the present Mr. Pitt.

The third and fourth Letters we shall entirely transcribe, on account of the importance of the advice which they inculcate:

'Your letter from Cambridge affords me many very sensible pleasures: *first*, that you are *at last* in a proper place for study and improvement, instead of losing any more of that most precious thing, time, in London. In the next place that you seem pleased with the particular society you are placed in, and with the gentleman to whose care and instructions you are committed: and above all I applaud the sound, right sense, and love of virtue, which appears through your whole letter. You are already possessed of the true clue to guide you through this dangerous and perplexing part of your life's journey, the years of education; and upon which, the complexion of all the rest of your days will infallibly depend: I say you have the true clue to guide you, in the maxim you lay down in your letter to me, namely, that the use of

of learning is, to render a man more wise and virtuous; not merely to make him more learned. Macte tuâ Virtute; Go on, my dear boy, by this golden rule, and you cannot fail to become every thing your generous heart prompts you to wish to be, and that mine most affectionately wishes for you. There is but one danger in your way; and that is, perhaps, natural enough to your age, the love of pleasure, or the fear of close application and laborious diligence. With the last there is nothing you may not conquer: and the first is sure to conquer and inslave whoever does not strenuously and generously resist the first allurements of it, lest by small indulgencies, he fall under the yoke of irresistible habit. Vitanda est Improba Siren, Desidia, I desire may be affixt to the curtains of your bed, and to the walls of your chambers. If you do not rise early, you never can make any progress worth talking of; and another rule is, if you do not set apart your hours of reading, and never suffer yourself or any one else to break in upon them, your days will slip through your hands, unprofitably and frivolously; unpraised by all you wish to please, and really *unenjoyable* to yourself. Be assured, whatever you take from pleasure, amusements, or indolence, for these first few years of your life, will repay you a hundred fold, in the pleasures, honours, and advantages of all the remainder of your days. My heart is so full of the most earnest desire that you should do well, that I find my letter has run into some length, which you will, I know, be so good to excuse. There remains now nothing to trouble you with but a little plan for the beginning of your studies, which I desire, in a particular manner, may be exactly followed in every tittle. You are to qualify yourself for the part in society, to which your birth and estate call you. You are to be a gentleman of such learning and qualifications as may distinguish you in the service of your country hereafter; not a pedant, who reads only to be called learned, instead of considering learning as an instrument only for action. Give me leave therefore, my dear nephew, who have gone before you, to point out to you the dangers in your road; to guard you against such things, as I experience my own defects to arise from; and at the same time, if I have had any little successes, in the world, to guide you to what I have drawn many helps from. I have not the pleasure of knowing the gentleman who is your tutor, but I dare say he is every way equal to such a charge, which I think no small one. You will communicate this letter to him, and I hope he will be so good to concur with me, as to the course of study I desire you may begin with; and that such books, and such only, as I have pointed out, may be read. They are as follows: Euclid; a Course of Logic; a Course of experimental Philosophy; Locke's Conduct of the Understanding; his Treatise also on the Understanding; his Treatise on Government, and Letters on Toleration. I desire, for the present, no books of poetry, but Horace and Virgil; of Horace the Odes, but above all, the Epistles and Ars Poetica. These parts, Nocturnâ versate manu, versate diurnâ. Tully de Officiis, de Amicitiâ, de Senectute. His Catilinarian Orations and Philippics. Sallust. At leisure hours, an abridgment of the History of England to be run through, in order to settle in the mind a general chronological order and series of principal events, and

succession

succession of kings: proper books of English history, on the true principles of our happy constitution, shall be pointed out afterwards. Burnet's History of the Reformation, abridged by himself, to be read with great care. Father Paul on beneficiary Matters, in English. A French master, and only Molière's Plays to be read with him, or by yourself, till you have gone through them all. Spectators, especially Mr. Addison's papers, to be read very frequently at broken times in your room. I make it my request that you will forbear drawing, totally, while you are at Cambridge: and not meddle with Greek, otherwise than to know a little the etymology of words in Latin, or English, or French: nor to meddle with Italian. I hope this little course will soon be run through: I intend it as a general foundation for many things, of infinite utility, to come as soon as this is finished.

'Believe me,
With the truest affection,
My dear Nephew,
Ever yours.

'Keep this letter and read it again.'

'You will hardly have read over one very long letter from me before you are troubled with a second. I intended to have *writ* soon, but I do it the sooner on account of your letter to your aunt, which she transmitted to me here. If any thing, my dear boy, could have happened to raise you higher in my esteem, and to endear you more to me, it is the amiable abhorrence you feel for the scene of vice and folly, (and of real misery and perdition, under the false notion of pleasure and spirit,) which has opened to you at your college, and at the same time, the manly, brave, generous, and wise resolution and true spirit, with which you resisted and repulsed the first attempts upon a mind and heart, I thank God, infinitely too firm and noble, as well as too elegant and enlightened, to be in any danger of yielding to such contemptible and wretched corruptions. You charm me with the description of Mr. Wheler *, and while you say you could adore him, I could adore you for the natural, genuine love of virtue, which speaks in all you feel, say, or do. As to your companions let this be your rule. Cultivate the acquaintance with Mr. Wheler which you have so fortunately begun: and in general, be sure to associate with men much older than yourself: scholars whenever you can: but always with men of decent and honourable lives. As their age and learning, superior both to your own, must necessarily, in good sense, and in the view of acquiring knowledge from them, entitle them to all deference, and submission of your own rights to theirs, you will particularly practise that first and greatest rule for pleasing in conversation, as well as for drawing instruction and improvement from the company of one's superiors in age and knowledge, namely, to be a

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' * The Rev. John Wheler, prebendary of Westminster. The friendship formed between this gentleman and Lord Camelford at so early a period of their lives, was founded in mutual esteem, and continued uninterrupted till Lord Camelford's death.'

patient

patient, attentive, and well bred hearer, and to answer with modesty: to deliver your own opinions sparingly and with proper diffidence; and if you are forced to desire farther information or explanation upon a point, to do it with proper apologies for the trouble you give: or if obliged to differ, to do it with all possible candour, and an unprejudiced desire to find and ascertain truth, with an entire indifference to the side on which that truth is to be found. There is likewise a particular attention required to contradict with good manners; such as, begging pardon, begging leave to doubt, and such like phrases. Pythagoras enjoined his scholars an absolute silence for a long noviciate. I am far from approving such a taciturnity: but I highly recommend the end and intent of Pythagoras's injunction; which is to dedicate the first parts of life more to hear and learn, in order to collect materials, out of which to form opinions founded on proper lights, and well-examined sound principles, than to be presuming, prompt, and flippant in hazarding one's own slight crude notions of things; and thereby exposing the nakedness and emptiness of the mind, like a house opened to company before it is fitted either with necessaries, or any ornaments for their reception and entertainment. And not only will this disgrace follow from such temerity and presumption, but a more serious danger is sure to ensue, that is, the embracing errors for truths, prejudices for principles; and when that is once done, (no matter how vainly and weakly,) the adhering perhaps to false and dangerous notions, only because one has declared for them, and submitting, for life, the understanding and conscience to a yoke of base and servile prejudices, vainly taken up and obstinately retained. This will never be your danger; but I thought it not amiss to offer these reflections to your thoughts. As to your manner of behaving towards these unhappy young gentlemen you describe, let it be manly and easy; decline their parties with civility; retort their raillery with raillery, always tempered with good breeding: if they banter your regularity, order, decency, and love of study, banter in return their neglect of them; and venture to own frankly, that you came to Cambridge to learn what you can, not to follow what they are pleased to call pleasure. In short, let your external behaviour to them be as full of politeness and ease as your inward estimation of them is full of pity, mixed with contempt. I come now to the part of the advice I have to offer to you, which most nearly concerns your welfare, and upon which every good and honourable purpose of your life will assuredly turn; I mean the keeping up in your heart the true sentiments of religion. If you are not right towards God, you can never be so towards man: the noblest sentiment of the human breast is here brought to the test. Is gratitude in the number of a man's virtues? if it be, the highest benefactor demands the warmest returns of gratitude, love, and praise: Ingratum qui dixerit, omnia dixit. If a man wants this virtue where there are infinite obligations to excite and quicken it, he will be likely to want all others towards his fellow-creatures, whose utmost gifts are poor compared to those he daily receives at the hands of his never failing Almighty Friend. Remember thy Creator in the days of thy youth, is big with the deepest wisdom: The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom;

and, an upright heart, that is understanding. This is eternally true, whether the wits and rakes of Cambridge allow it or not: nay, I must add of this religious wisdom, Her ways are ways of pleasantness, and all her paths are peace, whatever your young gentlemen of pleasure think of a whore and a bottle, a tainted health and battered constitution. Hold fast therefore by this sheet-anchor of happiness, Religion; you will often want it in the times of most danger; the storms and tempests of life. Cherish true religion as preciously as you will fly with abhorrence and contempt superstition and enthusiasm. The first is the perfection and glory of the human nature; the two last the depravation and disgrace of it. Remember the essence of religion is, a heart void of offence towards God and man; not subtle speculative opinions, but an active vital principle of faith. The words of a heathen were so fine that I must give them to you: Compositum Jus, Fasque Animi, Sanctosque Recessus Mentis, et incoctum generoso Pectus Honesto.

'Go on, my dear child, in the admirable dispositions you have towards all that is right and good, and make yourself the love and admiration of the world! I have neither paper nor words to tell you how tenderly

'I am yours.'

On the subject of behaviour, we find some excellent rules; which, notwithstanding the extent of the preceding quotation, we shall venture to quote:

'Behaviour is of infinite advantage or prejudice to a man, as he happens to have formed it to a graceful, noble, engaging, and proper manner, or to a vulgar, coarse, ill bred, or awkward and ungenteel one. Behaviour, though an external thing which seems rather to belong to the body than to the mind, is certainly founded in considerable virtues: though I have known instances of good men, with something very revolting and offensive in their manner of behaviour, especially when they have the misfortune to be naturally very awkward and ungenteel; and which their mistaken friends have helped to confirm them in, by telling them, they were above such trifles, as being genteel, dancing, fencing, riding, and doing all manly exercises, with grace and vigour. As if the body, because inferior, were not a part of the composition of man: and the proper, easy, ready, and graceful use of himself, both in mind and limb, did not go to make up the character of an accomplished man. You are in no danger of falling into this preposterous error: and I had a great pleasure in finding you when I first saw you in London, so well disposed by nature, and so properly attentive to make yourself genteel in person, and well-bred in behaviour. I am very glad you have taken a fencing master: that exercise will give you some manly, firm, and graceful attitudes: open your chest, place your head upright, and plant you well upon your legs. As to the use of the sword, it is well to know it: but remember, my dearest nephew, it is a science of defence: and that a sword can never be employed by the hand of a man of virtue, in any other cause. As to the carriage of your person, be particularly careful, as you are tall and thin, not to get a habit of stooping; nothing has so poor a look:

look: above all things avoid contracting any peculiar gesticulations of the body, or movements of the muscles of the face. It is rare to see in any one a graceful laughter; it is generally better to smile than laugh out, especially to contract a habit of laughing at small or no jokes. Sometimes it would be affectation, or worse, mere moroseness, not to laugh heartily, when the truly ridiculous circumstances of an incident, or the true pleasantry and wit of a thing, call for and justify it; but the trick of laughing frivolously is by all means to be avoided: Risu inepto, Res ineptior nulla est. Now as to politeness; many have attempted definitions of it: I believe it is best to be known by description; definition not being able to comprise it. I would however venture to call it benevolence in trifles, or the preference of others to ourselves in little daily hourly occurrences in the commerce of life. A better place, a more commodious seat, priority in being helped at table, &c. what is it but sacrificing ourselves in such trifles to the convenience and pleasure of others? And this constitutes true politeness. It is a perpetual attention, (by habit it grows easy and natural to us), to the little wants of those we are with, by which we either prevent, or remove them. Bowing, ceremonious, formal compliments, stiff civilities will never be politeness: that must be easy, natural, unstudied, manly, noble. And what will give this, but a mind benevolent, and perpetually attentive to exert that amiable disposition in trifles towards all you converse and live with? Benevolence in greater matters takes a higher name, and is the queen of virtues. Nothing is so incompatible with politeness as any trick of absence of mind. I would trouble you with a word or two more upon some branches of behaviour, which have a more serious moral obligation in them, than those of mere politeness; which are equally important in the eye of the world. I mean a proper behaviour, adapted to the respective relations we stand in towards the different ranks of superiors, equals, and inferiors. Let your behaviour towards superiors, in dignity, age, learning, or any distinguished excellence, be full of respect, deference, and modesty. Towards equals, nothing becomes a man so well as well-bred ease, polite freedom, generous frankness, manly spirit always tempered with gentleness and sweetness of manner, noble sincerity, candour, and openness of heart, qualified and restrained within the bounds of discretion and prudence, and ever limited by a sacred regard to secrecy, in all things entrusted to it, and an inviolable attachment to your word. To inferiors, gentleness, condescension, and affability, is the only dignity. Towards servants, never accustom yourself to rough and passionate language. When they are good we should consider them as humiles Amici, as fellow Christians, ut Conservi; and when they are bad, pity, admonish, and part with them if incorrigible. On all occasions beware, my dear child, of Anger, that dæmon, that destroyer of our peace. Ira furor brevis est, animum rege qui nisi paret Imperat, hunc frænis hunc tu compesce catenis.'

These Letters are introduced to the knowlege of the public by a Preface written by Lord Grenville, in which we perceive many marks of a discriminating judgment, correct taste,

and a strong attachment to those immutable laws of morality and religion, without an attention to which the interests of society can never be long preserved. The noble editor has ventured in some particulars to differ from his author; on the subjects of Bolingbroke and Clarendon he thus expresses himself:

'Some early impressions had prepossessed Lord Chatham's mind with a much more favourable opinion of the political writings of Lord Bolingbroke, than he might himself have retained on a more impartial reconsideration. To a reader of the present day, the "Remarks on the History of England" would probably appear but ill entitled to the praises which are in these letters so liberally bestowed upon them. For himself, at least, the editor may be allowed to say, that their style is, in his judgment, declamatory, diffuse, and involved: deficient both in elegance and in precision, and little calculated to satisfy a taste formed, as Lord Chatham's was, on the purest models of classic simplicity. Their matter he thinks more substantially defective: the observations which they contain, display no depth of thought, or extent of knowledge; their reasoning is, for the most part, trite and superficial; while on the accuracy with which the facts themselves are represented no reliance can safely be placed. The principles and character of their author Lord Chatham himself condemns, with just reprobation. And when, in addition to this general censure, he admits, that in these writings the truth of history is occasionally warped, and its application distorted for party purposes, what farther notice can be wanted of the caution with which such a book must always be regarded?

'Lord Chatham appears to have recommended to his nephew, at the same time, the study of a very different work, the history of Clarendon: but he speaks with some distrust of the integrity of that valuable writer. When a statesman traces, for the instruction of posterity, the living images of the men and manners of his time; the passions by which he has himself been agitated; and the revolutions in which his own life and fortunes were involved, the picture will doubtless retain a strong impression of the mind, the character, and the opinions of its author. But there will always be a wide interval between the bias of sincere conviction and the dishonesty of intentional misrepresentation.

'Clarendon was unquestionably a lover of truth, and a sincere friend to the free constitution of his country. He defended that constitution in parliament, with zeal and energy, against * the encroachments of prerogative, and concurred in the establishment of new securities necessary for its protection. He did indeed, when these had been obtained, oppose with equal determination those continually increasing demands of parliament, which appeared to him to threaten the existence of the monarchy itself: desirous, if possible, to conciliate the maintenance of public liberty with the preservation of do-

'* See particularly the accounts, in Rushworth and Whitelock, of Clarendon's parliamentary conduct in 1640 and 1641; and of that of Falkland and Colpepper, with whom he acted.'

mestic

mestic peace, and to turn aside from his country all the evils, to which those demands immediately and manifestly tended *.

'The wish was honourable and virtuous, but it was already become impracticable. The purposes of irreconcileable ambition, entertained by both the contending parties, were utterly inconsistent with the re-establishment of mutual confidence. The parliamentary leaders openly grasped at the exclusive possession of all civil and all military authority: and on the other hand, the perfidy with which the king had violated his past engagements still rankled in the hearts of his people, whose just suspicions of his sincerity were continually renewed by the unsteadiness of his conduct, even in the very moments of fresh concession: while, amongst a large proportion of the community, every circumstance of civil injury or oppression was inflamed and aggravated by the utmost violence of religious animosity.

'In this unhappy state the calamities of civil war could no longer be averted: but the miseries by which the contest was attended, and the military tyranny to which it so naturally led, justified all the fears of those who had from the beginning most dreaded that terrible extremity.'

'At the restoration the same virtuous statesman protected the constitution against the blind or interested zeal of excessive loyalty; and, if Monk had the glory of restoring the monarchy of England, to Clarendon is ascribed the merit of re-establishing her laws and liberties. A service no less advantageous to the crown than honourable to himself; but which was numbered among the chief of those offences for which he was afterwards abandoned, sacrificed, and persecuted by his unfeeling, corrupt, and profligate master.

'These observations respecting one of the most upright characters of our history, are here delivered with freedom, though in some degree opposed to so high an authority. The habit of forming such opinions for ourselves, instead of receiving them from others, is not the least among the advantages of such a course of reading and reflection as Lord Chatham recommends.'

We cannot close our remarks without adding that the work has given us much gratification, and that we recommend it to the attention of others from a conviction of its beneficial tendency.

'* A general recapitulation of these demands may be found in the message sent by the two Houses to the King, on the 2d of June, 1642; a paper which is recited by Ludlow as explanatory of the real intentions of the parliament at that period, and as being "in effect the principal foundation of the ensuing war."

1 Ludlow, 30. ed. 1698.

ART. IX. *Epitome of the History of Malta and Gozo.* By Charles Wilkinson. Crown 8vo. pp. 210. 6s. Boards. Miller. 1804.

IN the compilation of this volume, Mr. Wilkinson professes to have been actuated by a desire of gratifying the wishes of the public, who may fairly be supposed to be solicitous of information on the subject about which he treats. It is well known that Russia has cast many longing looks towards Malta, and that France is extremely reluctant to abandon the hope of re-possessing it; while our strenuous retention of it, notwithstanding the treaty of Amiens and the wrath of the *new* emperor, is an indisputable proof of the high importance which we attach to it both in a commercial and a military view. From our intelligent or scientific countrymen, who may either belong to the garrison of Malta, or who may have been induced to visit this spot in consequence of our complete possession of it, more recent and in some respects more satisfactory details may be expected *: but, till these are prepared, Curiosity must be contented to feed on such matter as this epitome serves up to her table. To say the truth, Mr. W. has not been a dull and lazy caterer. He has collected numerous particulars relative to the antient and modern history of Malta, including that of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, its antiquities and natural history, fertility, population, the customs, manners, and religious ceremonies of its inhabitants; and his work will be found both instructive and amusing, though it may not be altogether free from error.

The antient history of Malta is not attempted to be traced any higher than to the time of the Phæacians; when, we are informed, it bore the name of Hyperia, and was inhabited by a race of giants. Ciantar, in his large work intitled *Malta Illustrata*, (of which Mr. W. has made considerable use,) says that bones of an unusual size are often dug up in the island of Gozo; and mention is here made of the remains of an edifice of enormous stones, which some writers have assigned to the Phæacians: but, says the epitomizer, they are only the efforts of art or the sports of nature. What can be the meaning of this sage observation?

The modern name of the island, Mr. W. supposes, was given to it by the Greeks, who succeeded the Phœnicians in the possession of it, and 'who called it Melita, either on account of its excellent honey, or in honour of the nymph Melita, daughter of Doris and Nerea:' but, in the last volume of the

* Our readers have already been presented with some of these accounts, in Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. pp. 78. &c. and 129.

Archæologia,

Archæologia, which we have just received, we observe a paper by Mr. Stephen Weston, giving an explanation of an unpublished Phœnician coin, whence it appears that the name of Malta was assigned to this island by Phœnician colonists, who migrated thither as to a place of refuge; מלט, from which is derived *Melita*, signifying *refugium*.

Descending to the period of the Romans, their possession of this island is duly noticed; with the statement that 'about the year 56, St. Paul was shipwrecked on the rocks which form the entrance of what is now called the Port of St. Paul.' From the hasty adoption of this vulgar opinion, it is evident that Mr. W. has never perused a Dissertation by the learned Mr. Bryant on this subject, published many years ago in his "Observations and Inquiries relating to various parts of ancient History;" of which an account will be found in M. R. vol. xxxvii. p. 349. Melita Illyrica, and not *Melita Africana*, was the island on which the Apostle was shipwrecked. The latter island lay out of Paul's track; it does not harbour serpents; nor, in the time of the Romans, could its inhabitants be represented as barbarians.

The history of the Order, with the mode of electing the Knights and the Grand Master, occupies several pages: but, as this order may now probably be considered as extinct, we shall not enter into any of these particulars. Since, however, the horrid practice of Duelling arose from chivalric institutions, it may not be amiss to lay before the reader the means adopted by the Order of Malta, for the purpose of checking though not of curing that evil:

'As the Order was founded on the principles of chivalry, they have ever found it too inconsistent with those principles to abolish duelling; but had laid it under such restrictions, as greatly to lessen its danger, which were curious enough. The parties were obliged to decide their quarrel in one particular street; and if they presumed to fight any where else, they were liable to the rigour of the law. But, what was not less singular, but much more in their favour, they were obliged, under the most severe penalties, to put up their swords when ordered by a woman, a priest, or a knight. Under these limitations, in a great city, one would imagine it almost impossible that a duel could ever end in blood: however, this was not the case. A cross was painted opposite to the spot where a knight had been killed, in commemoration of his fall; of which there are several. In the year 1770, two knights had a dispute at a billiard table; one of them, after a great deal of abusive language, added a blow; but, to the astonishment of all Malta (in whose annals there is not a similar instance), after so great a provocation, he absolutely refused to fight his antagonist. The challenge was repeated, and he had time to reflect on the consequences; but still he refused to enter the lists. He was condemned to make the *amende honorable* in St. John's

Church for forty five days successively; then to be confined in a dungeon, without light, for five years; after which, he was to remain a prisoner in the castle for life. The unfortunate young man who received the blow was likewise in disgrace, as he had not had an opportunity of wiping it out in the blood of his adversary.'

The population of Malta and Gozo is said, in the body of the work, to amount to 90,000: but, in the notes, we are informed that, when the French took possession of those islands, it was calculated at *one million!* This cannot be a fact.

Malta is represented as enjoying great fertility of soil, and its climate as so very salubrious that many of the inhabitants live to a great age, even to 130 years, and preserve their teeth to the last.

We extract, for the amusement of our readers, the following account of Maltese Marriages:

'The fathers concluded the marriages according to their own interests and convenience, without consulting the inclination of their children. When the contract was settled and the dowry stipulated, the young man sent to his intended a present of fish covered with garlands of ribands, and a gold ring in the mouth of that which was the most highly esteemed. They then settled the day of interview, which was to be in the presence of the parents and common friends, who were regaled with refreshments. A moment before the interview, the two mothers retired to prepare a composition of anise, aromatic plants, salt, and honey, with which they rubbed the lips of the bride, that her words might be sweet, sage, and prudent. She was then introduced to the bridegroom, who offered her a ring, on which were engraven two hands joined in token of fidelity, bracelets, necklace, and a gold chain; she presented in her turn a handkerchief edged with lace, and knots of ribands. On the wedding day, the most respectable of the bridegroom's relations placed on the head of the intended, a very fine white veil; she was dressed on that day in a velvet gown; others of the relations made holes in the gown, and put in little gold shells. They then went to church. Musicians and singers celebrated in couplets the praises of the happy pair: the musicians were preceded by three men, one of whom carried on his head a bason full of fresh cheese-cakes, on the largest of which were placed two small figs; he wore a scarf, from which hung a round cake called Collora. The second carried a basket full of sugar plums, which one of the relations distributed to his acquaintance as he met them; in the middle was a handkerchief folded up in the form of a pyramid, and ornamented with an image of the Virgin and Child, and St. Joseph. The third carried burning incense. The happy couple marched the last, under a canopy of crimson damask in festoons, carried by the four principal persons, and the parents closed the suite. The ringing of bells announced the arrival of the wedding; the priest received a bason containing a cake, a handkerchief, and two bottles of wine: after the benediction, they left the church in the same order they came. The whole ceremony generally lasted four

four hours. A servant placed at one of the windows of the house threw on the heads of the new-married couple, on their return, some handfulls of grain, and small money. The prejudice of the Maltese at that time was, that if the wife on her return first put her foot on the threshold of the door, she would rule; we may suppose from that, there were very few so polite as to let their wives go first. At the nuptial feast the wife eat in a separate apartment, or in a corner of the guest's room, surrounded by cloths to conceal her; after the repast she came and sat near her husband, and drank out of the same cup. In the casals they danced during the repast; every dancer threw a piece of money to the players, and each guest brought a fowl. Until the commencement of the present century, in the city the wedding balls were given after the Spanish fashion, and they danced with castagnettes. The young bride passed the first eight days in her father's house; after that she was pompously received by her husband, to whom the parents gave a ball and supper. The Maltese never married in the month of May: they had so little confidence in any work they undertook during the course of this month, that they would not even order a new coat. This superstition recalls to us the division which the Romans made of the year into lucky and unlucky days: it is thus we find, in the ancient Maltese manners, a great number of customs of different people of antiquity: it is necessary to retrace them, to give some explanation of the ceremonies which the mixture and application of pagan and Christian rites, have rendered singular and curious. Fish were regarded by the Syrians as household gods: these deities, by presenting themselves the wedding ring to the young betrothed, seem to call her by this signal into the house they protected. The Greeks wished that on her entrance her words should be agreeable to her husband; on this account they addressed their prayers to the god of eloquence.—Led afterwards to the altar of Hymen, the Romans offered her, in the garlands and knots of flowers the emblem of the duties and pleasures of wedlock. The Hebrews wished that her modesty might always distinguish her, and covered her head with a veil. Her husband was obliged to give her two rings, one of gold, and the other of iron; which custom has descended to us in the rings which open and shut, and on which are engraven names or mottos. The Greeks accompanied her to the temple with the most lively demonstrations of joy; she marched surrounded by dancers and singers; they held over the heads of her and her husband a crown of flowers; the first fruits of the year were laid at the feet of the statues of the gods; cakes were consecrated to the lares; and corn, nuts, and almonds were thrown about in token of abundance of prosperity.'

In the concluding chapter, some general observations on Malta are confusedly thrown together: nevertheless, as they contain the result of the author's inquiries and examination, we shall make some extracts from them:

'The Maltese architecture is much admired for these two qualities an exquisite taste in the forms of the masses, and a noble simplicity in the lesser parts. Almost every year vessels arrived at Malta with

with the plague on board, but the precautions were so great that it never spread through the island.—When the plan of the fort Cottonêre was shewn to Lewis XIV. he said, "It is a very fine work, but to be useful, it ought to be here."—It is astonishing to see the grandeur, fine architecture, decorations, marbles, and paintings of the churches in the Maltese villages. In no part of Europe are the country churches so sumptuous.—If all the lands in Malta were sown, the produce would be sufficient for the maintenance of its inhabitants; but as the cultivation of cotton is more lucrative, they prefer it to corn, which is imported from Sicily and Barbary: and the magazines in the castle of St. Elmo were generally provisioned for three years. The cotton plants are sometimes left in the ground for three or four years, and staked every spring, as raspberry plants are in England. This method saves the trouble and expence of sowing and cultivating it annually. In fruitful soils, every square piece of ground, containing 420 geometrical yards, produces 500 pounds of cotton.—Vegetables are very fine, and the fruits delicate. The oranges are well known. Flowers have a finer scent than any elsewhere, particularly the roses, so much esteemed by the Romans. Cicero reproaches Verres for being carried, like the kings of Bythinia, in a litter, on cushions of Maltese roses. The honey has a delicious flavour, and the ancients compared it to that of mount Hybla; Cicero says it is superior to that of any other country; and Verres carried off 400 jars (amphoræ) of it.—They reckon in the island above 80 fountains of fine water, which throw up such quantities, that in winter the greatest part runs into the sea.—Beef, veal, pork, and lamb are excellent, and game very common. The cranes of Malta made one of the luxurious dishes of the votaries of Lucullus and Apicius. The sheep are particularly productive; they have sometimes four, and commonly three lambs every year. There are a great many birds of passage, and falcons, which the Order used to send as presents to the courts of Europe. An animal peculiar to the island, is the small dog with long silken hair, which Buffon calls Bichon; and says it is a double mixture, proceeding from the little Spanish dog and the barbet. Linnæus mentions, that to impede its growth, its back bone should be rubbed with spirits of wine mixed with sour oil, and very little food given to it. Aristotle says, that, for their size, they are of the most perfect proportions. Timon paints to us the Sybarites going to the bath, followed by little Maltese dogs; but they have very much degenerated within these few years.—The terra Melitensis is a bole, very compact and heavy; it is esteemed as a cordial and sudorific, and is similar to the earth of Lemnos, so much boasted of in medicine. The calcareous earth is supposed to have a great affinity with the kaolin, to which china owes all its solidity. Prince Lambertini in Rome has made some experiments with this earth, relative to the composition of china, and he found it had the same properties as the kaolin.'—

'To a traveller who runs through Sicily, where there are neither roads nor inns, and who must be a pensioner on the bounty of the monks, who I acknowledge (as a tribute of gratitude) are most hospitably inclined towards our bodies, but our poor souls they consider

sider as doomed to eternal perdition,—the difference on landing in Malta is wonderfully striking. In Sicily you may travel a whole day without meeting a human being, and every object wears the marks of poverty and desolation; but in Malta all is life, animation, and activity, and all the luxuries of mental and animal gratification are spread out before you.—The Maltese speronara's are long, narrow, flat 6 oared boats, made entirely for speed; and will bear almost any sea in the Mediterranean. A speronara often brings over from Sicily four bullocks, a distance of at least 80 miles, and the channel is reckoned very dangerous; the prow is particularly sharp, and has an eye painted on each side; some of them have a fixed awning, under which two persons may sleep very comfortably. In the summer of 1796 we hired two to convey us to Naples, for ten louis each. When the wind will not allow of their using the sail, they row; but they do not pull their oars as we do, but push them always fronting the prow of the boat, and very seldom sit down. In calms they sing hymns, and invoke the Virgin for a prosperous gale; but alas! during our passage she was deaf to their prayers (probably on account of two heretics being on board,) for we were fourteen days making the passage; and night and day did these hardy sailors incessantly row.—The inhabitants of Gozo are said to be more industrious than those of Malta, as they are more secluded from the world and have fewer inducements to idleness. Their coverlits and blankets are much esteemed, and their silk stockings remarkably fine; some, they pretend, have been sold for ten sequins a pair. The red kind of oranges are produced from the common orange bud, engrafted on the pomegranate stock. The sugar cane is cultivated with success in Gozo, though not in any considerable quantity.'

Hence it appears that Mr. W. is not merely an epitomizer, but that he has himself visited Malta in the year 1796. Since that period, however, what changes has the island experienced!

A list of errata is subjoined, but it does not include all which the reader will find. In more than one place, the word *miasmæ* occurs for *miasmata*.

A map of Malta and Gozo faces the title of this neat little volume.

ART. X. *The Opportunity;* or Reasons for an Immediate Alliance with St. Domingo. By the Author of "the Crisis of the Sugar Colonies." 8vo. pp. 156. 5s. sewed. Hatchard. 1804.

THE same clear and penetrating mind which evinced itself in the "Crisis," &c. (see M. R. Vol. xl. N. S. p. 73) is displayed, with undiminished lustre, on the present occasion; and the sound good sense which this pamphlet contains will doubtless recommend it to the serious consideration of Government. The author, in addressing himself to the Prime

Minister, reminds him of those doctrines, advanced in "the Crisis," which events have elucidated; and calls on him to improve an opportunity of securing the good and of averting the evil, to which the new order of things in the West Indies promises to give birth. Amid the singular changes which "fill the *modern* cup of alteration," that which has taken place in the condition of the Negroes in the West Indies is not the least considerable; and it may lead to consequences of which short-sighted politicians are not aware. A colony of African slaves fighting for liberty against their former masters, and establishing themselves as an independent state, on one of the largest and most prolific islands of the Antilles, in spite of the strenuous exertions of one of the most powerful of the European Governments, is a phænomenon of which, even in the present circumstances of our empire, we ought not to lose sight. The question, which this sensible writer proposes for discussion, is, 'What is the line of conduct which a British Minister ought, at the present juncture, to adopt towards the people of St. Domingo?' and he offers it as his decided opinion that 'our Ministry ought, without delay, to acknowlege the liberty of the Negroes of St. Domingo, to enter into fœderal engagements with them as a sovereign and independent people; and not only to grant, but, if necessary, to volunteer a guarantee of their Independence against the Republic of France.'

To prove that this advice is not the fruit of rashness, but of sound judgment, is the object of the pamphlet before us; and the ingenious author invites the Minister to contemplate the question in the several lights in which it may be placed. He is fully persuaded that the line of conduct here recommended is absolutely essential to every plan of colonial policy, from which future security can be expected.

It was the opinion of this writer, and of other gentlemen well acquainted with the West Indies, that the Consul of France would be foiled in his views respecting St. Domingo; and that the contest would terminate in the establishment of the Sovereignty of the African race over that large and fertile island. Such has been the event. A new nation has, as it were, arisen out of the sea; and respecting this new people, we must adopt one of these four lines of conduct: 1. to interdict all commercial intercourse whatever between his Majesty's subjects and the people of St. Domingo; 2. to permit such intercourse, but without any conventional basis; 3. to enter into some commercial treaty or convention with the Negroe chiefs, not involving any relations closer than those of general

general amity and trade; or, 4. to adopt the decisive measure which this author ventures to recommend.

The first of these plans not being capable of complete execution, and if attempted being likely to operate more to our injury than to our benefit, is briefly dismissed by the author.

On the second, he observes that 'without a compact we can have no permanent privilege or favour in the ports of that island.'

'We are now in a situation to become not only the most favoured nation at St. Domingo, but even perhaps to obtain from this new people a monopoly of their trade; for we who alone can defy the resentment of France, can alone venture to contract with them at this critical period any fœderal relations. Herein consists one material advantage of that opportunity, to which I invite your attention'—

'A treaty of some kind, is the necessary medium of such an important acquisition; and if we are content with a mere tacit allowance of general trade, we shall be rivalled by other powers; and soon, in consequence of the advantages of neutral navigation now possessed by them, shall be undersold and virtually excluded from this valuable branch of commerce. We shall gratuitously relinquish in favour of America, Denmark, and Sweden a great, and perhaps hereafter an inestimable boon, which the circumstances of the present war, as some compensation for its evils, happily throw within our reach.

'North America bids fairest to be our great rival in the future trade of St. Domingo; but as the injured islanders have seen the American flag bringing supplies to their oppressors, during the deepest horrors of the late dreadful contest, they can at this moment have no predilection for the people of that country; while our present hostility to the Republic, and the assistance we have given in blockading the French armies in their ports, must dispose them very favourably towards ourselves.'—

'Extend your view, Sir, to that future complete restitution of the agriculture of this vast island, which is at least a possible, and in my poor judgment, no improbable, or distant event. Reflect that upon such a restitution, we might import from St. Domingo, alone, far more in bulk and value of the rich tropical productions than all the other islands in the West Indies now collectively afford, and have a million or more of new transatlantic customers to lay out in our manufactures nearly the whole value of their produce; and then ask yourself whether such prospects as these, with such present benefits in advance, ought to be wantonly or for slight reasons renounced? Reject them at this moment, and they will certainly be lost for ever.'

The third plan is condemned as an half and inefficient measure; and the superior policy of the fourth is fully explained:

'A treaty or an intercourse merely commercial, would be so far from producing these important consequences, that our disposition to form such relations, and to stop short at that point might furnish arguments

arguments against us to the advocates of the Republic. Such a half measure under present circumstances, might speciously, nay, it might truly, be represented, rather as a proof of our incurable hostility to the freedom of the African race in the Antilles, than any symptom of a contrary disposition. That we advanced so far, might be reasonably acribed to commercial cupidity; that we offered no closer relations, could only be accounted for by what may be too fairly imputed to us, a bigoted antipathy to the new order of things in St. Domingo.'

The writer deprecates the return of this island under the dominion of France, and urges the Minister to take prompt and effectual measures for preventing it:

'We must not again suffer fifty or sixty thousand French troops to be transported to the West Indies; for we cannot rely that the folly and bigotry of the present, or any future French government, will again deliver us from the jeopardy of such an experiment. Had not the present war arrived in time to stop the pretended Louisiana expedition, we might have found that even the proud and inexorable Consul, when on the point of a new quarrel with this country, could have sacrificed his thirst for African blood, to his hatred of England; and found better employment for his recruited army, than hunting down with blood hounds their human game among the Mornes of St. Domingo.'

Reasoning on the nature of the case, the author thus attempts to justify the treaty which he urges us to make with the new sovereign of St. Domingo, who has restored to it the antient name of *Hayti*:

'France, by her own act,—whether intentionally or through the unforeseen effect of her domestic revolutions, is immaterial,—has created a new political power in the Antilles; a power dangerous perhaps in itself, but which in her hands would inevitably be destructive, to the security of its colonial neighbours. She has therefore imposed upon us a necessity of treating this new power as independent; and of engaging it, if we can, in such connections, as may exclude her influence or authority over it in future.'—

'That St. Domingo, whatever course we take, will one day be mistress of the Western Archipelago, is indeed highly probable; and that the shocking slavery of our colonies cannot much longer be maintained, is sufficiently certain; but by a just and rational policy, we might be enabled to look forward to the progress not only of African freedom, but of African sovereignty, in the West Indies, with satisfaction rather than dismay.'

The author thus concludes his reasoning and advice:

'The grand consideration of all is the highly probable, and most pernicious alternative to this alliance, a reconciliation between the new people and France. That they may not speedily become your formidable enemies, you must make them your obliged allies. You must guarantee their independence against the Republic, that they

they may not, to the ruin of your colonies, fall in their enfranchised state, and with their new-born energies, under her dominion, or her influence. Of such a reconciliation there is danger perhaps even at the present moment; but upon the conclusion of the war, at latest, such an event will almost infallibly ensue, unless precluded by the wise measure which I advise you now to adopt. Supposing the Republic even to be rash enough to recur to her counter revolutionary efforts, the folly would only retard, not ultimately prevent, a coalition fatal to our colonies, would subject them to new intermediate perils, and leave them exposed in the sequel, to dangers not less imminent than those with which they are at present menaced, without leaving a British minister at liberty to employ those means of prevention, which may now be unobjectionably used.

'The evils therefore which exist, and those which are likely to arise, the dangers of the war, and those to which peace will give birth, admit but of one remedy; are to be prevented or lessened by one only expedient. If you would wield the sword without new disadvantages, if you would sheath it without peril to our colonies, and if you would diminish the difficulties which oppose the restitution of peace, you must embrace without delay, the present opportunity; you must adopt the measure I propose. A wall of perpetual separation between France and St. Domingo must necessarily be built; and therefore the liberty and independency of the new people must be acknowledged, and must be placed under British protection. By that wise use of the present opportunity, and by that mean alone, the great revolution which has taken place in the West Indies, an event pregnant perhaps with grander, and more lasting effects, than any of the late revolutions of Europe, may be rendered wholly innoxious, nay, largely beneficial to this country; and pernicious only to that unprincipled power, which first rashly made, and then wickedly tried to reverse it.'

Regarding the present as intimately connected with the author's former pamphlet, and as discussing a subject of much greater magnitude and importance than the public at large seem to be aware, we have been induced to allot to it a larger space than we usually assign to publications of this size; and we make no doubt that the extracts given in this article will amply justify our conduct. We must add, however, that through the whole of this argument the writer presumes on the disposition of the Blacks of St. Domingo to enter into an amicable treaty with the British Government; while the recent information of the newspapers, if such may be credited, assures us that overtures of this nature have been already made, but that this sable colony, flushed with its victory over the French troops, cherishes the most extravagant ideas of its own consequence, and insists on terms totally incompatible with an amicable arrangement with Great Britain: yet it may be objected by this author that we have only endeavoured to tempo-

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rize with them, and have not adopted his broad plan of conduct. It may be so: but if the demands of the inhabitants of Hayti, or of Dessalines their chief, be such as the public papers state, these people are not yet in a temper of mind to conclude a treaty to our advantage. Still the thoughts here suggested should be kept in view; and no opportunity ought to be lost, to improve to our security and to profit by that black empire in the West, which at present lowers with so terrific an aspect over our possessions in that region of the globe.

In conclusion, the author warmly espouses the cause of the Negroes; reprobating, in the most pointed terms, that greatest opprobrium of the commercial Christian world, the Slave-Trade. Being a firm believer in the moral Government of God, he does not hesitate to afford us his view of the subject in connection with this idea:

'Yes, Sir, however it may revolt the prejudices of many who regard the raising our eyes beyond second causes, as no part of political wisdom, I will freely confess, that I can hope no good result from the measure here recommended, or from any other precautions of national prudence, while we continue to defy the justice of Omnipotence, by the horrible iniquities of the Slave Trade.

'I know the unequalled miseries inflicted upon myriads of the children of Adam, by that commerce; I know the horrors of the system which it feeds and perpetuates; I believe, that there is a righteous governor of the earth; and therefore I dare not hope well of the fortunes of my country, while she stands with an impious obduracy, between the mercy of God, and the deliverance of Africa.

'Nor are there symptoms wanting, which appear to develope a providential plan, for the relief of that much injured race, and the punishment of their oppressors.

'In the wonderful events and coincidences which have planted, fostered, and defended, the liberty of St. Domingo, I seem to see that hand by which the fates of men and nations are directed. I seem to see it in that strange train of public evils, which, since the first blaze of light revealed the full guilt of the Slave Trade, and since we rejected the loud call for reformation, have chastised our national obduracy. I seem to see it, in the dark clouds which now menace the domestic security, the idolized wealth, the happiness, and even the liberty and independency, of my country.'

Though we hope that the author's imagination paints a darker cloud as hanging over Great Britain than really exists, we are not insensible to the intimate connection which subsists between national virtue and national prosperity, nor to the horrible judgment in which mighty empires have been involved by their own iniquities.

ART.

ART. XI. *Medicina Nautica;* an Essay on the Diseases of Seamen: comprehending the History of Health in the Channel for the Years 1799, 1800, and 1801. Vol. III. By Thomas Trotter, M. D.; late Physician to his Majesty's Fleet, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WE have more than once had occasion to notice the very commendable zeal and industry for which the author of this volume has been distinguished, in the useful and honorable situations which he has filled in the British Fleet *. The present publication is the last which he means to compose on nautical medicine: but, in a future edition, it is his intention to incorporate with his work any observations which may be transmitted to him relative to the subject of it. The first part of this volume gives, like its predecessors, a history of the health of the fleet; and the remainder is composed of observations, by himself or correspondents, on various topics connected with naval discipline or diseases.

Dr. Trotter merits every portion of credit for his persevering exertions to increase the comforts, and improve the accommodations, of our brave seamen; and in some important particulars he has been able to effect very salutary changes, more especially in the ventilation of ships, the separation of the diseased, and the supply of vegetable and fresh animal food. Little can be done by medical men, unless commanding officers are disposed to co-operate with and sanction their endeavours; and we are happy to find, that the present work abounds with instances of the great attention which officers are disposed to give to subjects connected with the health or comfort of their crew.—The *Markham sick-mess*, as planned by Capt. (now Admi.) Markham, described in the present volume, is an admirable example of how much may be done by a judicious commander in the furtherance of these important objects:

'The plan is to establish a mess for the sick, by the consent of each ship's company, which is to be done from the salted provisions, &c. which the sick are unable to use when indisposed, and confined to the sick-berth. There are numerous diseases, when it is either improper for the patient to use the ship's diet, or when, from want of appetite, he dislikes it. A large allowance, therefore, goes to his mess-mates, which, if not devoured by them, has often been sold on shore to disadvantage. Now, instead, of this superabundant allowance being given to a man whose appetite rejects it, or to his mess-mates who may sell it for bad purposes, Captain Markham of the Centaur has long been in the habit of directing the purser to keep a

* See M. R. N. S. Vols. xxiii. and xxxii.

book of credit for all such provisions, from a list daily furnished by the surgeon, which credit goes to the use of the sick, and is converted into a fund for supplying live-stock, whether sheep or poultry, porter, vegetables, fruit, &c. when the ship goes to sea; from this also new bread is daily baked for the use of the whole.'—'The fund of a mess, well supported in most ships, would even afford to keep a cow for the use of the sick, which would certainly be the first and greatest comfort that could be bestowed.'

It must give every one great satisfaction to find that the gallant Tar, who passes a life of danger in the service of his country, can, when sick, be thus supplied in an easy, effectual, and cheap mode, with many of the comforts and indulgencies of private life; and we earnestly hope that so noble an instance of paternal care may not only receive the support of every humane and considerate officer in the service, but be enjoined by the higher powers. The author takes much pains to enforce, wherever he can, the attentions to proper ventilation which he has so often strenuously recommended, as the best means of preventing or removing fevers: but he never can do this, without at the same time throwing out very harsh observations against the use of mineral acid vapours, as destroyers of infection. This seems to be a favourite and lasting ground of invective with Dr. Trotter; who on the subject of contagion seems to have acquired an extraordinary degree of irritability, which is, on every occasion, anxious to shew itself.—The question on the use of these vapours is not, however, in our opinion, susceptible of being determined from the evidence which is here given; and we doubt much whether any new practice could ever receive a fair and candid examination, with the unfavourable predispositions which the author and many of his correspondents in this particular case seem to entertain.

We have not always approved Dr. T.'s reasoning on medical or chemical subjects; and we conceive that prejudice alone can make him see any force in the argument, which he adduces as so decisive against the use of acid vapours, viz. that it is necessary to know the precise nature of contagion, before we can attempt to neutralize or destroy it.—Dr. Trotter, we presume, will hardly be inclined to admit the application of this argument in his own practice, where (unless his speculations are more fortunate than they appear to us in every case to have been) he must occasionally prescribe for and perhaps sometimes cure diseases, the nature of which he has not been precisely able to demonstrate.

The chapters on Typhus and Contagion are principally composed of the histories of fevers which appeared in the Fleet,

Fleet, transmitted to the author by Navy Surgeons. Many of them discover marks of observation and experience, though the general results do not add much to our knowlege of the subject. Documents of this kind may indeed be prolonged to an indefinite extent, without bearing with them a proportional advantage.—A very fair opportunity presented itself, in the treatment of Fevers in Seamen, for trying the effects of the cold affusion recommended by Dr. Currie. This, as well as cold ablution, we are informed, was sometimes employed: but we have not in most of the cases a sufficient number of particulars, to judge of the degree of benefit received from those practices.

A short chapter gives an account of the progress of vaccination; and a subsequent section contains observations on Pneumonia, Catarrh, and Ophthalmia.—The consideration of Phthisis Pulmonalis follows; a disease which, as far as the author's experience proves, is most effectually to be prevented, or cured, by invigorating means.—A very good chapter is allotted to spasmodic and nervous affections, which are described as frequently shewing themselves in the stoutest and bravest seamen, accustomed by education and habit to adventure, and familiar with danger in every shape:

'An inaptitude to muscular action, or some pain in exerting it; an irksomeness or dislike to attend to business or the common affairs of life; a selfish desire of engrossing the sympathy and attention of others to the narrative of their own sufferings; with fickleness and unsteadiness of temper, even to irascibility; and accompanied more or less with dyspeptic symptoms; are the leading characteristics of nervous disorders, to be in general referred to debility, increased sensibility, or torpor of the alimentary canal.'

These symptoms the author has seen varied in numerous shapes; and he has frequently observed, at one time, several well marked cases of hysteria. He considers the monotonous life of a sailor as particularly disposing him to such complaints; and in general he concludes that any causes which tend to debilitate the system, particularly the stomach and bowels, have a similar effect. Tonic medicines, but more especially change of scene, and gentle exercise on shore, are the best remedies for these disorders.—Nostalgia is not infrequent, as may be supposed from the severe circumstances under which sailors are often taken on board ships of war.

The efficacy of vegetable acids in the cure of scurvy is now fully ascertained, and government affords a considerable supply for the use of the Navy. The author, however, deems it highly improper that there should be a regular daily allowance of lemon juice to sailors, whether they have any symptoms of

scurvy or not: he is still of opinion that scurvy arises from a defect of oxygen in the system, and that the vegetable acids operate in curing it by supplying the want of this principle: but this conjecture is by no means satisfactorily proved. Much may be likewise done, in effecting a cure, by fresh animal food, as well as vegetable; and many of the substances, which afford oxygen in the largest quantity, are found insufficient for curing the disease; as, for example, the mineral acids. Something, it appears, must be attributed to the radical as well as to the acidifying principle.

The last chapter treats on the subject of the malignant ulcer, which so often appears in sailors from very trivial accidents, as slight cuts or scratches; and which so much resembles that which sometimes shews itself in hospitals. Dr. Trotter considers it as depending very materially on the use of spirits, to which sailors are so much accustomed, and on the want of pure air. He is not able to recommend any effectual mode of treatment, but is disposed to agree with Dr. Mitchell in the idea of its being of an acid nature, and therefore capable of being removed by alkalis, such as the carbonate of potash. The supposed production of this disease does not seem reconcileable to that tendency to scurvy, which foul air and irregularities have been, in similar circumstances, calculated to excite.

Having thus made a few observations on some of the more important parts of this work, it would be injustice to the author to take leave of it, without bearing testimony also to his earnest endeavours to improve the situation of Navy Surgeons and Mates; whose encouragement is not yet sufficient for the nature of the important services which it is their duty to perform. Indeed we have pleasure in admitting, that Dr. Trotter appears to be animated with a most ardent zeal for the service of his country; and in retiring from his public duties, he has the prospect of enjoying the approbation of all those who are acquainted with his active exertions in the Navy. It is impossible for us to correctly appreciate the various obstacles and discouragements which the Doctor has experienced, in the course of his attempts at reform: but, howmuchsoever he may have been chagrined by them, we hope that he will reflect on the impossibility of avoiding this fate in such a career, and that he will have his ample reward in the testimony of an approving conscience.

ART.

ART. XII. *Elements of Galvanism, in Theory and Practice;* with a comprehensive View of its History, from the first Experiments of Galvani to the present Time. Containing also, Practical Directions for constructing the Galvanic Apparatus, and plain systematic Instructions for performing all the various Experiments. Illustrated with a great Number of Copper plates. By C. H. Wilkinson, Lecturer on Galvanism in Soho-square, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, &c. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. with Plates. 1l. 1s. Boards. Murray. 1804.

SINCE the period at which Galvani first discovered the effects of metallic influence, in producing muscular contractions in dead animals, an immense number of curious and interesting facts on the same subject have been brought forwards; and a new science thus seems to have sprung up within a few years, possessing a considerable variety and extent, and promising to reward the labours of the philosopher by inductions of high interest and importance. If our expectations have not yet been fully realized, we may still hope that time, and a fortunate concurrence of circumstances, will throw more light on the nature of Galvanism, and establish its utility in various obstinate diseases to which it has been supposed that it might be successfully directed.

The author of this production has performed an acceptable service to the public, by collecting and arranging the various facts and doctrines which have appeared in different quarters, on the subject of Galvanism, and thus affording a connected view of the progress and present state of this science. The analysis of every work and memoir, of any consequence, which relates to this influence, is given at considerable length: but though this amplitude of detail is not without its use to the student, it has nevertheless made the publication more than necessarily diffuse.

The first volume, and nearly one half of the second, are occupied with an account of the principal facts and reasonings relating to Galvanism, which were adduced both before and after the discovery of the Voltäic Pile. Some of the most singular are those mentioned by Aldini, the nephew of Galvani, on the mode in which this influence is capable of being excited. He found that the simple contact of the nerves with the muscles is sufficient to produce contractions, without the interposition of any metallic substance; and hence he concludes, with Galvani, that there is a peculiar fluid, inherent in the animal machine, which is capable of producing this phænomenon, independently of the influence of metals, or of any foreign cause. His experiments were made by bringing the denuded sciatic nerves into contact with the muscles of the thigh, deprived of their integuments; when contractions,

similar to such as occurred in the customary Galvanic experiments, were immediately produced. By the influence of warm blooded animals, he was also able to excite convulsions in the cold. For this purpose, a finger of the operator, moistened in salt and water, was thrust into one of the ears of an ox recently killed; the nerve of a prepared frog, held in the other hand, was then made to approach the tongue of the ox; and, at the instant of contact, convulsions were excited. Contrary to the observations of most other experimentalists, Aldini found that the heart was not affected by Galvanism.

The experiments of Galvani first drew the attention of scientific men to the existence of a till then unknown influence, capable of being generated in different ways. It had ceased, however, to produce any considerable interest, when the discovery made by Volta, of a mode of concentrating Galvanic influence, by a series of metallic plates properly disposed, renewed a lively sensation in the philosophical world, and again excited to this subject a vigorous attention. Till the period at which this discovery was communicated, 'Physiologists had turned their attention entirely to the disturbance of the muscular fibre. In increasing the scale of their experiments, they confined themselves altogether to the augmentation of the animal substances employed. With this view batteries of frogs were arranged; but no idea seems to have been entertained of what was to be expected from an increase of the series of metals.' The mode of constructing the pile was from time to time considerably improved: but it was at length found, that the readiest and most effectual mode of exciting the Galvanic influence is by means of a wooden trough, with transverse grooves made in it, into which are inserted alternate plates of zinc and copper, cemented together in such a way as to prevent the cells from communicating. Into the cells is poured a solution of an acid, alkali, or neutral salt, but generally the former; and, on completing the communication between the extremities, a shock is felt or a spark seen.—When an acid is used, the oxyd, which is formed on the zinc, is dissolved; and thus the plates are kept clean, without the necessity of removal from the trough.

'Soon after the important communication of Volta on the self-charging power of his moto electric apparatus, the celebrated French chemists, Fourcroy, Vauquelin, and Thenard, supposing *à priori* that the effects would be in proportion to the metallic surfaces exposed, constructed plates of zinc and copper about nine or ten inches in diameter. The plates which had been previously employed, rarely exceeded the size of half-a-crown. As one of these large plates exposed

exposed a surface about 40 times * greater than that of the small plates it was expected that the effects produced from ten such plates would have equalled the effects of four hundred of the smaller ones; but, to their great surprize, the above experimenters found that the sensations were the same, from an equal number of each; and that the extent of surface did not make any sensible difference. The power appeared to be regulated by the number of the plates, and not to be influenced by the surfaces exposed. They were equally surprized, when they found that a series of ten large plates, the effects of which on the human frame could with difficulty be perceived, possessed a power of burning finely drawn wires, and of deflagrating laminated metals, such as gold and silver leaves, equal to that of four hundred smaller plates, the sum of whose surfaces was equal to the surface of the larger ones. These curious facts led to an important deduction, that the influence of the galvanic fluid on the human frame, is in proportion to the series, or number of the plates employed; while its effects on metals are in the ratio of the surface exposed.'

We deem it unnecessary to go farther in our relation of the ample details given in this work, on the diversified mode in which Galvanic influence is excited, and on the different hypotheses which have been formed to account for it. We shall pass on, therefore, to the chapter which treats of the Influence of Galvanism on the Animal Functions.—It appears to the author, that respiration is the function in which this influence is most concerned; for he considers it as an important Galvanic operation, and the lungs themselves as affording a well-marked instance of a structure similar to that of the electric organs of the Torpedo. By the constant succession of shocks which is supposed to be communicated from the lungs, a stimulus is afforded to the 'organized and animated parts' of the body, by which heat is produced, and the other animal functions enabled to be properly exercised, without the necessity of having recourse to the irregular and unequal action of respiration; the unstable and uncertain exercise of which would place the system in a very dangerous predicament:

'On every exertion, and on every sudden alteration of temperature, the secretions would vary; and the body would be in a state of constant changes. Is this consonant with the uniformity, the admirable regularity which is observed? with the inherent power, the *vis medicatrix naturæ*, which acts equally against excessive heat or intense cold? If these changes should be too violent for her efforts to withstand, her preserving temperature can only be destroyed by the destruction of life also.'

'* A half crown measures about 1½ inch in diameter, and the diameters of the large plates being estimated at 10 inches, as the areas of circles are in proportion to each other as the squares of their diameters, the ratio will be as 100 are to 2¼, or as 1 is to 40.'

Mr. W. informs us that he considers his doctrines as something more than a "*rudis indigestaque moles.*" He offers them as the result of long and mature reflection; and he says that they received so little opposition, when read before several of the London Medical Societies, that they are regarded by him as completely stamped with the approbation of the 'learned members.'—Without meaning to throw any kind of improper reflection on the societies to which the author alludes, we should be inclined to doubt whether the little opposition, which his doctrines received, could form an unequivocal proof of approbation; and even if it be so considered, we should not be disposed to concede so much weight as the author assigns to the opinions of the gentlemen who in general compose the attending part of such societies. They are mostly young men; and though they may be very earnest in the prosecution of their studies, they cannot in general be supposed to be yet extensively acquainted with physiology, or to have acquired any considerable portion of scientific authority.

When a doctrine is offered with such pretensions as are here advanced, we naturally expect a luminous and well digested account of a variety of circumstances which support or confirm it. We are therefore surprized to find a remarkable paucity of evidence in its favour, and must regard it, at present, as little more than a crude speculation. The author relies much on a supposed similarity between the structure of the lungs, and that of the electric organs of the torpedo; though he admits that, in the latter, 'an external circuit is required,' while in the former 'the electric changes of the pulmonary cells are equalized by the pulsatory current of the blood.'

Mr. Wilkinson considers the present doctrines of respiration as insufficient for the purpose of accounting for the changes which the blood undergoes in the lungs, and for the production of animal heat. He examines, at some length, the statements of the English and French Philosophers on these subjects, particularly those of Crawford and Lavoisier; and he concludes that their doctrines are not the results of accurate induction. He is of opinion that the absorption of oxygen is insufficient to account for the regular production of animal heat, and for the equable temperature which the body is capable of preserving under a very extensive thermometrical range. He justly observes that the different states of density in the air are inadequate to supply the quantity of oxygen necessary for affording the heat required to keep up an equable temperature in a high latitude: but he seems to found the necessity for the agency of electricity in this process, on the supposition that the insensible perspiration is the same, or nearly the same, in all

all climates. It is undoubtedly requisite to be acquainted with the various degrees of exhalation which take place in different temperatures, before we can be prepared to say that the production of cold by evaporation is not the great means which nature employs in maintaining the animal temperature at one uniform standard. This seemed to be the medium by which, in the high temperatures of Fordyce's and Blagdon's experiments, the heat was preserved so near to its usual degree; and it is a very probable supposition that the greater quantity of heat, which is retained in low temperatures, owing to the diminished quantity of cuticular discharge, may afford the necessary supply to the system.—The constant changes which the body undergoes will in course continue in the Frigid, as well as in the Torrid zone: but the means of effecting them are different. We all know that, in the thermometrical range which takes place in our own climate, the states of the gaseous and fluid secretions vary much at different periods. Before the arguments are admitted, which the author derives from the undiminished temperature of blue Boys, in whom the circulation through the lungs is incomplete, and from the increased heat observed by Dr. Currie in some fevers, in which the force of the circulation is not augmented, it is absolutely necessary to be acquainted with the state of the cuticular discharge, which in both cases may have been materially diminished.

It appears difficult to Mr. Wilkinson to conceive that florid arterial blood can ever again acquire a carbonated tinge; and therefore he persuades himself that the colouring part of this blood never returns into the veins. He states also that the communication between arteries and veins is by the medium only of seriferous vessels; and thus that, on correct anatomical principles, red blood cannot pass from the arteries into the veins in a healthy subject.—We are at a loss to reconcile a doctrine of this kind to an acquaintance with the common and well established facts of physiology. The immediate communication, which the author doubts, is to be distinguished by the microscope, in some cold blooded animals; and various phænomena, some of them noticed by Mr. W., constitute ample proofs of the doctrine which he attempts to deny. When arteries terminate in cells, no anatomical proofs, he asserts, can be brought to manifest the return of the blood by the veins: but we cannot imagine by what other system of vessels the return can be effected. He moreover conceives it to be contrary to the simplicity of nature, that, when the portion of blood which is devoted to the purposes of nutrition is already in its perfect state, it should again be deteriorated, and

again

again be obliged to undergo a pulmonary change. Nature is, however, œconomical in her operations, and throughout many parts of the animal system displays a disposition to accomplish more effects than one by similar means; and it is surely rather a tribute to her wisdom, than a reflection on her operations, to discover that the power of producing certain effects can be repeatedly supplied by that continual revolution which is caused by the circulation. The phænomena of transfusion, of bloodletting, and in fact almost every one in which the circulation is concerned, decidedly prove that the author's view of the subject is unphilosophical and inaccurate.

In the first volume of this work, Mr. W. gives, from the authority of others, some cases in which Galvanism had been employed in diseases; and the last chapter of the second is occupied with the detail of his own experience in this important subject.

With regard to paralytic affections, when they do not arise from organic defect, or from pressure of extravasated fluid on the brain. Galvanism, we are informed, has often proved serviceable: but, in one case which is mentioned, the patient, after a partial recovery, remained stationary, though he always found his mind calmed and his spirits improved by the application of it.

In nervous deafness, the author has seen advantage produced by Galvanism: but he has had very little success with it in Amaurosis, or other complaints of the eyes.

The following observations on the effects of this treatment in spasmodic affections merit attention:

'In involuntary actions of the muscles, (says the author) I know of no remedy so efficacious as Galvanism. In a contracted state of the fingers, or hands, however violently the latter may be clenched, on the application of this principle for the space of a few minutes, it rarely fails to induce a relaxation. In cases of cramp, if of long continuance, and even of tetanus *, or locked jaw, it has afforded relief in a short space of time. In contractions of the joints, and in all cases of rigidity, it will be found a very advantageous stimulus, which will greatly contribute to the restoration of motion.

'In the stiffness of the joints, occasioned by the gout, it has come under my observation that the stimulus of galvanism, conjointly with the flesh-brush, has been attended by the happiest effects. It seems to give such a tone to the blood-vessels as to render the circulation more vigorous. In this state of the disease such an effect is very desirable.

'* A very intelligent gentleman, General Watson, informed me of a case of tetanus, which had resisted every other remedy, having been completely relieved by a quarter of an hour's application of this principle, to the convulsed muscles.'

'Perhaps

'Perhaps in no case are the advantages of Galvanism more sensibly experienced, than in indolent tumors, or scrophulous swellings, which have long remained stationary. By the influence of this principle, tumors of this kind have in a few days been brought either into a state of suppuration or resolution. Many swellings are of such a nature, that their removal by either of these means is desirable. I have frequently applied the Galvanic principle with the utmost success in inguinal tumors, which had resisted every other curative intention. The obtuse aching sensation, generally attendant on these indolent tumors, is very speedily removed. In scrophulous affections of the neck, it has been found very beneficial.'

In hypochondriasis, the author is inclined to employ Galvanism; and in the nervous head-aches of females, attended 'by a violent oppressive sensation over the eyes, together with Nausea, and an almost entire inability of motion,' he has carried the power of a dozen plates through the temples with benefit.

Mr. Wilkinson cannot yet speak from his own experience, on the effects of Galvanism in cases of suspended animation, but he is inclined to augur well of its employment:

'In such cases of suspended animation, whether from drowning, hanging, or exposure to noxious gases, the body should be divested of its cloathing, and placed in a warm bed, nearly approaching to the natural temperature. If it can be procured, air with an increased proportion of oxygen should be introduced into the lungs; and, at the same instant, very gentle Galvanic shocks should be sent through the body, in such a direction as to influence the heart. By combining this principle with the other usual means, the most advantageous effects may be expected.'

Thirteen well executed plates illustrate this publication, and it is judiciously furnished with an ample index.

ART. XIII. *A Tour from Downing to Alston-Moor.* By Thomas Pennant, Esq. 4to. pp. 189, Plates 27. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Harding.

ART. XIV. *A Tour from Alston-Moor to Harrowgate and Brimham Crags.* By Thomas Pennant, Esq. 4to. pp. 125, Plates 9. 18s. Boards. Scott. 1804.

THE line in Gray's Elegy,

"E'en in our ashes live their wonted fire,"

is generally regarded as containing a very bold hyperbole: but it may in some sense be applied to the posthumous works of men of genius; which may be considered as a kind of present from the tomb, and by which the author seems to protract his

existence

existence beyond the term of his natural life, and to communicate delight to the world when he has ceased to derive any entertainment from it. These volumes, which owe their origin to the pen of that amusing antiquary, naturalist, and traveller, the late Mr. Pennant, have brought to our grateful recollection the pleasure which he has formerly afforded us; and it is some satisfaction to find that his "wonted fire" burned equally vivid to the last, and that these posthumous volumes will throw no shade on his fame.

Owing to some accidental circumstances, we have deferred our mention of the first of these tours much longer than we intended, when we announced its appearance in the account of a former work, Rev. vol. xxxvi. p. 357.: but, by the delay, we have been enabled to present to the reader the whole of Mr. Pennant's Northern journey, performed in 1773; which was undertaken (as he informs us) with a desire of obtaining health from exercise, and from a thirst after information respecting the almost latent curiosities of our island.

The route described in the first of these works includes

'The space from *Downing* to *Orford*; from thence to *Knowsley*, *Sefton*, *Ormskirk*, *Latham*, and (crossing the country) to *Blackburn*, *Whalley-abbey*, *Ribchester*, *Mitton*, *Waddington-hall* and *Clithero*, most of them in the County of *Lancashire*. In that of *York* I visited *Salley abbey*, *Bolton-hall*, *Malham Coves*, *Settle*, *Giggleswick* and *Ingleton*. I then crossed the *Lune* to *Kirkby-Lonsdale*, and visited all the parts of *Westmoreland* and *Cumberland* omitted in my printed Tours of 1769 and 1772; and finally, I finished this MS. Volume at *Alston*, near the Borders of *Durham*.'

It is impossible for us to enumerate, even in the most concise way, the variety of curious information which is collected by Mr. Pennant in these pages: but, in conformity with our usual practice on these occasions, we shall select a few detached specimens, for the sake of doing justice to the diligence and learning of the traveller, and at the same time of communicating knowlege and entertainment to the reader.

The visit to Latham-Hall is enlivened by these notices and anecdotes:

'*Latham* is placed on a most barren spot, and commands a view as extensive as dull. The back-front was begun by *William* earl of *Derby*; the rest completed in a most magnificent manner by Sir *Thomas Bootle*. The house consists of a ground floor, principal, and attic; has a rustic basement, with a double flight of steps to the first story. The front extends a hundred and fifty-six feet, and has nine windows on each floor: the offices are joined to it, by a corridor supported by pillars of the Ionic order.

'The hall is nearly a square—40 feet by 42; its height 36; the saloon 39 by 24. On this floor are thirteen apartments.

'The

'The ancient *Latham*, the celebrated seat of nobility and hospitality, stood between the north-east offices of the present house and the kitchen garden. This place, with vast property, belonged to the *Lathams* till the year 1369, when, by the death of Sir *Thomas de Latham*, it fell to Sir *John Stanley*, knight of the garter, second brother of Sir *William Stanley* of *Hooton*, in right of *Isabel* daughter of Sir *Thomas*, who married into the fortunate house, and laid the foundation of its greatness.

'Notice has before been taken of the share his grandson, Sir *Thomas* first earl of *Derby*, had in the placing on the throne *Henry VII.* In his absence, during the preceding commotions, ballad authority tells me that the old house of *Latham* was ruined, and that, on his return, he rebuilt it with great magnificence.

"When place and weete and wisdom called
Home this Earle to rest,
He viewed his antient seate, and saw
The ruines of his nest:
And pull'd it downe, and from the ground
New builded *Latham-hall*,
So spatious that it can receive
Two kings, their trains and all."

'The Bard appears to have a strong partiality to the place, by the following lines, after mentioning the visit the Earl was honoured with by his son-in law *Henry VII.* who was so struck with the place as to build a palace on the same model:

"At his home cominge pull'd downe *Richmond*,
Faire in men's estimacion,
And built it new in all respects,
Like *Latham hall* in fashion."

'The form of this house may in a great measure be collected from the state it was in immediately before the noted siege in the last century. In the centre was a lofty tower called the *Eagles*: it had two courts; for mention is made of a strong and high gateway before the first.—The whole was surrounded with a wall two yards thick flanked by nine towers, and this again guarded by a moat eight yards wide and two deep.

'Such was its situation in February 1644, when it was possessed by the heroic Countess; who, receiving a summons from Sir *Thomas Fairfax*, with an offer of most honourable terms, replied, "That she was there in a double trust – of faith to her husband, and allegiance to her Sovereign; and that she meant to preserve her honour and obedience, though in her own ruin." She was as good as her word: for, during the space of sixteen months, with the assistance of a set of gallant officers appointed and commanded by herself, she repelled every effort to reduce the place. Colonel *Edward Chisenhall* was one of the gallant officers who commanded under her. Hearing that the enemy boasted of their store of provision, he sallied out, and, as the expression was, "stole their dinner." With a fortitude beyond her sex, she endured all the miseries of a siege, and beheld, with as little emotion as *Charles XII.* a bomb fall through the room where she

she and her children were at dinner. At length she was relieved by the royal forces under Prince *Rupert* and her Lord, when she retired from the place, recommending, as Governor, Captain *Edward Rawsthorn*, who, with the spirit of his Mistress, endured another siege till the ruin of the royal cause; and, by the royal command, he yielded up the house to Colonel *Booth*, December 5, 1645. The reduction was thought of such importance that public thanks were, by order of Parliament, given by the Ministers of *London* in all the churches. The place was dismantled the following year: all the floors and wainscotting were sold for 54l. 7s. 10d. *Knowsley* was, by order of the ruling powers, repaired with the lead from hence.

'On the Restoration it was repossessed by the family; was repaired, and even inhabited the beginning of this century, when the *Eagle Tower* and some parts of the wooden house were standing. The house, and this part of the estate, were transferred to *John* lord *Ashburnham*, by his marriage in 1714 with *Henrietta* daughter of *William* ninth earl of *Derby*. Lord *Ashburnham* sold it to a *Furness*, who soon disposed of it to Sir *Thomas Bootle*. I have more than once heard a relation, which, if well founded, is a wonderful instance of the retribution of Providence, the instability of all human tenure, and the strange changes of fortune in families, which ought to instil a most humiliating lesson into the Great. Previous to the siege of *Latham*, one *Bootle* (said to have been ancestor to Sir *Thomas*) was porter to the Noble owner. He is said to have taken a voluntary oath of loyalty, but afterwards sided with the parliament. At the storming of *Bolton*, he had a Captain's command in the town; when surrounded by the royalists, and seeing his old master near him, he applied to his Lordship for quarter: the fellow perished in the rage of the assault. His descendants possess the most ancient property of the Peer, to whom he had sued in vain.

'Another singular anecdote is preserved, serving to shew the pride of high lineage, and the vanity of low. The late Earl of *Derby* had on sale a place near *Liverpool* called *Bootle*, which Sir *Thomas* was particularly desirous of, through the ambition of being thought to have been derived from some antient stock. The Earl refused to part with it to this new man, who with proper spirit sent his Lordship word, (*Latham* being then to be sold,) that if he would not let him be *Bootle* of *Bootle*, he was resolved to be *Bootle* of *Latham*.

'Possibly the family of the *Bootles* may have been, through envy, depreciated; for, when Sir *William Dugdale* made his visitation of *Lancashire*, in 1664, *Thomas Bootle* of *Melling* was summoned, with other Gentry of the county, and entered his pedigree. It appeared that they had *then* been settled there four generations, though a family *non arma gerens*, those they assumed being the property of *Ponsonby* earl of *Besborough*. This *Thomas* was either grandfather or great grandfather of Sir *Thomas Bootle*, knight.

'Before I quit *Latham* I must not forget the romance of *Oskytel*, the person to whom the *Stanleys* owe the cognizance of the Eagle and Child. A certain Sir *Thomas de Latham*, in a century uncertain, found himself, in a very advanced age, childless, and in possession of an antiquated lady. In hopes of posterity, he entered on an intrigue with

with a fair vassal in the neighbourhood, who, in consequence, bore to him a son. It was the wish of Sir *Thomas* to adopt the child, and to introduce him into the family. In order to do it unsuspected by the lady, he caused it to be placed well swaddled in an eagle's nest in *Terston-wood*, immediately before he had artfully drawn his wife on a walk that way. The cries of the infant were soon heard: it was relieved from its situation, pitied by the lady, who considered it as a heaven-sent gift in compassion to her sterility, took it home, and, ignorant of the deceit, educated it with all the fondness of a natural mother.'

Natural history is not overlooked; and a catalogue of curious plants is given, to invite the excursion of the botanist:

'*Cloud Berries* are found plentifully on the moors between *Malham* and *Settle*. They take their name from their lofty situation. I have seen the berries in the Highlands of *Scotland* served as a desert. The *Swedes* and *Norwegians* preserve great quantities in autumn to make tarts and other confections, and esteem them as excellent antiscorbutics. The *Laplanders* bruise and eat them in the milk of rein deer, and preserve them quite fresh till spring by burying them in the snow.'

To an account of Kendal, is subjoined a short biographical sketch of Dr. Shaw, the celebrated traveller, who was a native of that place.

At Wharton-Hall, the tourist made inquiries respecting Philip Duke of Wharton, whom Pope mentions as the "scorn and wonder of his days;" and he informs us that he discovered people now living, 'who well remembered this *British Clodio*, and who have been witness to the justice of the description of the profligate part of his character; of his affecting to hunt on Sundays, and shewing in all his actions an equal contempt of the laws of God and man.' Severe, therefore, as the lines of Pope may at first be thought, he appears from this account to have faithfully delineated the profligate original.

Mr. Pennant is not such an infatuated antiquary as to be unable to descry the defects and inconveniences of our antient edifices. He thus comments on Naworth-Castle:

'It is a large pile, square, and built about a court, with a square tower at each corner. In the south side is a gateway with the arms of the *Dacres*; over the door those of the *Howards*. On the north, it impends over the river *Irthing*, at a great height; the banks shagged with wood. The whole house is a true specimen of ancient inconvenience, of magnificence and littleness: the rooms numerous, accessible by sixteen stair-cases, with most frequent sudden ascents and descents into the bargain; besides a long narrow gallery. The great hall is twenty-five paces long, by nine and a half broad, of a good height; has a gallery at one end, adorned with four vast crests, carved in wood, viz. a griffin and dolphin with the scallops, an uni-

corn, and an ox with a coronet round his neck. In front is a figure, in wood, of an armed man; two others, perhaps vassals, in short jackets and caps, a pouch pendant behind, and the mutilated remains of *Priapus* to each; one has wooden shoes. These seem the *ludibrium aulæ* in those gross days.'

As the concluding paragraph of the first part of this tour offers an useful hint, as well as much historical matter, we did not hesitate in marking it for quotation:

'*Alston Moor*, a mine, and market-town, consists of a number of small houses covered with flags, built irregularly, and extending lengthways up the side of a hill. This manor had been at different times the property of the *Veteriponts*. In the reign of *Henry V.* of *John de Clifford*; in that of his successor, of *Thomas Whitlow*, who granted it to *William Stapleton* and his wife. *Mary*, co-heiress of that house, conveyed it to a second son of Sir *Richard Musgrave* of *Hartley castle*. It afterwards devolved to a *Hilton*, son of that Lady by a first husband. His descendants possessed it till the time of *James I.* when *Henry Hilton* of *Hilton*, Esq. sold it to *Francis Ratcliff* baron of *Dilston* near *Hexham* in *Northumberland*, in whose house it continued till the attainder of the unfortunate *James* Earl of *Derwentwater* in 1715. The estates of that Nobleman in this county are extremely rich in lead-ore. It appears by the Moor-master's books, as related by Dr. *Burn*, that in three years, viz. 1766, 1767, and 1768, the mines produced sixty-one thousand eight hundred and thirty bygs of ore, which at the valuation of each byng, in those years, at 2l. 15s. each, amounted to the vast sum of 170,032l. 10s. This, and the other estates of Lord *Derwentwater*, were, by Act of Parliament, in 1735, vested in *Greenwich hospital* *, and bring in a vast revenue to that magnificent and useful foundation. At the time of the forfeiture they were supposed to amount to about seven thousand pounds a year; yet, by the contrivance or connivance of the Commissioners of the Forfeited Estates, were sold for the sum of 10601 †. The villainy of the transaction was detected, in 1732, by the sagacity and pains of *Thomas* Lord *Gage*, then in the House of Commons, who was honoured by the thanks of the House for his services ‡. Two of the Members concerned as commissioners in this infamous affair, were expelled; and a third, who appeared to have been drawn into an irregularity only in the proceedings, received a reprimand from the Speaker in his place §. This ought to be an example to posterity, particularly to men in power, who may attempt, under specious pretences, the destruction of benefits intended for the public good, whether the foundation be recent or ancient; whether it be the alienation of Church Lands, or of those allotted for the support of the Poor. The securities are now good, the tenures firm. If they should be disposed of for money, every day may produce in-

'* Ruffhead's Statutes, vi. 317.'

'† Hist. and Proceedings of the House of Commons, vii. 154.'

'‡ Same, 240; and Lodge's Irish Peerage, iii. 300.'

'§ Hist. &c. vii. 240.'

stances

stances of the loss sustained by the laying it out improperly for selfish ends. The same may happen in an exchange for other lands. A little recollection will remind us of the sums endangered to the Poor, by the laying out of money on the temporary mortgages of tolls of turnpikes. It cannot be doubted, that when Parliament takes into consideration the movements of the lesser wheels of government and policy, it will not neglect an inspection into these breaches of trust, and cause full justice to be executed on those who may have dared to abuse the most sacred of deposits.'

The second of these volumes continues the tour from Alston-Moor to Stanhope—Wolsingham—Bishop Aukland—Raby-Castle—Bernard-Castle—Egleston-Abbey (Yorkshire)—Wycliff—Ravensworth-Castle—Catarrick Bridge—Burniston—Cathorp—Hackfall—Norton-Coniers—Ripon—Studley-Park—Fountain's Abbey—Borough Bridge—Aldborough—Knaresborough—Harrowgate—Ripley—Brimham Crags.

As an instance of strange revolutions in the use of places, we may give the account of the Oven at Raby-Castle, which, with the Kitchen, remains a token of antient hospitality:

'The oven was of dimensions suited to the hospitality of the pile; higher than a tall person, for the tallest may stand upright in it, and I think its diameter must be fifteen feet. At present it is converted into a wine cellar; the sides are divided into ten parts, and each holds a hogshead of wine in bottles.

'The kitchen is a magnificent and lofty square; has three chimnies, one for the grate, a second for stoves, the third, now stopped up, was for the great cauldron: the top is arched, and a small cupola lights it in the center; but on the sides are five windows, with a gallery passing all round before them, and four steps from each pointing down towards the kitchen, but ending at a great height above the floor, and seem neatly ornamented. From the floor is another staircase that conducts to the great hall, but the passage is now stopt—What hecatombs must have been carried that way!'

Egleston-bridge, to say nothing of its neighbouring cataracts, is intitled, by its construction, to the traveller's notice:

'The first of the wonders is *Winch-Bridge*, flung over the river from precipice to precipice, about two miles above *Middleton*, where the water falls in repeated cataracts. It is made of chains stretched from rock to rock, seventy feet in extent, over a chasm of sixty feet deep. The bridge is only two feet wide, with a hand rail on one side, and planked at the bottom. It is a common passage for strongheaded miners; but such is its tremendous motion, and such the awe of the dreadful gulph beneath, that few are the passengers: besides, I dare say, that the architect of this bridge never heard of that of *Chooka*, in the distant *Bootan*, flung across a river of the same name; stretched from buttress to buttress, founded on the rocks, and, in all respects, constructed with chains, and planked at bottom. Yet, in my *Hindoostan* II. tab. xiii. I can produce one not more wonderful than that

of the consentaneous thought of a *British* bridge-builder, at thousands of miles distance.'

Studley-Park is mentioned as extremely deserving of a visit, not because it exhibits the improvements of the modern landscape gardener, but because it is a specimen of the old formal style, of which little now remains.

A long narrative is annexed respecting the foundation of Fountain's Abbey; which, if it commenced in sanctity of manners, became at last, like other pious institutions of a superstitious age, the scene of irregularity and vice. The last Abbot is accused by Layton, in his Letter to Lord Cromwell, of keeping six whores; which Mr. Pennant charitably considers as an *exaggerated* charge: but it is severe enough, if only *half* of it be true.

With much good sense, Mr. Pennant resists the idea that Brimham Crags are druidical remains, and regards them rather as *lusus naturæ*, or the effect of chance.

The termination of this journey connects it with Mr. Pennant's Scots tour. The engravings, as usual, are taken from drawings executed by the author's skilful and favorite servant, Moses Griffith.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1804.

ARTS.

Art. 15. *The New Vitruvius Britannicus;* consisting of Plans and Elevations of Modern Buildings, public and private, erected in Great Britain by the most celebrated Architects, engraved on 72 Plates, from original Drawings. By George Richardson, Architect. Folio. 5l. 15s. 6d. Boards. Taylor.

THE first seven Numbers of this publication were announced in our 33d Vol. p. 306. It is now completed, and has assumed a different title, corresponding with the author's intention that it should be viewed as a supplement to the *Vitruvius Britannicus*. We are gratified in the fulfilment of this design, and recommend the publication to all lovers and professors of the art, as worthy of their patronage and consultation. The engravings are numerous and well executed; and the requisite descriptions are given both in English and French.

For the reason before assigned, we feel ourselves unable to enter into any critical examination of these specimens of modern skill in architecture: but we shall endeavour to convey a general idea of the contents of this volume, by specifying the mansions which it delineates, and the names of the artists. They are as follow:

Bowden

Bowden Park, Wilts, the seat of B. Dickinson, Esq. James Wyatt.
Tusmore House, Oxon, — of W. M. Fermor, Esq. R. Mylne.
Pavilion, Brighton — of the P. of Wales, H. Holland.
Plans for Public Assembly Rooms at Glasgow, R. & J. Adam.
Sydney Lodge, Hants, — of Hon. Mrs. Yorke, Jn. Soane.
Gore Court, Kent, — of G. Harper, Esq. S. P. Cockerell.
Basildon House, Berks, — of Sir F. Sykes, Bart. J. Carr, of York.
Longford House, Salop, — of R. Lecke, Esq. J. Bonomi.
Broomfield Lodge, Clapham, — of late Hon. E. J. Eliot, J. T. Groves.
Putney Park, — of B. Thompson, Esq. W. Porden.
Trinity House, Tower Hill, London, S. Wyatt.
Seat of W. H. Pigou, Esq. at Windmill Hill, Sussex, W. Reveley.
Watton Wood Hall, Herts, seat of Sir T. Rumbold, T. Leverton.
Southgate Grove, Enfield, — of W. Gray, Esq. J. Nash.
Addington Lodge, near Croydon, — of J. Trecothick, Esq. R. Mylne.
Middlesex Sessions House, London, T. Rogers.
Stoke Park House, Wilts, seat of J. Smith, Esq. G. Steuart.
Fastwell Park House, Kent, — of G. F. Hatton, Esq. J. Bonomi.
Gosford House, N. Britain, — of the Earl of Wemyss, late Rob. Adam.
Thornes House, Yorkshire, — of J. Milnes, Esq. J. Carr, of York.
Denton Hall, ditto, — of Sir H. Ibbetson, Bart. Ditto.
Doddington Hall, Cheshire, — of Sir T. Broughton, Bart. S. Wyatt.
Claremont, Surrey, — of the E. of Tyrconnel, L. Brown and H. Holland.
Crow-nest House, Yorkshire, — of W. Walker, Esq. T. Bradley.
Courteen Hall, Northamptonshire, — of Sir W. Wake, Bart. S. Saxon.
Buckminster Park, Leicestershire, — of Sir W. Manners, Bart. Ditto.

We do not find any intimation that this work is to be farther prosecuted, though we apprehend that additional materials might abundantly be supplied, and by professional men whose names do not yet appear among these records.

POLITICAL.

Art. 16. *A Letter to the Rt. Hon. William Pitt,* on the late Arrangements in Administration. By Timothy Plain. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1804.

This writer gives credit to the several great persons who, forgetting former differences, recently united to chase the late administration from the helm: which he represents as a spectacle highly gratifying to the public, and the expected beneficial effects of which have been frustrated by Mr. Pitt's eager acceptance of office. He charges the Minister with coming into power on the shoulders of others, with whom he co-operated in order to eject his former friends; and with thinking no more of them when that purpose was once secured: which object is described by the present writer as being the primary one in all the exertions of the great character whom he addresses. He censures him severely for engrossing to himself all the advantages arising from the expulsion of the late Minister, while that change was the effect of combined force:

'So far,' he says, 'have you lost sight of the *only* object which a patriotic mind could have formed, namely, a *general union* of talent and worth, that you have even agreed to come into office, under the express

stipulation of the *exclusion* of that man, to whom, in particular, the eyes of this country, and of the whole world, are at this moment directed, as the standard of talent and principle;—of that man, who *alone* is calculated, from the character for moderation which he bears, to secure to us the confidence of the powers on the Continent; and, by his energy and talent, to restore peace and tranquillity to Europe!'

The introduction of the late administration is regarded as a contrivance of the present Premier, intended by him to be a mere temporary measure, under which certain persons were to be brought into play to sustain a part which he could not or did not chuse to perform himself; and which being fulfilled, they would be expected to retire, in order that the saviour of his country and the deliverer of Europe might resume his station. The appointment of Mr. Pitt, the author maintains, is considered by all Europe, as well as by the united kingdom, as declaratory of the intention of this country to persevere in the war system; and his administration is asserted to be less acceptable to the public than that of Mr. Addington. The author still, however, allows Mr. Pitt room for repentance:

'Think, Sir, what you are;—Think what you might have been!—Consider how high you might have stood in the eyes of this country, in the eyes of the world, as being at the head of an administration possessing the *unlimited confidence*, and comprising the WHOLE *talent* of the country:—Consider how *low* you now stand, even in the estimation of your own personal friends!—Reflect, ere it be too late.—Go to your sovereign—point out to him the impossibility of reconciling the public mind to any arrangement founded on the principle of *exclusion*—Shew him how repugnant such a sentiment is to the idea of unanimity—Tell him how contrary it is to the wishes of those whose constant care, whose most ardent wish, at this moment, is, the prosperity, honour, and independence of his crown and dignity—act thus, and there cannot be a doubt that his Majesty's paternal feeling will induce him to yield to the ardent and unanimous desire of his dutiful and affectionate subjects!

'This, Sir, will be your conduct if you have come into office with clean hands and upright intentions, and this, too, cannot fail to be the result of such representations. His present Majesty, we know well, holds the inclinations of his subjects in as high regard as any of his predecessors could have done. His grand-father, you cannot be ignorant, had as decided a personal dislike to your father, as his present Majesty can possibly have to Mr. Fox. The public voice, however, and the sense of Parliament, taught him to conquer his prejudice, and the feelings of the man at length gave way to the duties of the king.—Make his Majesty, Sir, sensible of the public feeling at this moment.'

This is a sensible, spirited, well-intended, and temperate remonstrance.

Art. 17. *Observations on the Temper and Spirit of the Irish Nation at the present Crisis.* By John Pratt Winter, Esq. 8vo. pp. 50. 1s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

A very judicious and dispassionate Address; in which the author expostulates with his countrymen on the extreme folly, absurdity, and mischief

mischief of the conduct which, to gratify temporary passion, would deliver their island to a pillaging, treacherous, and relentless enemy. He enumerates the reasons which should induce the Irish to support the union of their country with Great Britain, and paints with strong colouring the calamities with which all orders would be visited in the case of its being dissolved. He does not dissemble that there are grievances which require redress: but he exhorts to patience, and recommends it to patriots, in the mean time, to direct their efforts to improve the mind and social character of their countrymen. He asks whether there be any thing in the parent or dependant governments of France, which can be an object of envy to the people of Ireland, and which they would wish to see adopted among themselves? We are sorry, however, to discover, that in the opinion of the author there are numbers of Irish, original enemies to British connection, reinforced by others averse from British union, who would view French success with something more culpable than even indifference. This information, serious as it is, and meriting a degree of attention on the part of government which does not seem to have been bestowed on it, has often before been thrown out, but has not been treated as if credit were given to it. Were it possible for the dictates of sound sense, communicated in the genuine spirit of conciliation, to call forth a better disposition in the subjects of Ireland, much might be expected from the present pamphlet.

Art. 18. *Thoughts on the present State of Ireland,* addressed to the Members of the United Parliament. 8vo. pp. 59. 2s. Ginger. 1804.

In this pamphlet, a rapid sketch is drawn of the conduct of Britain towards the sister island; a conduct which, in every view of it that can be taken, and on every principle with reference to which it can be considered, subjects the former to the severest reproaches. The object of these pages is more particularly to point out the hardships of the Irish poor, to rouse British benevolence to interest itself in their favour, and to induce the legislature in its wisdom to devise means for effecting an amelioration of their lamentable condition. Such efforts are creditable to the head and heart of the writer; and most sincerely do we wish that they may not be thrown away. Lofty promises of benefit to Ireland and to the empire were made, when the act of union was under deliberation: but we have yet seen no attempts to realize them. We shall rejoice in a confirmation of the reports now floating, that the present Ministry have some of the necessary and long-desired measures in contemplation: particularly a government provision for the Irish catholic clergy.

The real evil, which this author wishes to correct, exists, he tells us, 'in the poverty, depression, and, above all, want of education in the poorer classes, in the relaxation of industry from want of encouragement in their manufactures, want of countenance, protection, and example from resident landlords, distressed by tythes from an inability to pay them and their own clergy besides, paying rents out of proportion to the other classes of society, and out of proportion to their wages or the necessaries of life in food or raiment, not provided for suitably in sickness accident, misfortune, or old age, a distrust in the administration of the laws, from the abuse of them—these are amongst

the causes why the Irish peasant is the ready tool of rebellion, why he has been found careless of life, and has given instances of what I have heard called misdirected courage, but which might as fairly be termed despair or contempt of a life without charms and without comforts.'

Art. 19. *An Irish Catholic's Advice to his Brethren, how to estimate their present Situation, and repel French Invasion, Civil Wars, and Slavery.* By Denys Scully, Esq., Barrister at Law. Second Edition, revised by the Author, with a Preface and Notes. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Dublin. 1804.

Experience ultimately proves that *liberal* policy is the *soundest* policy: but how many ensanguined errors are committed, and how much fallacious argumentation is employed, to buttress the disgraceful edifice of Intolerance, before Governments, esteemed enlightened, are brought to see that their greatest security and comfort depend on their justice and impartiality! What good reason can be assigned to prove that differences of religious faith, any more than varieties of opinion on any other abstruse and speculative subject, should induce an unequal distribution of civil benefits? It is easy, indeed, to represent danger and disaffection as lurking under certain religious systems; and it is easy also, by acting on this narrow principle in the infliction of fines and disabilities, to prove the fact to a certain extent, by alienating the affections of some individuals from the Government under which they live and suffer. Judicious statesmen, however, when symptoms of disaffection appear, will consider how far the persons implicated have reason for being disaffected; and, like good political physicians, they will then apply the adequate remedy. What has been the conduct of the British Government in this respect towards Ireland? It has not there acted on the same principle which it has adopted in the other parts of the empire, viz. establishing the religion of the majority; nor has it endeavoured, by contributing to the support of the Catholic priesthood, to interest it in the stability of the existing system. In our management of Ireland, we seem to have been guilty of every political indiscretion; and it is time to review the maxims of our conduct. The union professes to draw closer the ties which connect Great Britain with her sister isle: but, in order to give a full effect to this measure, we must render her ample justice. Throwing a veil over the past, which should never be withdrawn excepting for the purpose of historic information, let us in future make the case of the people of Ireland our own; ensuring their affections, and an unity of effort with us in every thing which concerns the welfare of the empire, by admitting them to all the privileges of British subjects. If, fearing the resentment of an injured party, we cannot at once grant to the Catholics complete emancipation, let us make some provision for the maintenance of their clergy; and let the improvement of the comforts of the poorer inhabitants of Ireland be our particular care. The Irish are a generous nation; and if we treat them as fellow-subjects, they will not be ungrateful.

France wishes to detach Ireland from us; and the disaffected, goaded by a sense of their wrongs, may be ready to listen to the suggestions of the enemy: but, by joining with France against Great Britain,

Britain, she would inflict on herself a most incalculable evil. United under the same sovereign, and placed together in the same part of the ocean, our interest is one; and he is alike the foe to both, who endeavours in any way to disseminate the germs of discord.

The Irish, in the midst of all their complaints, are thoroughly sensible of having committed some political errors, and are therefore in that state of mind which is most favorable to rational expostulation. Mr. Scully's Address, now before us, is not only well intended, but well calculated to unite with their sentiments and feelings at the present juncture. While he complains that 'Government violated its faith with the Irish people, and caused a peal of indignant complaint to ring from Derry to Dingle, and from Westport to Wexford;' while he hopes that 'his Majesty's Ministers will unyoke the Catholics from the code of Intolerance, and break down the ingnominious barrier which separates them from their fellow-subjects;' he preaches loyalty and obedience,—reprobates rebellion and civil war,—shews to his countrymen that the advantage of their situation, as united with Great Britain, is superior to any which they could reap from throwing themselves into the arms of France,—calls on them, by resisting Faction and promoting Concord, to manifest a confidence in the wisdom of their rulers,—and exhorts them to comfort themselves with the assurance that every prospect of the future is chearing and animating. He intreats his Catholic brethren to place no confidence in Gallic friendship, to spurn the insinuations of the French agent or agitator, and in case of the invasion of Ireland, to join heartily with every loyal inhabitant in speedily annihilating the vain hope of the boasting foe. The government and people of Ireland are deeply obliged to Mr. S. for the seasonable and patriotic hints which are diffused throughout his pamphlet; the circulation and due consideration of which, among the objects of his address, are greatly to be wished.

Art. 20. *Strictures on the Necessity of inviolably maintaining the Navigation and Colonial System of Great Britain.* By Lord Sheffield. 8vo. pp. 65. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1804.

The subject of this pamphlet is a most important one, and we are glad to see attention called to it. The regulations in question have certainly, as it is here stated, been contemporaneous with our mercantile prosperity: but whether they have given rise to it, or in what degree, we have no information in these pages. We agree, however, with the Noble Author in thinking that they ought to be watched vigilantly, touched delicately, and not altered in any tittle without serious deliberation. Lord Sheffield strongly censures the departure from them which has been sanctioned by some recent acts of parliament, and by the growing practice of the Council granting licences to dispense with their observance. Whatever doubt may be entertained respecting some of the positions here taken, no one can dissent from those which follow:

'England is not to confer free commerce and navigation in return for the vexations and restrictions which are imposed by other nations; and though the Navigation Laws were not, as they are, too firmly and too long established to be tampered with by experimental specu-

lators, they would yet require to be cautiously and rigorously supported, if it were only because they are best correspondent with the views and regulations of other States, and because, so long as other States confine the trade of their colonies to themselves, England has not only a right, but is bound to act in the same manner.'

In combating the notion which Gentz takes up after Smith, namely, that our navigation acts are commercially injurious, Lord Sheffield asks whether this can be so, if 'they promote the employment, and augment the number of our seamen; if they encourage ship building and all the useful arts connected with that essential trade; if they consequently provide occupations for innumerable artizans; if they secure to us the carriage of our own produce, as well as the supply of the most valuable markets,' Mr. Gentz himself, he adds, admits 'that they are important instruments of the greatness and security of the State—that they have afforded a powerful stimulative to the commercial marine of England—that they have tended to secure to the nation the freight trade, that great source of the former astonishing riches of Holland—that the consummation of them has been the consequence of the most judicious policy—that they compelled the English to cultivate with their own vessels, their own sailors, and their own capitals, many branches of foreign trade which would, *otherwise*, have remained, partly or entirely in the hands of strangers—that they encouraged a branch of national industry which contributed to the security and independence of Great Britain—and that, as he quotes Mr. Adam Smith, however they may have been dictated by national antipathy, they are, nevertheless, as wise as if they had been the productions of consummate wisdom.'

If the reasoning in the subsequent passage be somewhat loose, the caution which it recommends is very proper:—'When I observe activity, and labour, and enterprize excited and encouraged, and honourable and ample wealth thus earned and obtained, under a system which few men have the disposition fully to examine, and some with inconsiderate levity condemn, I estimate the cause by its effects, and become more and more anxious to rescue from innovation a code which has been, and continues to be, productive of such various and inestimable advantages.'

Many curious and instructive instances are to be found, which illustrate the remark adopted by Lord Sheffield, that nations often inconsiderately sacrifice to mercantile speculation, or to partial and mistaken interests, the essential principles of laws and systems under which they had flourished, and which had been the object of applause and imitation at home and abroad. The itch of legislating is a dangerous malady, if it does not keep pace (which it seldom does) with the requisite wisdom and information.

We respect the intentions professed in this tract, and deem the admonitions given to public men, to beware of indirectly intrenching on antient constitutional laws, worthy of the attention of the parties to whom they are addressed; whether this violation should arise from clauses in foreign treaties, or from licences incautiously granted to subjects. It would have been more gratifying to us if, in addition to the merit of design, Lord S. had advanced stronger claims to the praise of compressed argumentation and logical deduction. Art.

Art. 21. *A Proposition of a System of Finance*, or Plan of General Contribution; which was submitted as a Substitute for the late Income Tax, and is recommended as a general Relief to the present Mode of Taxation, with Hints and Observations which Circumstances have suggested to the Projector. 8vo. 1s. Hurst. 1804.

The intention of this plan is to oblige all persons to contribute to the income tax, in proportion to their means, who have an income of 10l. per annum, or who are worth 100l. The author divides the contributions into eighteen classes, and rates income from real and permanent property at 5 per cent., and that which is obtained from any precarious means at 2½ per cent. It cannot be denied that much may be said in favour of extending this tax, on some such principles as are here proposed, to the lower classes: at least to classes inferior to those which it at present reaches. The pamphlet is written with great modesty, and breathes a benevolent patriotic spirit.

Art. 22. *The Independence of Great Britain, as the first of Maritime Powers, essential to, and the Existence of France, in its present State, incompatible with, the Prosperity and Preservation of all European Nations*. [By the Rev. E. Hankin, M.A. M.D.] 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

We agree with this writer respecting the importance of a firm union and well concerted alliance among the states of Europe, for the purpose of resisting the over-grown power of France: but we cannot discern any circumstances in the present internal state of that country, which justify the assertion that 'it would be much easier to effect a material change in it now, than at any preceding period since the commencement of the Revolution.' How this change is to be accomplished, we are not informed: certainly not by expeditions to the coast of France. Time will shew the degree of reliance which is to be placed on the hostile feelings towards France that are said to prevail among the continental Powers; who, if they are alive to their own interest, must be solicitous for the preservation of our maritime superiority, as a source of wealth and protection to Europe.

Art. 23. *Letter to Sir Francis Burdett, Bart.* on the Folly, the Indecency, and dangerous Tendency of his Public Conduct. By the Rev. Edward Hankin, M.A. M.D. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons.

The strictures, which compose the substance of this letter, relate to Sir Francis's Speeches on the Defence Bill, July 18 last, and at the Crown and Anchor Tavern, July 29. Charges of seditious and treasonable declamation are here adduced against the Baronet, to which we must leave him to give the requisite consideration.

Art 24. *Thoughts on the Formation of the late and present Administrations*. By Lord Archibald Hamilton. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1804.

Are Reviewers to become laughing or crying Philosophers, on the present occasion? Shall we smile at folly and court intrigue, or shall we lament the want of integrity and honor in men of talents and political consequence? Reflecting on the perilous situation of the country, we confess ourselves more disposed to be grave than facetious, while we

we contemplate the state play which has lately been acted before the nation. Never was there a period which more loudly called for a great and broad line of conduct, in the formation of an Administration; and never was there a more glaring display of little feelings, and of a narrow and illiberal system. If objections were made to Mr. Addington's administration, as not being sufficiently comprehensive, on what grounds can that which has succeeded it be vindicated? Lord A. Hamilton does not attempt to vindicate either: but he laments the mysterious circumstances which inveloped the former, and speaks in strong terms of disapprobation respecting the principles and the measures connected with the formation of the latter. He participates with the nation at large, in the disappointment excited by Mr. Pitt's second administration, which he regards as 'probably inadequate to the exigencies of the country, and certainly inadequate to its just expectations.'

The pretext for the dissolution of the Addingtonian administration was the wish of forming one on a broad and extensive basis: but, as such an administration has not taken place, and as it is generally understood that the great obstacle was a determination on the part of the Crown to exclude Mr. Fox, Lord A. Hamilton proposes distinctly to consider these three points:—how far this exclusion can be deemed constitutional?—how far, under all the circumstances of the case, it ought to have operated with Mr. Pitt?—and how far this actual conduct has been regulated, either by tenderness towards the prerogative of the Crown, or regard to the sentiments and welfare of the country?

In the first place, the principle of exclusion is manfully combated. 'It seems,' observes Lord A., 'that consistently with the constitution, neither appointment nor exclusion can rest upon any other than public grounds; and that to impute the exclusion of Mr. Fox, in the present instance, to private prejudice, or personal feelings in the royal mind, is to libel and traduce the king—And that to ascribe it to the weakness or wickedness of his advisers, is to burthen them with no more than a just and legitimate, though, in this case, a very heavy, responsibility.'

Mr. Pitt, it is contended, should have firmly expostulated with his Majesty, on the consequences of adhering to the principle of exclusion; and his refusal to accept the seals, it is maintained, would have secured to the country that comprehensive administration, for which Mr. Pitt himself had been ostensibly contending; for, says the noble writer:

'Had Mr. Pitt refused to form an administration upon a weak and narrow basis, where is the man who would have dared to undertake the odious task? Had Mr. Pitt refused to accept or participate power, upon a scheme and scale hostile to the interests of his country, and adverse to the sentiments of parliament and the public, where is the man who would have presumed to have become a candidate for the ignominious eminence?'

Though disappointed in the hope of political union, the author does not forget to inculcate political principles; and he concludes with expressing his astonishment and regret that the parties to the formation of the

the new administration, and to the intrigue attending it, should fail to perceive—'that the best security of court influence is to be found, in its judicious exertion—the best security of the power of the Crown, in its salutary limits—the best security of the country, in a strict adherence to the Constitution.'

Art. 25. *A Letter addressed to the Right Hon. William Windham*, the late Secretary at War, on the Expediency of allowing a Drawback on the Duties upon Wines for the Consumption of the Army. Interspersed with Observations on the Insufficiency of Military Pay, and the present Situation of Subaltern Officers. By Lieut. Fairman, of the Northamptonshire Militia. 2d Edit. 8vo. pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Carpenter. 1803.

This officer plays the advocate with great zeal, and no small portion of address: but there is a considerable difference in the cases which are attempted to be identified. There are facilities for granting the exemption in question to the navy, which exist not with respect to the army; and the navy is almost constantly on what may be regarded as foreign service, which may be considered to be the case whenever it is not in port. We shall, however, view with satisfaction every extension of liberality towards our brave defenders, whether engaged in the land or the sea service: but if it be deemed proper at present to attempt any thing of this sort, we believe that the relief might be afforded in a way less inconvenient than that which is here pointed out.

We accompany Lieut. F. with great satisfaction while he dilates on the hard lot of subalterns, and pathetically pleads for its amelioration; and, had he stopped here, we should have taken our leave of him impressed by his representations, and entertaining respect for himself. Not contented, however, with pleading the cause of his brethren, he plunges into the very depths of politics, and delivers his opinion on questionable matters with a confidence and dogmatism which would scarcely be allowable in a General, or even in a Generalissimo. He decides as to the persons who ought to be placed at the head of state affairs, and points out the course which they ought to take. He recommends, indeed, to the king and to the country, the person who is since become the actual premier; and he supposes that the Right Hon. Gentleman, whom he addresses, will fully agree with him. That gentleman is certainly now of a somewhat different opinion from his correspondent; and it is now evident that he never carried his ideas so far as this writer does: though it appears, from some very delicate appeals lately made by the premier himself to his quondam friends, that he was not less in a mistake than the Lieutenant.

Art. 26. *A Letter to Robert Ward, Esq; M. P.* occasioned by his Pamphlet entitled "A View of the relative Situations of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington." 8vo. 3s. Ginger.

After having been instructed by a series of pamphlets on the motive of Mr. Pitt's late retirement from office, and on the real situation of Mr. Addington during his occupation of the place of Chancellor of the Exchequer, we are enabled at last to boast of having acquired the wisdom of Socrates, i. e.—we find that *we know nothing*. If, by the resump-

resumption of his former situation, Mr. Pitt has not dissipated that mystery, he has made the subject obsolete and uninteresting; and we flatter ourselves that the letter before us will terminate a controversy which has been prosecuted with much irritation and with little profit. If Mr. Ward was not very courteous in his animadversions, it may be said that "the butterfly has now met with his match," for he is treated with the most provoking contempt, and his correctness and elegance as a writer are pointedly impeached. His antagonist, however, may in the first instance be accused of having passed the bounds of gentlemanlike decorum; and in the second, of having fallen into errors similar to those which he lays to the charge of Mr. Ward: especially in the omission of the relative, and in the use of colloquial expressions. This author is a warm friend of Mr. Addington, and a great admirer of Mr. Pitt, though he cannot much relish the recent changes; having expressly declared that 'he had rather see Mr. Pitt in opposition than a minister.' The character of Mr. Addington cannot fail to be highly respected: but, being removed from the eminence of power, his political reputation will cease to be a matter of open contest, and our readers may not be anxious for any farther account of relative situations which no longer exist.

Art. 27. *J. G. Semple Lisle's Letter to the British Volunteers.* 8vo. 1s. Stewart.

The object of this letter is to convey the author's warmest commendations on the spirit and attainments of our volunteers, and to animate them to perseverance. This purpose is effected in energetic but not always correct language, and supported by general assertions and bold positions. We need not inform the majority of our readers who the writer is who has affixed his name in this peculiar way to his pamphlet; we shall only remark that on this occasion he seems to consider himself as intitled to give his opinion: 'I,' says he, 'who have often bled in the cause of royalty, and whose every little leaf of laurel has been dyed in the vital stream which circulates round my heart.'—'I have led squadrons of the first powers of Europe to the charge, and more than once against the French; I have had various opportunities of observing them, and do not hesitate to say, I should feel full of confidence and security in accompanying any corps of volunteers I have yet seen to an attack on the best brigade of France.'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 28. *The Report of the Evidence and other Proceedings in Parliament, respecting the Invention of the Life-Boat.* Also several other Authentic Documents illustrating the Origin, Principles, and Construction of the Life-Boat, and its perfect Security in the most turbulent Sea, With practical Directions. By Henry Greathead, of South Shields. 8vo. 2s. Asperne. 1804.

This pamphlet contains the most honourable and decisive evidence of the great utility of the Life-Boat, the invention of which has been the means of preserving, during the last 11 years, several hundred lives. From these testimonials, we shall quote the following, which is selected from many of similar import;

'Extract

'Extract from the Tyne Mercury of the 29th November 1803.

'Extraordinary Escape from Shipwreck. South Shields, Nov. 22.

'Having yesterday witnessed the most extraordinary escape of the crew of the brig Bee from shipwreck, that was perhaps ever known, by means of the Northumberland Life-Boat, I take the most early opportunity of giving you a correct statement of the whole circumstances.

'The Bee of Shields, John Houston, master, having put to sea in an easterly wind, had not proceeded far when it began to blow strong from the south-east, which obliged him a few hours after to put back. In taking Tynemouth Bar at the last quarter ebb, in a very heavy sea, she struck the ground and unshipped her rudder. Being now completely unmanageable, she drifted towards the north side of the bar, and at length drove on the Black Middens. They who have witnessed the tremendous sea which breaks on the north-east part of this harbour, in a south-easterly wind, may form a conception of the dreadful situation in which the crew of the vessel were situated. In the midst of rocks, where the sea runs mountains-high, so as frequently to obscure the ship, and where any vessel might be expected immediately to go to pieces, their only refuge from being swept into the gulph, was to climb up into the shrouds, which the captain, with six men and boys, being the whole crew, instantly effected. The dangerous situation in which they were placed, immediately attracted an immense number of spectators from both North and South Shields. The shores in every direction were lined with people, who expressed, by their anxious looks, the most sympathetic apprehensions for their safety. The making use of the Life-Boat was by most people thought impossible, and at all events the attempt was attended with extreme danger, owing to the tremendous sea, and the immense rocks which lay where the vessel was stranded. So confident, however, was Mr. Greathead, the inventor, of the Life-Boat being able to live in *any* sea, if properly navigated, that he, without hesitation, and with the greatest alertness, volunteered his services to bring off the men from the brig. This intrepid offer operated like electricity among the sailors; and immediately the Northumberland Life-Boat was launched and manned with Mr. Greathead and South Shields pilots. In the course of a few minutes they reached the vessel, without much difficulty, and picked off the men from the shrouds, shivering with cold, and almost perished by fatigue. One man, in making too much haste to enter the Boat, fell into the breakers, but was immediately recovered. When the whole crew was in the Boat they rowed towards the shore: and, in less than an hour from the time the Boat was launched, did they return in safety to South Shields, without a single accident!

'This is certainly the most astonishing and hazardous expedition that any Life-Boat has ever yet attempted; and from the ease and safety with which she went to and from the brig, having shipped very little water, it can scarcely be conceived what she may be capable of effecting. The joy that appeared to pervade the people on shore, when the Boat returned in safety, may more easily be conceived than described. This successful enterprize has added another laurel

laurel to the Inventor of the Life-Boat, and additional lustre to the Duke of Northumberland, and the other benevolent patrons of an invention which has rendered such important services to the cause of humanity.'

Some contest has arisen respecting the claim to the priority of this valuable invention, but Mr. Greathead seems to have a full right to that honor and satisfaction. We rejoice to learn that many of these boats have been built, and sent to different parts of the coast; and we trust that they will be most extensively multiplied. In the construction and use of them, Mr. G.'s directions contained in this pamphlet will be consulted with much advantage.

Art. 29. *An Enquiry into the Causes of the Errors and Irregularities which take place in ascertaining the Strengths of Spirituous Liquors, by the Hydrometer*, with a Demonstration of the Practicability of Simplifying and rendering this Instrument accurate. By William Speer, Supervisor and Assayer of Spirits in the Port of Dublin. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Payne and Mackinlay.

This tract and others on the same subject, together with several newly invented hydrometers, have originated in an inquiry set on foot by the Board of Excise, concerning the best means of ascertaining the strength of spiritous liquors. The Board were ordered to make a report to the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, 'of such hydrometers, or instruments for ascertaining the strengths of spirituous liquors as now are in use, or should be produced to them, in order to the making experiments of their accuracy and convenience.'

Mr. Speer has much to communicate: but, not being, according to his own confession, in the habits of composition, he has not imparted his notions neatly and concisely. However, he clearly shews the absurdity of many of the old excise regulations, with the defects of Clarke's hydrometer; and, moreover, that such defects cannot be remedied by additional weights.

In the construction of an hydrometer, many difficulties are to be overcome. If the stem be large, it cannot shew distinctly small variations of specific gravity; if small, it cannot be used for spirits differing materially in strength; and if it be furnished with weights and scales, it becomes complicated. These circumstances appear all to have been considered by the author of the present tract; and the following is the short description of his hydrometer:

'This new Hydrometer is made of hard brass: The ball is shaped in the form of a pear, being nearly two inches in diameter at its greatest dimension, and two inches and a quarter in length; the lower stem measures one inch and a half, and is in shape a prism, each side measuring one-eighth of an inch; to the lower end of this a round weight is fixed, the diameter of which is seven-eighths of an inch. The upper stem is in length five inches and an half, and is an octagon, each side being somewhat less than an eighth of an inch wide: Each of these sides is graduated for a temperature engraved on the top, the lowest being 35, the 2d 40, and so increasing by five until it reaches 70. The zero, or proof point, is marked ⊙, and the

gradations of strength (numbered at every 4th) amount to sixty-six, and those so clearly distinct, that at the over proofs they will admit of a sub-division, and by that means indicate an half per cent. These divisions are not at equal distances, an error which takes place in the present Irish, and several of the old Hydrometers, but widen in proportion as the specific gravity of the spirit diminishes; and being graduated with spirits of known strengths at every 4 per cent. the intermediate per centages are adjusted by interpolation.'

Mr. Speer does not satisfactorily remove the objection against his hydrometer, that, although different sides of the stem are to be used for different temperatures, yet the results cannot be exact, because the law of expansion varies in weak and strong spirits.

Art. 30. *An Essay on the Relation between the Specific Gravities and the Strengths and Values of Spirituous Liquors:* with Rules for the Adaptation of Mr. Gilpin's Tables to the present Standard, for the Percentage and Concentration when the Specific Gravity and Temperature are given. By Atkins and Co. Mathematical Instrument Makers. 4to. pp. 80. Cadell and Davies.

No one who is acquainted with the old acts of parliament for regulating the duty on spirit, or accustomed to the old methods of estimating its strength, can doubt the necessity of introducing new rules and instruments, by which the quantity of alcohol in any mixture might be ascertained. This point the present authors have very clearly made out; and they have shewn that the act, passed in the beginning of the reign, employs words of very loose and ambiguous meaning. Philosophers probably did not frame the act: but who are so proper to suggest the best modes of ascertaining the strengths of liquors, by means of commodious instruments and methods of computation? Government now acts more wisely than it did formerly; it procures the best advice, without intending probably to employ philosophers, according to a sarcastic saying of Frederic the Great, "in working the state by the method of fluxions."

A very great step was undoubtedly gained in practical science, when the strength of liquors was made to depend on their specific gravities. The surest method of determining the specific gravity is by actually weighing the fluid: but this mode is tedious; and therefore, for practical purposes, where expedition is required, the specific gravity is determined by an hydrometer, or *pese liqueur*. If, however, the specific gravity of pure spirit or alcohol be *a*, what is the proportion of pure spirit in a liquor of which the specific gravity is *b*? We must refer to experiment for an accurate answer to this question: for if we mix pure spirit and water, the bulk of the compound is not equal to the sum of the bulks of the ingredients: a concentration takes place, on which the specific gravity of the compound depends. Again, the specific gravity of pure spirit is determined for a temperature of 60°: therefore the liquor, of which the strength is to be examined, must be reduced to that temperature practically, or by finding from the registers of experiments what correction must be applied for the difference of its temperature and that of 60°. The latter mode, supposing the existence of tables, is the most convenient.

The authors of this work properly observe that, in order to ascertain the concentration, the effect of temperature, &c., the only sure guide

guide is experiment: since the law of expansion is not only different for spirit and water, but (which it is reasonable to conjecture) for spirits of different strength. The point of dilatation, too, is different for water and spirit: the former being at its minimum of bulk at 40° (Fahrenheit), the latter, at 30°.

Messrs. Atkins and Co. do not pass unnoticed the effect which mucilaginous and saccharine matters have in altering the specific gravity of spirit: it is a desideratum, however, to provide a simpler test of the presence of these substances, than that which is here given.

As Mr. Gilpin has constructed such excellent tables, little more seems necessary for accurately determining the strength of spirituous liquors than a manageable and accurate hydrometer. We wish that the authors had given a description of their instrument:—it would have rendered their essay, which is sensibly and scientifically drawn up, much more valuable. The tract deserves notice, but is too diffuse; or, to use a language appropriate to the occasion, according to our critical *pese liqueur*, the alcohol of their reasoning is considerably diluted with the water of words.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In reference to a remark of Mr. Flower, in his edition of Mr. Aspland's Sermon, as stated in our last Number, p. 109, we have received a letter from Mr. Hall; in which he 'solemnly declares' that, so far from being justly accused of a plagiarism in that instance, he 'never *heard* of the pamphlet from which he is charged with having stolen, till he read the extract from it in Mr. Flower's notes, and that he has never *seen* the pamphlet itself to this day.' We do not undertake to give any opinion on this point: we took the assertion of Mr. Flower as we found it; and we report Mr. Hall's contradiction of it as we have received it.

The controversy mentioned by *Cantianus* accidentally escaped our notice when it prevailed, and we had since determined to overlook it on account of the time which has elapsed. It would also be difficult for us now to collect all the tracts which relate to it. If, however, our Correspondent can furnish us with a list of them, and point out where they may be procured, we will try whether we can enable ourselves to rescind that resolution.

We shall comply with 'a Sportsman's' request when opportunity permits. To his query, we answer in the negative.

H. has our thanks. He will see that we avail ourselves of his hint.

Mr. Walker's tract on Wine was mentioned in our 41st Vol. p. 106.

☞ In the last Review, p. 5. l. 10. the comma after '*Lloyd*' should be placed after '*raised*;' p. 61. l. 8. for 'verdict,' r. *result*; p. 91. l. 31. put a semicolon after '*sought*.'

*** In the last *Appendix* p. 528. l. 11. from bottom, for 'taking leave of,' r. *returning to*.

THE
MONTHLY REVIEW,
For JULY, 1804.

ART. I. *Observations on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening.* Including some Remarks on Grecian and Gothic Architecture, collected from various Manuscripts in the Possession of the different Noblemen and Gentlemen for whose Use they were originally written: *the Whole tending to establish fixed Principles in the respective Arts.* By H. Repton. Esq. Large 4to. With many Plates. 5l. 5s. Boards. Taylor.

AMONG the many controversial publications which have appeared on the subject of Landscape Gardening, both inclination and reason unite in directing us to those productions which contain the practical ideas of an experienced Professor. Few subjects have met with more discussion, within a short period, than the one which is at present the object of our attention; and few, we are concerned to say, have been less satisfactorily elucidated. One author admires nature in all her wild luxuriance; while another, appalled by thorns and briars, prefers vegetation divested of its tangible terrors, and asserts that dressed grounds are more ornamental:—neither considering that these objects are alike delightful in their proper places, but, by neglecting to advert to the necessary disposition of each in order to answer the various demands of our wants and pleasures, exciting a controversy in which they have equally shewn an inattention to first principles. Had any of the inquiries been founded on these premises, they might have led to clearer conclusions.

The subject of landscape gardening is professedly the arrangement of grounds attached to a building that is destined for residence. Between the house and grounds, a relative connection must necessarily be maintained, corresponding with the three primary characters of isolated country dwellings. The first of these distinctions is the gentleman's residence, indicated, without respect to magnitude, by the disposition of the grounds for comfort and pleasure. The second is the farmer's residence; in whose vicinity, without a palpable violation of the rules of propriety, nothing can appear but what tends to promote a profitable account, as respecting both mecha-

nics and the produce of the soil. When unrestrained nature prevails on a farmer's land, that which might be a pleasing object in the first instance becomes a *dirty farm* in the second, and *vice versâ*. If it should be thought that both appearances may be combined about the residence of a *gentleman farmer*, a little attention to the subject will shew the impracticability of this idea. If the proprietor conducts the business as a farmer, his dwelling should be in the midst of the homestead, in order that the interesting operations of that place may be immediately under his watchful eye; one part of the mechanical arrangement must be contiguous to another, for the sake of greater advantage; and every yard of ground, devoted to picturesque scenery, will be applied to a loss. On the contrary, the homestead must be separated, and placed at some distance from what is to appear a gentleman's residence, and the former be consigned to the care of a superintendant in the character of a bailiff. Thus we see that the union of the farm-house and the gentleman's residence is decidedly very incompatible.

The third distinctive class is the humble cottage, usually stationed, for the convenience of its tenant, near the ordinary avocations of his labour; or contiguous to the objects placed under his care. This appropriation admits of nothing in its accompaniments but rustic nature: increase the dimensions, or dress the grounds, and the place becomes—what?—a mongrel production, affecting to belong to a poor occupier, but which cannot be maintained without a gentleman's estate.

Such are the strong lines of discrimination which indicate the character of the possessor. Any admixture is heterogeneous, and, as offending against propriety, is an evident mark of bad taste. The decorated cottage and the *ferme ornée* of magnificent cost become objects of ridicule, and serve only to expose the bad judgment of their owners and founders.

It is injurious to the investigation of general principles to multiply unnecessary distinctions. The Villa, Mansion, and Sporting Seat, are at most but varieties of the first class; each equally coming under the denomination of a gentleman's house. *Villa*, strictly speaking, is a general term for a country residence. The Mansion, in its original sense, signified a chief residence, and afterward the manor or lord's house; implying that it was the habitation of the proprietor of the surrounding lands, to distinguish it from others on the same estate; and the mansion or manor-house might therefore be larger or smaller, according to the opulence of the possessor. The Hunting Seat may occupy a station with those smaller houses of great proprietors, which are used only for occasional retreats; and for which an appellation is wanted in our language,

of equal signification with the Latin *villula*, or the Italian *casino*, to distinguish them from the chief residence. It will contain more or less of all that is desirable in a gentleman's dwelling, in proportion to the magnitude of the demesne, its local properties, and the circumstances and inclinations of the owner. The varieties of the first class, however much they may differ in scale, range under the same general principle, and form the particular object of the landscape gardener in the management of the grounds and surrounding scenery. In this pursuit, his first inquiry should be directed to the habits and occupations of the great landed proprietors of former times, in order to see how far the remains of their magnificence may be made conformable to modern customs and requisites.

In taking a view of the works of a remote period, when the *character* was most decidedly marked, it will be found to consist in *security*; which was then the most comfortable idea, and that which predominated in the mind of the proprietor. The entrance to the mansion was fortified; every aperture was barricadoed with iron; and the whole was surrounded by a high wall of defence. Where agriculture did not appear around the dwelling, a forest was the domain, and beyond the walls no labour seems to have been wasted in decoration; all was destined to produce a formidable appearance from without, and a concomitant seclusion was the result within. The habitation, we may reasonably suppose, was regarded less as combining the objects of pleasure, than as a place in which the baron and his guests might repose in confidence of its strength: for, in other respects, our forefathers, as we are taught, braved the open air much more than their modern descendants; they resorted to shelter when impelled by necessity, but otherwise their time was consumed abroad in sports of the field, or in feats of hardihood.

Sometimes a fortunate situation enabled them to preserve an opening to the outward view, when the building could be placed with one of its sides on the top of an inaccessible precipice; and, in many instances, it was furnished with a terrace overlooking the river which intersected or the impervious wood which filled the deep glen below, but still the main character was preserved. The broken rocks, the dangerous chasms, and the whole of the wild scenery attending the spot which we generally find selected, are peculiarly in character, and never fail to impress the mind of the beholder with the most solemn ideas.

Turning from scenes in which a portion of terror increased their sublimity, and taking a view of those which accompany modern customs, the contrast is very striking. Instead of the

peril of former times, amenity of manners now admits a free prospect of the surrounding scenery, and the allurements to sit within are numerous. It is therefore required by additional means to invite healthy recreation without. The grounds are to be accessible from almost every principal apartment of the house. Instead of the high wall of defence surrounding the mansion and its appendages, the boundary is now extended as far as the owner can afford to appropriate land to his pleasure; inclosed by a fence nowhere impassable with a little effort; and exhibiting at intervals a slight gate, with an attendant, to tell the passenger, "this is the road, if you wish to enter." Such are the effects of superior protection, afforded by the happy constitution under which we live.

The modern system of education, also, particularly promotes a disposition to sedentary occupations, and unfits a female (as well as in a great degree the other sex) for bearing much of the outward air, or for contending with natural roughness where prepared paths do not exist.

This investigation might include the periods of society between the two extremes; and although apparently exhibiting little more than a regular progression from the first to the last, it would eventually furnish a very interesting introduction to a work professedly treating on the subject of country residences, if executed with acute discriminations.

The character which a place of residence should possess, in order to accord with the quality of the inhabitant, forms the next consideration.

The man of taste, having the means of gratification in his power, will be desirous of retaining near him a portion of pure nature, untouched by the innovating hand of art. He will unite the useful and the ornamental for enjoyment; and these combinations will distinguish his residence from that of the indiscriminating and the necessitous. A little attention to the habits of modern times evinces that wild nature, hemming us in to the very door of the dwelling, is inadmissible: that comfort must not be sacrificed to the desire of scenes in a more natural state; and that the necessary accommodations now demand regularly disposed, clean, and convenient parts in the immediate vicinity of the house, in order that the inhabitant may venture out unannoyed by those obstructions which the nature of this climate would otherwise produce. The distance to which exercise in the open air will be extended, by delicate persons, is determined in a great measure by the appearance of the weather; and the more this is favourable, the farther will they be induced to ramble, and at times will wish to solace themselves with nature's wildest luxuriance. The true

principle of proceeding now becomes obvious: there should be a regular gradation from art to nature: the grounds and plantations immediately surrounding the house should be disposed for convenience and cheerfulness; and art should there be evident, to shew the care employed to keep them in that state. The distant parts, such as the lovers of picturesque beauty delight to contemplate, should be so united with near objects, as at once to satisfy the judgment and please the eye, without any violent transition from the one to the other. How far the appearance of art should extend needs not, in strict propriety, be regulated by the magnitude of the dwelling; though some little allowance may be due to that consideration. It is not the possession of a large mansion that renders the human frame capable of an extended walk; and the proprietor of a small spot equally demands convenient walks around the house. It is therefore a great absurdity to put "all the world in an acre;" as sometimes occurs in the neighbourhood of Paris, under the appellation of an English Garden, where the dressed ground and the wilderness together scarcely admit of an hundred paces. The wilder scenes, in every sense, require to be kept at a due distance from a house of any consequence.

Between the house and the distant ground, where nature should appear unmolested, there is much room for a landscape gardener to exercise his skill in regard to the necessary conveniences, as well as in displaying the distant scenes to the greatest advantage. This part of his duty is amply detailed by Mr. Repton in many excellent examples, selected from his extensive practice: but unfortunately they lose much of their value under the miscellaneous form in which they are presented. We have on this account been induced to make some little attempt towards supplying the defect of fundamental rules and of order, without which the beauty and advantages of his work could not be readily appreciated. He offers an apology, indeed, in the prefixed advertisement for its appearance in the present state, saying that he met with almost insurmountable difficulties in forming a systematic arrangement; and 'that the whole has been written in a carriage during his professional journeys from one place to another, and being seldom more than three days together in the same place, the difficulty of producing this volume, such as it is, can hardly be conceived by those who enjoy the blessings of stationary retirement, or a permanent home.'

Another defect, which we have had occasion to notice in this work, is that the author frequently deduces, as general principles, those which apply only to particular cases; and he is thus subject at times to seeming contradictions. Viewing the work, however, as a desultory performance, consisting of selec-

tions either from what has been executed, or from what was intended for execution, with descriptions of the locality of situation, and the reasons which guided the artist in his operations, the whole forms a very interesting collection of examples; and although the want of arrangement and of proper connection is a failure which must be lamented, we meet with detached discussions on most of the important points belonging to the subject.

In disposing the ground about the intended scite of a dwelling, it is fortunate for the owner if it be amply stored by nature, so as to require only a partial clearance:—the best advice in such a case being to employ the destructive instruments with caution, recollecting that more mischief may be produced in an hour than can be remedied in a century. We must at the same time bear in mind that, in most instances, there are some defects to be conquered, and many beauties to be atchieved; and undoubtedly much must be created to fit the place for the destined purpose. Here Mr. R. very properly observes, 'The Professor only acquires a knowlege of effects before they are produced, and a facility in producing them, by various methods, expedients, and resources, the result of study, observation, and experience. He knows what can and what cannot be accomplished within certain limits.' (Pref. p. 9.) On this part of the subject, few positive rules can be given: the locality and the prospects must dictate; and good taste must exercise its functions on the spot. General principles, previously established, may often aid the decision; and if sometimes a bold feature is presented, which may encourage and even demand a deviation from prevailing rules, the interference of a first-rate hand is then absolutely necessary: or, as in painting, where the master's stroke would effect wonders, the touch of an inferior artist will spoil the whole.

We now proceed to lay before our readers a more particular account of the contents, with some specimens, of the present work, accompanied with occasional remarks.

Chapter 1. delivers a few observations on *Utility*, but is mostly occupied on *Comparative Proportion*. On the first point, Mr. R. says:

'Under relative fitness I include the comfort, the convenience, the character, and every circumstance of a place, that renders it the desirable habitation of man, and adapts it to the uses of each individual proprietor; for it has occasionally happened to me to have been consulted on the same subject by two different proprietors, when my advice has been materially varied, to accord with the respective circumstances or intentions of each.'

On the second subject, we are told:

'The necessity of observing scale or comparative proportion, may be further elucidated by a reference to West Wycombe, a place generally

nerally known from its vicinity to the road to Oxford. Amongst the profusion of buildings and ornament which the false taste of the last age lavished upon this spot, many were correct in design, and, considered separately, in proportion; but even many of the designs, although perfect in themselves, were rendered absurd, from inattention either to the scale or situation of the surrounding objects. The summit of a hill is covered by a large mass of Grecian architecture, out of which apparently rises a small square projection, with a ball at the top, not unlike the kind of cupolas misplaced over stables; but in reality this building is the tower of a church *, and the ball a room sufficiently large to contain eight or ten people.

'This comparative proportion, or, in other words, this attention to scale or measurement, is not only necessary with regard to objects near each other, but it forms the basis of all improvement depending on perspective, by the laws of which it is well known, that objects diminish in apparent size in proportion to their distance: yet the application of this principle may not perhaps have been so universally considered.'

On *removing ground*, he observes:

'Having often seen great expence incurred by removing ground to shew the whole surface of a valley from the top of a hill, it may not be improper to explain that such an effort is seldom useful or desirable. To the painter it is impossible to represent ground thus foreshortened, and the first source of beauty in the composition of a landscape, is the separation of distinct distances; the imagination delights in filling up those parts of the picture which the eye cannot see; and thus in a landscape, while we do not see the bottom of a deep glen, we suppose it deeper than it really is; but when its whole shape is once laid open, the magic of fancied rocks and rattling torrents is reduced perhaps to the mortifying discovery of a dry valley or a swampy meadow.'

In Chapter 2, among other remarks, we find observations on *the Field of Vision*, and the different effects of light on various objects, accompanied by diagrams. Without the latter, ex-

* On the summit of another building, viz. a saw-mill in the park, was a figure of a man in a brown coat and a broad brimmed hat, representing the great Penn of Pennsilvania, which being much larger than the natural proportion of a man, yet having the appearance of a man upon the roof of the building, diminished the size of every other object by which it was surrounded. It has since been removed, and is now in the possession of Mr. Penn at Stoke Pogies, where, placed in a room, it seems a colossal figure. Another instance of false scale at this place, was the diminutive building with a spire at the end of the park, which, perhaps, when the neighbouring trees were small, might have been placed there with a view of extending the perspective. This artifice may be allowable in certain cases, and to a certain degree, yet a cathedral in miniature must in itself be absurd; and when we know that it was only the residence of a shoemaker, and actually dedicated to St. Crispin, it becomes truly ridiculous.'

tracts would be unsatisfactory; and we regret our insufficiency in this respect, because the discussion comprehends some interesting points. Respecting light and shade, the author draws this conclusion:

'That certain objects appear best with the sun behind them, and others with the sun full upon them; and it is rather singular, that to the former belong all *natural* objects, such as Woods, Trees, Lawn, Water, and distant Mountains; while to the latter belong all *artificial* objects, such as Houses, Bridges, Roads, Boats, Arable-fields, and distant Towns or Villages.'

As the work proceeds, it refers chiefly to drawings exemplifying a number of Mr. Repton's labours: deprived of these, it is difficult for us to furnish an adequate idea of the contents: but the following passages, from Chapter 3. relate to a well-known situation, and will illustrate some of the preceding remarks:

'During great part of last century, West Wycombe was deemed a garden of such finished beauty, that to those who formerly remembered the place, it will seem absurd to suggest any improvement. But time will equally extend its changing influence to the works of nature and to those of art, since the planter has to contend with a power—

"A hidden power! at once his friend and foe!
'Tis VEGETATION! Gradual to his groves
She gives their wished effects, and that displayed,
O! that her power would pause! but active still,
She swells each stem, prolongs each vagrant bough,
And darts, with unremitting vigour bold,
From grace to wild luxuriance"—— MASON.

'Thus at West Wycombe, those trees and shrubs which were once its greatest ornament, have now so far outgrown their situation, that the whole character of the place is altered; and instead of that gaiety and cheerfulness inspired by flowering shrubs and young trees, gloom and melancholy seem to have reared their standard in the branches of the tallest elms, and to shed their influence on every surrounding object: on the House, by lessening its importance; on the Water, by darkening its surface; and on the Lawn, by lengthened shadows.

'The prodigious height of the trees near the house has not merely affected the character, but also the very situation of the house. Instead of appearing to stand on a dry bank, considerably above the water (as it actually does), the house, oppressed by the neighbouring trees, became damp, and appeared to have been placed in a gloomy bottom, while the water was hardly visible, from the dark reflection of the trees on its surface, and the views of the distant hills were totally concealed from the house.

'It is a fortunate circumstance for the possessor where improvement can be made rather by cutting down than by planting trees. The effect is instantly produced, and as the change in the scenery at this

this place has actually been realized before I could make a sketch to explain its necessity, the accompanying drawing serves to record my reason for so boldly advising the use of the axe. I am well aware that my advice may subject me to the criticism of some, who will regret the loss of old trees, which, like old acquaintances, excite a degree of veneration, even when their age and infirmity have rendered them useless, perhaps offensive, to all but their youthful associates. The tedious process of planting and rearing woods, and the dreadful havock too often made by injudiciously felling large trees, ought certainly to inspire caution and diffidence; but there is in reality no more temerity in marking the trees to be taken down than those to be planted, and I trust there has not been a single tree displaced at West Wycombe, which has not tended to improve the healthfulness, the magnificence, and the beauty of the place.

'Most of the principal rooms having a north aspect, the landscape requires peculiar management not generally understood. Lawn, wood, and water, are always seen to the greatest advantage with the sun behind them, because the full glare of light between opposite trees destroys the contrast of wood and lawn; while water never looks so brilliant and cheerful when reflecting the northern, as the southern sky: a view therefore to the north would be dull and uninteresting without some artificial objects, such as boats or buildings, or distant corn-fields, to receive the opposite beams of the sun.

'A sketch which I made shewed the effect of taking down trees to admit the distant woods, and by removing those on the island, and of course their reflection, the water becomes more conspicuous; in addition to this, the proposed new road of approach, with carriages occasionally passing near the banks of the lake, will give animation to the view from the saloon.

'The view of West Wycombe, inserted in this work, being taken from the proposed approach, I shall here beg leave to make a short digression, explaining my reasons for that line, founded on some general principles respecting an approach, although it has no other reference to the water, than as it justifies its course in passing the house to arrive at its object.

'If the display of magnificent or of picturesque scenery in a park be made without ostentation, it can be no more at variance with good taste, than the display of superior affluence in the houses, the equipage, the furniture, or the habiliment of wealthy individuals. It will, therefore, I trust, sufficiently justify the line of approach here proposed, to say, that it passes through the most interesting part of the grounds, and will display the scenery of the place to the greatest advantage, without making any violent or unnecessary circuit, to include objects that do not naturally come within its reach. This I deem to be a just and sufficient motive, and an allowable display of property without ostentation.

'The former approach to the house was on the south side of the valley, and objectionable for two reasons: 1st, it ascended the hill, and after passing round the whole of the buildings, it descended to the house, making it appear to stand low: 2d, by going along the side of the hill, little of the park was shewn, although the road actually passed

passed through it; because, on an inclined plane, the ground which either rises on one side or falls on the other, becomes fore-shortened and little observed, while the eye is directed to the opposite side of the valley, which, in this instance, consisted of enclosures beyond the park. On the contrary, the proposed new approach, being on the north side of the valley, will shew the park on the opposite bank to advantage, and, by ascending to the house, it will appear in its true and desirable situation upon a sufficient eminence above the water; yet backed by still higher ground, richly clothed with wood, this view of the house will also serve to explain, and I hope to justify, the sacrifice of those large trees which have been cut down upon the island, and whose dark shadows being reflected on the water, excluded all cheerfulness.'

We shall now transcribe a passage on *Planting*, in Chapter 4.:

'Single trees, or open groups, are objects of great beauty when scattered on the side of a steep hill, because they may be made to mark the degree of its declivity, and the shadows of the trees are very conspicuous; but on a plain the shadows are little seen, and therefore single trees are of less use.

'I am now to speak of plantations for future, rather than for immediate effect, and instead of mentioning large tracts of land which have been planted under my directions, where a naked, or a barren country has been clothed without difficulty or contrivance, I shall rather instance a subject requiring peculiar management, especially as from its vicinity to a high road, I cannot perhaps produce a better example than the following extract furnishes.

"Coombe Lodge, seen from the turnpike road, does not at present give a favourable impression; for though the view from the house, consisting of the opposite banks of Basildon, is richly wooded, the place itself is naked; and it is difficult to remove this objection without sacrificing more land to the purposes of beauty, than would be advisable, or even justifiable.

'Both the situation and the outline of the house at Coombe Lodge have been determined with judgment: the situation derives great advantages from its southern aspect, and from the views which it commands; and the house derives importance from its extended front. Both these circumstances, however, contribute to the bad opinion conceived of the place when viewed from the road, which is the point from whence its defects are most apparent.

'The front towards the road faces the south, and is therefore lighted by the sun during the greatest part of the day; but being backed by lawn and arable land, and not relieved by wood, the effect of sunshine is equally strong on the back ground as on the house, because there is not a sufficient opposition of colour to separate these different objects; but if, on the contrary, the house be opposed to wood, it will then appear light and conspicuous, the attention being principally directed to the mansion, while the other parts of the scene will be duly subordinate.

'It is also proper that the grounds should accord with the size and stile of the place, and that the mansion be surrounded by its appropriate

propriate appendages. At present the character of the house, and that of the place, are at variance: the latter is that of a farm, but the character of the house is that of a gentleman's residence, which should be surrounded by pleasure ground, wood, and lawn; and although great credit is due to those gentlemen who patronize farming by their example, as well as by their influence, it would be a reflection on the good taste of the country to suppose that the habitation of the gentleman ought not to be distinguished from that of the farmer, as well in the character of the place, as by the size of the house.

'I shall not on this occasion enter into a discussion of the difference between a scene in nature, and a landscape on the painter's canvas; nor consider the very different means by which the painter and the landscape gardener produce the same effect: I shall merely endeavour to shew how far the same principles would direct the professors of either art in the improvement of Coombe Lodge, and more particularly in the form and character of the wood to the north of the house.

'*Breadth*, which is one of the first principles of painting, would prompt the necessity of planting the whole of the hill behind the house; but the improver, who embellishes the scene for the purposes of general utility and real life, must adopt what is convenient as well as beautiful. The painter, when he studies the perfection of his art, forms a correct picture, and takes beauty for his guide. The improver consults the genius of the scene, and connects beauty with those useful supporters, economy and convenience; and as Coombe Lodge would not be relieved by one large wood without a great sacrifice of land, the effect must be produced by planting a part only, whilst the judgment must be influenced by two principles belonging to the sister art, *breadth* and *intricacy*.

'Breadth directs the necessity of large masses or continued lines of plantation, whilst intricacy suggests the shape and direction of the glades of lawn, and teaches how to place loose groups of trees, and separate masses of brushwood, where the outline might otherwise appear hard; and by occasional interruptions to the flowing lines of grass, with suitable recesses and projections of wood, Intricacy contrives to "lead the eye a wanton chace," producing variety without fritter, and continuity without sameness.

'There is another principle to guide the improver in planting the hill in question, which may be derived from the art of painting, and belongs to perspective. It is evident, that if the whole bank were planted, its effects would be good from every point of view: it is no less evident, that where it is necessary to regard economy in planting, and, as in the present instance, to produce the effect of clothing by several lines of wood, instead of one great mass; that effect from some points of sight may be good, from some indifferent, and from others bad; it is therefore necessary to consider how those lines of plantation, which produce a good effect from the house, will appear in perspective from different heights and from different situations, and this question has been determined by various circumstances of the place itself.

'This

'This subject was elucidated by as many drawings as there were stations described; but as most of them were taken from the public road between Reading and Wallingford, the effect of these plantations will be seen from thence; and I have availed myself, as much as possible, of those examples which, from their proximity to a public road, are most likely to be generally observed.

'If the more common appearances in nature were objects of our imitation, we should certainly plant the valleys and not the hills, since nature generally adopts this rule in her spontaneous plantations; but it is "la belle nature," or those occasional effects of extraordinary beauty, which nature furnishes as models to the Landscape Gardener. And although a wood on the summit of a bleak hill may not be so profitable, or grow so fast, as one in the sheltered valley, yet its advantages will be strongly felt on the surrounding soil. The verdure will be improved when defended from winds, and fertilized by the successive fall of leaves, whilst the cattle will more readily frequent the hills when they are sheltered and protected by sufficient skreens of plantation *.

'In recommending that the hills should be planted, I do not mean that the summits only should be covered by a patch or clump; the woods of the valleys should, on the contrary, seem to climb the hills by such connecting lines, as may neither appear meagre nor artificial, but following the natural shapes of the ground, produce an apparent continuity of wood falling down the hills in various directions.

——— "Rich the robe,
And ample let it flow, that nature wears
On her thron'd eminence! where'er she takes
Her horizontal march, pursue her step
With sweeping train of forest; hill to hill
Unite, with prodigality of shade."——— MASON.

'During the first few years of large plantations in a naked country, the outline, however graceful, will appear hard and artificial; but when the trees begin to require thinning, a few single trees or groups may be brought forward. The precise period at which this may be advisable must depend on the nature of the soil; but so rich is the ground in which plantations were made at Aston about ten years since, that this management has already been adopted with effect. I must observe in this place, that instead of protecting large plantations with hedges and ditches, I have generally recommended a temporary fence of posts and rails, or hurdles on the outside, and either advise a hedge of thorns to be planted at eight or ten yards distance from the outline, or rather that the whole plantation be so filled with thorns and spinous plants, that the cattle may not penetrate far when the temporary fences shall be removed, and thus may be formed that beautiful and irregular outline so much admired in the woods and thickets of a forest.'

'* This remark is verified at Aston, where it is found that more cattle are fed in the park from the improved *qualities* of pasture, since the *quantity* has been reduced by the ample plantations made within the last ten years.'

The

The two succeeding chapters detail many expedients suggested for overcoming natural defects and inconveniencies; the success of which amply justifies the high opinion entertained of the author's talents.

Chapter 7. exposes with just censure the ridiculous idea of a *ferme ornée*; and the distinction is forcibly shewn between a park and arable scenery; between the residence of the landlord and that of the farmer.

The 8th Chapter treats of the *Pleasure-Ground.* On this subject, we agree with Mr. R. in many points: but we cannot acquiesce in making an apparent and distinct line to separate the dressed ground, under the management of art, from that which is left in a state of neglected nature. We coincide with him in objecting to the idea that the appearance of art should terminate at the threshold of the door: but we think that all abrupt transitions should be avoided, and a due gradation maintained from art to nature:—or, in other words, that utility and cheerful cleanliness should by degrees mark the vicinity of the dwelling. We are inclined to think that these are Mr. R.'s sentiments, from such of his late designs as we have seen executed; and that the opinion, which this chapter seems to convey, is to be attributed only to a want of sufficient explanation.

Chapter 9. is chiefly occupied in defending the practice of Landscape Gardeners against the opinions of Messrs. Price and Knight; and some notice of the history of the art occurs in Chapter 10, in which a particular observation attracted our attention. After having cited an instance in which Mr. R. had advised the removal of many trees, he says:

'In thus recommending the liberal use of the axe, I hope I shall not be deemed an advocate for that bare and bald system of gardening which has been so justly ridiculed. I do not profess to follow either Le Nôtre or Brown, but selecting beauties from the style of each, to adopt so much of the grandeur of the former as may accord with a palace, and so much of the grace of the latter as may call forth the charms of natural landscape. Each has its proper situation; and good taste will make fashion subservient to good sense.

'The modern rage for natural landscape has frequently carried its admirers beyond the true limits of improvement, the first object of which ought to be *convenience*, and the next *picturesque beauty*.'

In this general way of speaking, nothing is clearly defined. The gradation which we recommend clearly marks the place of each object.

Chapter 11. is miscellaneous. In the same paragraph (p. 135.) the author asserts that general principles are impossible; and yet he hopes that 'some general principles' may be deduced from

from the reasons on which the examples of his operations are founded, 'tending to prove that *there are Rules for good taste.*' These ideas are not perfectly consistent.

In this chapter, Mr. R. has again bestowed some labour in considering *approaches* to a mansion; a subject which occupied a great portion of his former publication *. We cannot think that his criticism on a pair of lodges, under the idea of their being frequently the abode of 'squalid misery,' is by any means generally just; nor is the added sarcasm worth recording, though the passage seems to have been introduced for that purpose. It must be the fault of the proprietor, not the necessary consequence of the establishment, if such wretchedness is there presented to the eye of the visitor; and even in a lodge placed at the approach to a work house, the governors are usually careful that the gatekeeper should be decent:—can we then conceive that the master of a lordly mansion should be less attentive to appearances? A handsome gateway distinguishes the entrance to a principal residence; and, whatever may be the custom of some proprietors, a servant is expected to be found officiating there for convenience, and to prevent improper intrusions: indeed such a gateway, indicating such a principal entrance, cannot be complete without an attendant; and his station should be evident, in order that a stranger, wishing to make inquiry, should be at no loss. For convenience, the lodge should be close to the gate; and, in every view of propriety, no plan seems so well adapted to the purpose as that in which they are contiguous to each other. It appears ridiculous to meet with a grand gateway, by which the visitor knows he is to enter, while the means of obtaining entrance are denied, until, after a bewildering search, according to Mr. R.'s proposition, smoke is descried issuing from a neighbouring thicket! The lodge should in reality be an appropriate appendage to the gate; and whatever attempt may be made to throw ridicule on the custom of 'splitting the building into a pair,' this love of palpable uniformity is preferable to the obscurity which attends the adoption of an opposite extreme.

We transcribe the subsequent passage, however, with much satisfaction:

'Instead of depopulating villages, and destroying hamlets in the neighbourhood of a palace, I should rather wish to mark the importance of the mansion, and the wealth of its domain, by the appearance of proper provision for its poor dependants; the frequent instances I have witnessed where the industrious labourer had many miles to walk from his daily task, have strongly inforced the necessity, not to say

* See M. Rev. Vol. xix. N. S. p. 1.

humanity,

humanity, of providing comfortable and convenient residences for those who may have employment about the grounds. It is thus that the real importance of a place might be distinguished by the number of its cottages, or rather substantial houses appropriated to the residence of those belonging to the place; this would truly enrich the scenery of a country, by creating a village at the entrance of every park; it is not by their number only, but by the attention to the neatness, comfort, and simple ornament of such buildings, that we should then judge of the style of the neighbouring palace; and whether the houses were of clay and thatched, or embellished with the ornaments of architecture, there would be equal opportunity for the display of good taste.'

Every benevolent mind will accord with Mr. R.'s proposition; which is not less honourable for attention to the peasant, than for the good sense of placing the village so as to administer to the cheerfulness and convenience of the principal residence: of preventing the uncomfortable and drear appearance of a solitary approach; and of raising images in the mind which accord with the idea of the consequence attending, and the support resulting from a robust and protected peasantry on a large landed property. This is the noblest feature of a great domain; and, in its adoption, the late erroneous practice will be changed for the more gratifying custom of former days. The poor peasant, instead of being driven to an inhospitable spot, will participate in the extensive improvements of his Lord; and the combination will present a picture, in due subordination, of the alliance between the tenantry and their chief: while the appearance of the village will give the proprietor an opportunity of impressing the stranger with a due idea of his state, and of his attention to the true supporters of his dignity and comfort *.

Mr.

* On the subject of the peasant and his cottage, we cannot help recording the opposite modes pursued by two ecclesiastical dignitaries, of princely revenue in the sister kingdoms. The one, in our adjoining island, by a benevolent attention to the poor within his diocese, rendering their cabins not only comfortable, but of a clean and cheerful appearance, was constantly greeted by the peasantry with a joyful countenance whenever he passed their cot; and none of the rancour, so often engendered by opposite religions, here prevailed against inward gratitude for real benefits received. The care which was taken to keep the dwellings in a clean coat had its influence on the inside, and the poor of that part of Ireland exhibited a strong contrast to those of other districts, in which filth characterized the inhabitants.

In the other case, on this side of the water, a considerable sum was appropriated to serve the poor, when provisions were at a great price; and the dignitary applied it in the purchase of bacon and potatoes,

Mr. Repton has laid down a principle in his preface, (p. 13.) that 'an approach which does not evidently lead to the house, or which does not take the shortest course, cannot be right:' but he frequently deviates from this rule in his works, without shewing sufficient reason for his change of sentiment. We think that, from the principal park entrance to the mansion, the general approach undoubtedly requires a proper distinction, and that art should appear as attending on convenience. It is rarely prudent to distend the approach by a circuit round the park, for the sake of shewing its beauties and extent before the visiter reaches the house; because, when thus satiated, the mind has nothing more either to desire or to expect. Besides, a dressed road certainly interferes too much with pure nature: they are incongruous, and ought to be kept distinct. At intervals, a slight view of the distant grounds, from the approach, is as much as will be desirable, in order to give some idea of what we are afterward to behold.

These remarks have now extended to so much length, that we must defer the remainder of this article to our next Number.

[*To be continued.*]

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tators, to be served out at a low consideration. The poor were required to attend at the palace gate, and, together with the mite which formed their destined share, they had a lesson read to them on frugality; and, on repeating their application, they were required to give an account of the manner in which every farthing of their earnings had been expended. The number of applications soon diminished; and in a little time it was found that the viands might be retained or sold to the usual venders, since the English cottager would rather bear with half a meal, purchased at a shop price, than have his independent mind insulted.

It is the manner of conveying a benefit which heightens its value. An ostentatious display of bounty makes the receiver feel the disparity of condition; and it excites a dissatisfaction in the idea that chance has not given him the advantage possessed by a more fortunate fellow-creature, which is paramount to all other considerations.

In another instance, a nobleman, by the rewards and punishments of exhibiting names hung up in a parish church, endeavoured to enforce the attendance of the poor parishioners at divine worship. Much pains were taken, without the desired effect:—the defaulters were numerous; and it is much to be feared that the best attendances were given from respect to the earthly lord. Not so with the good pastor of the west. Neither his ample fortune, nor his active exertions as a magistrate, can induce him to withdraw his attentions from his parishioners. He likewise notices the occasional absence of any of his flock: but he calls at their habitations to learn whether disease or distress has been the cause; and at *his* church are few defaulters, though it is distant several miles from the residence of the majority of his parishioners. To the great dignitary we would say,—"Go thou, and do likewise."

ART.

ART. II. *The Life and Posthumous Writings of William Cowper, Esq.*; with an introductory Letter to the Right Honourable Earl Cowper. By William Hayley, Esq. Vol. III.* 4to. pp. 416. 1l. 1s. Boards. Johnson. 1804.

"MORE last words" are rarely the best words of a posthumous author; and it has often happened that an injudicious editor, by draining his favourite to the very dregs, has made admiration terminate in something not unlike disgust:—but not so Mr. Hayley with his friend Cowper, whose genius flows with equal spirit and clearness to the last. In this additional volume, we are presented with a series of letters chiefly addressed to two correspondents, the Rev. John Newton, Rector of St. Mary Woolnoth, and the Rev. William Unwin, son of Mrs. Unwin, the poet's *Mary*, written between the years 1778 and 1786; in which the life, character, and opinions of the author are fully displayed; and which, on account both of matter and manner, cannot fail of being acceptable to the public. Never was the life of a recluse rendered so full of entertainment to his friends, as that of Cowper. Though he speaks of himself as 'living in a vinegar-bottle,' and as occupied with the most trivial employments, he contrives, by the use which he makes of them, by the ease of his style, by his natural and playful descriptions, and by the reflections of a fertile mind, to excite an interest not inferior to that which we feel in perusing the lives of men who have passed through the most busy and agitating scenes.

What imagination can be so dull, after having read these letters, as not to view the poet in his parlour, garden, and green-house; not to behold him in the act of writing and in that of reading aloud to the ladies, or in the humbler employments of feeding his birds and his tame hares, winding thread, working in the garden, and even mending the kitchen windows? Cowper's *forte* was letter-writing; and he has himself so minutely detailed his avocations and his thoughts, that, without intending it, he became his own biographer. The office of the editor, therefore, as far as this object is concerned, is only that of collecting the communications which the poet made to his friends, and of chronologically arranging them. The objection may be urged against an exhibition of this kind, that it displays perpetual egotism: but this is unavoidable from the very circumstances of the case; and, as the public must be aware that it is a peep behind the curtain with which they were not originally to be indulged, they will be rather inclined

* For Vols. 1 and 2, see Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. (July 1803.)

to thank the editor than to demand an apology for his conduct. Perhaps the letter-writer himself, on some occasions, would have more right to be displeased: for these letters probably display more of the ambition of the poet, than the poet himself would wish to be made public; since, with every exertion to keep himself humble, that "best infirmity of noble minds" gains the ascendancy; and though he tells Mr. Unwin that his and his mother's approbation is fame enough for him, his exertions and solicitude in reality point to more extended praise. Mr. Cowper was a very good and amiable man; and he might be seriously desirous of checking in his own mind that self-gratulation, with which the applause of the world is very apt to be accompanied: but, as what Horace has observed respecting the occupations of a poet will apply also to his morals, (should the latter happen to be an object of his solicitude,)

In vitium ducit culpæ fuga——;

so we see in the case before us the fear of vanity * producing false modesty, since Mr. C. could never think that 'he had no more right to the name of poet than the maker of mouse-traps to that of engineer;' nor that his letters are never worth reading, p. 116.

The melancholy of the author of the Task is often introduced by himself in these epistles, but it appears to have been of a very peculiar character: for he remarks in one of his letters; 'Strange as it may seem, the most ludicrous lines I ever wrote have been written in the saddest mood, and but for that mood perhaps had never been written.'

These selections are preceded by observations on the Letters of eminent writers, particularly those of Pope and Cowper; which the editor modestly calls 'Desultory Remarks,' but which the reader will not find to be so desultory as the title indicates. Mr. Hayley notices the letters of classic antiquity, as well as those which have been written in the modern languages of Europe. In mentioning the epistolary productions of our own country, he enters into arguments, from which in this place we shall abstain: but, in adverting to the French, who have been considered as our superiors in this style of composition, he is proud of the compliment paid to Cowper by a foreigner, though he will not subscribe to our previous inferiority.

'The Letters of the Poet have been honored with the notice, and the applause of foreigners. A polite and liberal scholar of France,

* In p. 286, we are told that he considers himself as 'not partaking in the smallest degree of that vanity with which authors in general are so justly chargeable.'

deeply

deeply versed in our literature, has confessed, that he never thought the writers of this country equal to those of his own, in all the excellencies of epistolary writing, till he read the Letters of Cowper.

'Gratified as I am by a compliment so honorable to my departed friend, I am too zealous an advocate for the literary glory of our country to admit, that the Letter-writers of England are collectively inferior in merit to those of any nation in the modern world.'

We shall not enter into Mr. Hayley's appreciation of the merits of those writers whom he enumerates in these remarks, but shall confine ourselves to the poet of Olney.—Mr. H. next explains the motives by which his conduct as editor has been regulated, and particularly in relation to that part of the correspondence which details the quarrel between the female rival-candidates for the poet's affection, Lady Austen and Mrs. Unwin. Feeling that the spirit of Cowper would not approve of his suffering any aspersion to be cast on the temper of the latter Lady without some attempt to wipe it away, Mr. H. introduces an extract from a letter, which mentions their reconciliation: but it does not completely effect the object for which it was produced; and the obvious answer to it is, in the form of a question, "If the Ladies were reconciled, why was the happy trio dissolved?"

'In preparing the following selection for the press, I have endeavoured to recollect, on every doubtful occasion, the feelings of Cowper; and made it a rule to reject, whatever my perfect intimacy with those feelings could lead me to suppose the spirit of the departed Poet might wish me to lay aside, as unfit for publication. I consider an editor as guilty of the basest injury to the dead, who admits into the posthumous volumes of an author, whom he professes to love and admire, any composition, which his own conscience informs him, *that author*, if he could speak from the tomb, would direct him to suppress.

'On this principle, I have declined to print some Letters, which entered more than I think the public ought to enter, into the history of a trifling feminine discord, that disturbed the perfect harmony of the happy trio at Olney, when Lady Austen and Mrs. Unwin were the united inspirers of the Poet; yet, as the brief and true account, which I gave of their separation, has been thought to cast a shade of censure on the temper of Mrs. Unwin, which I was far from intending, in justice to the memory of that exemplary and sublime female friend, I will here introduce a passage from a Letter of Cowper to the Reverend William Unwin, honorable to both the ladies in question, as it describes them in a moment of generous reconciliation:—

"I inclose a letter from Lady Austen, which I beg you to return to me in your next. We are reconciled: she seized the first opportunity to embrace your Mother with tears of the tenderest affection, and I, of course, am satisfied. We were all a little awkward at first, but now are as easy as ever."

'This Letter happens to have no date, but the expressions I have ited from it, are sufficient to prove, that Mrs. Unwin, instead of having

having shewn an envious infirmity of temper on this occasion, must have conducted herself with a delicate liberality of mind.'

Some persons will be of opinion that the twelve letters inserted at the end of this volume, written in the early part of the Poet's life, (in 1765, 6) to his relation Lady Hesketh, might with no injury to his fame have been omitted: but the editor gives the following reason for their insertion, which we consider it as our duty to state:

'If in selecting Letters of my friend for the press, I should alarm the volatile reader by admitting several of a devotional spirit, I will ingenuously confess my reason for imparting them to the public. There is such tender simplicity, such attractive sweetness, in these serious Letters, that I am confident few professed works of devotion can equal their efficacy in awakening and confirming sincere and simple piety, in persons of various persuasions. His Letters and his Poetry will, in this respect, alternately extend and strengthen the influence of each other. He wrote occasionally to clerical friends of the established church, and to others among the dissenters. His heart made no difference between them, for it felt towards both the fraternal sensations of true Christianity.'

As Mr. Cowper possessed the art of what he terms 'letter-spinning' in a most agreeable manner, we should think that our task was imperfectly executed, were we to omit to present our readers with some specimens from this additional collection. It is difficult, however, to make such a choice as will satisfy all readers. Yet, if we cannot advert to the variety of subjects on which, as circumstances arise, he offers his opinion, we shall transcribe enough to give farther insight into the character and manner of this enlightened, sprightly, and amiable man.

The contents of this volume being for the most part addressed to two clergymen, we shall in the first place exhibit the author's hints relative to preaching, which are admirable:

'To the Rev. JOHN NEWTON.

'My Dear Friend, June 17, 1783.

'Your Letter reached Mr. S——— while Mr. ——— was with him; whether it wrought any change in *his* opinion of that gentleman, as a preacher, I know not, but for my own part I give you full credit for the soundness and rectitude of *yours*. No man was ever scolded out of his sins. The heart, corrupt as it is, and because it is so, grows angry if it be not treated with some management and good manners, and scolds again. A surley mastiff will bear perhaps to be stroked, though he will growl even under that operation; but if you touch him roughly, he will bite. There is no grace that the spirit of self can counterfeit with more success than a religious zeal. A man thinks he is fighting for Christ, and he is fighting for his own notions. He thinks that he is skilfully searching the hearts of others, when he is only gratifying the malignity of his own; and charitably supposes his

his hearers destitute of all grace, that he may shine the more in his own eyes by comparison. When he has performed this notable task, he wonders that they are not converted; "he has given it them soundly, and if they do not tremble, and confess that God is in him of a truth, he gives them up as reprobate, incorrigible, and lost for ever." But a man that loves me, if he sees me in an error, will pity me, and endeavour calmly to convince me of it, and persuade me to forsake it. If he has great and good news to tell me, he will not do it angrily, and in much heat and discomposure of spirit. It is not therefore easy to conceive on what ground a minister can justify a conduct, which only proves that he does not understand his errand. The absurdity of it would certainly strike him if he were not himself deluded.

'A people will always love a minister, if a minister seems to love his people. The old maxim, *Simile agit in simile*, is in no case more exactly verified: therefore you were beloved at Olney, and if you preached to the Chickesaws, and Chactaws, would be equally beloved by them.'

In another letter, dated March 29, 1784, addressed to the same correspondent, and in reference to the same Mr. S——, he offers similar remarks:

'Mr. S———, who you say was so much admired in your pulpit, would be equally admired in his own, at least by all capable judges, were he not so apt to be angry with his congregation. This hurts him, and had he the understanding and eloquence of Paul himself, would still hurt him. He seldom, hardly ever indeed, preaches a gentle, well tempered sermon, but I hear it highly commended: but warmth of temper, indulged to a degree that may be called scolding, defeats the end of preaching. It is a misapplication of his powers, which it also cripples; and teizes away his hearers. But he is a good man; and may perhaps out-grow it.'

Mr. C. is not less judicious in his advice to Christians, in a letter to Mr. Unwin:

'I say amen with all my heart, to your observation on religious characters. Men, who profess themselves adepts in mathematical knowledge, in astronomy, or jurisprudence, are generally as well qualified as they would appear. The reason may be, that they are always liable to detection, should they attempt to impose upon mankind, and therefore take care to be what they pretend. In religion alone, a profession is often slightly taken up, and slovenly carried on, because forsooth, candour and charity require us to hope the best, and to judge favourably of our neighbour, and because it is easy to deceive the ignorant, who are a great majority upon this subject. Let a man attach himself to a particular party, contend furiously for what are properly called evangelical doctrines, and enlist himself under the banner of some popular preacher, and the business is done. Behold a Christian, a Saint, a Phœnix!—In the mean time perhaps, his heart and his temper, and even his conduct, are unsanctified; possibly less exemplary than those of some avowed infidels. No matter—he can talk—he has the Shibboleth of the true church—the bible

in his pocket, and a head well stored with notions. But the quiet, humble, modest, and peaceable person, who is in his practice, what the other is only in his profession, who hates a noise, and therefore makes none, who knowing the snares that are in the world, keeps himself as much out of it as he can, and never enters it but when duty calls, and even then with fear and trembling—is the Christian, that will always stand highest in the estimation of those, who bring all characters to the test of true wisdom, and judge of the tree by its fruit.'

Having adverted to the author's love of praise, we shall make an extract from a letter in which he acknowleges this passion, and assigns his reasons for it, with his usual playfulness and sensibility;

'To the Rev. William Unwin.

'My Dear Friend, June 8, 1780.

'It is possible I might have indulged myself in the pleasure of writing to you, without waiting for a Letter from you, but for a reason, which you will not easily guess. Your mother communicated to me, the satisfaction you expressed in my correspondence, that you thought me entertaining, and clever, and so forth:—Now you must know, I love praise dearly, especially from the judicious, and those who have so much delicacy themselves, as not to offend mine in giving it. But then, I found this consequence attending, or likely to attend, the eulogium you bestowed—if my friend thought me witty before, he shall think me ten times more witty hereafter—where I joked once, I will joke five times, and, for one sensible remark, I will send him a dozen. Now this foolish vanity would have spoilt me quite, and would have made me as disgusting a Letter-writer as Pope, who seems to have thought, that unless a sentence was well turned, and every period pointed with some conceit, it was not worth the carriage. Accordingly he is to me, except in very few instances, the most disagreeable maker of epistles, that ever I met with. I was willing, therefore, to wait 'till the impression your commendation had made, upon the foolish part of me, was worn off, that I might scribble away as usual, and write my upper-most thoughts, and those only.'

Mr. Hayley, in the Desultory Remarks, combats this opinion of Cowper relative to Pope's letters.

The singularity rather than the merit of a *jingling* letter induces us to give it a place:

'To the Rev. John Newton.

'My very dear Friend, July 12, 1781.

'I am going to send, what, when you have read, you may scratch your head, and say, I suppose, there's nobody knows, whether what I have got, be verse, or not:—by the tune and the time, it ought to be rhyme, but if it be, did you ever see, of late or of yore, such a ditty before?

'I have writ Charity, not for popularity, but as well as I cou'd, in hopes to do good; and if the reviewer should say, "to be sure, the

the gentleman's muse wears Methodist shoes, you may know by her pace, and talk about grace, that she and her bard have little regard for the taste and fashions, and ruling passions, and hoydening play of the modern day; and though she assume a borrowed plume, and now and then wear a tittering air, 'tis only her plan to catch, if she can, the giddy and gay, as they go that way, by a production on a new construction: She has baited her trap, in hopes to snap, all that may come, with a sugar plumb."—His opinion in this will not be amiss; 'tis what I intend my principal end, and if I succeed, and folks should read, till a few are brought to a serious thought, I shall think I am paid, for all I have said, and all I have done, though I have run, many a time, after a rhyme, as far as from hence, to the end of my sense, and, by hook, or crook, write another book, if I live and am here, another year.

'I heard before of a room, with a floor laid upon springs, and such like things, with so much art, in every part, that when you went in, you was forced to begin a minuet pace, with an air and a grace, swimming about, now in, and now out, with a deal of state, in a figure of eight, without pipe or string, or any such thing; and now I have writ, in a rhyming fit, what will make you dance, and as you advance, will keep you still, though against your will, dancing away, alert and gay, till you come to an end of what I have penn'd; which that you may do 'e'e Madam and you, are quite worn out, with jigging about, I take my leave; and here you receive a bow profound, down to the ground, from your humble me— W. C.'

In the 92d letter, we find a translation of some Latin lines by Dr. Jortin on the shortness of life: but no notice is taken of the thought being exactly copied from Horace's ode beginning *Diffugere nives.*

Even the braying of an ass is an occurrence of which Mr. Cowper knew how to make use:

'A neighbour of mine, (says he,) in Silver-end, keeps an ass, the ass lives on the other side of the garden wall, and I am writing in the green-house: it happens that he is this morning most musically disposed, whether cheered by the fine weather, or by some new tune which he has just acquired, or by finding his voice more harmonious than usual. It would be cruel to mortify so fine a singer, therefore I do not tell him that he interrupts, and hinders me, but I venture to tell you so, and to plead his performance in excuse of my abrupt conclusion.'

Excepting the ass, Mr. C. regarded every animal as musical; and he looks forwards to heaven as the world of music: but he connects this thought with a most gloomy idea, viz. that 'there is somewhere in infinite space a world that does not roll within the precincts of mercy, where tones so dismal are heard which make woe itself more insupportable, and which accumulate even despair.' Such a sentiment may be the result of a morbid state of mind: but can a rational Being reflect on a God of infinite

justice and love, and fancy that there is a state in his empire beyond the precincts of mercy? Suffering is considered in the Scriptures as a moral remedy in the administration of the intellectual Universe; and the punishment of sinners is not an act excluding them from mercy, but a process instrumental to their ultimate amelioration.

As the editor himself very judiciously exposes Mr. Cowper's misapprehension of the behaviour of Captain Cook at Owhyhee, just preceding his death, we need not detain the reader on this subject.

We shall subjoin another letter, which will speak for itself:

'To the Rev. William Unwin.

'My dear William,

'You are sometimes indebted to bad weather, but more frequently to a dejected state of mind, for my punctuality as a correspondent. This was the case when I composed that tragic-comic ditty for which you thank me, my spirits were exceedingly low, and having no fool or jester at hand, I resolved to be my own. The end was answered, I laughed myself and I made you laugh. Sometimes I pour out my thoughts in a mournful strain, but those sable effusions your Mother will not suffer me to send you, being resolved that nobody shall share with me the burthen of my melancholy but herself. In general you may suppose that I am remarkably sad when I seem remarkably merry. The effort we make to get rid of a load, is usually violent in proportion to the weight of it. I have seen at Sadlers' Wells, a tight little fellow dancing with a fat man upon his shoulders; to those who looked at him, he seemed insensible of the incumbrance, but if a physician had felt his pulse, when the feat was over, I suppose he would have found the effect of it there. Perhaps you remember the Undertakers' dance in the Rehearsal, which they perform in crape hat-bands and black-cloaks, to the tune of "Hob or Nob;" one of the sprightliest airs in the world. Such is my fiddling, and such is my dancing; but they serve a purpose which at some certain times could not be so effectually promoted by any thing else.

'I have endeavoured to comply with your request, though I am not good at writing upon a given subject. Your Mother however comforts me by her approbation, and I steer myself in all that I produce by her judgment. If she does not understand me at the first reading, I am sure the lines are obscure, and always alter them; if she laughs, I know it is not without reason, and if she says—"that's well, it will do"—I have no fear lest any body else should find fault with it. She is my lord chamberlain who licenses all I write.

'To Miss C———, on her Birth-Day.

'*How many between East and West,*
Disgrace their parent Earth,
Whose deeds constrain us to detest
The day that gave them birth!

'*Not*

'*Not so when Stella's natal morn*
Revolving months restore,
We can rejoice that she was born,
And wish her born once more!'

If you like it, use it. If not, you know the remedy. It is serious, yet epigrammatic—like a bishop at a ball!' W. C.

From the letters to Lady Hesketh, written at a period in which the author's mind was strongly tinctured with Methodism, we shall make no extract.

Occasionally we meet with short pieces of poetry mixed with the prose, though nothing of prominent merit occurs. At the end of the volume, however, we are gratified with a real treat in a poetic fragment; with the discovery of which the editor may well congratulate himself, and with a part of which we shall entertain our readers. It is intitled

'YARDLEY-OAK *.

'Survivor sole, and hardly such, of all
That once liv'd here thy brethren, at my birth
(Since which I number three-score winters past)
A shatter'd veteran, hollow-trunk'd perhaps
As now, and with excoriate forks deform'd,

---

* The following explanation is added from a letter of Dr. Johnson, kinsman of the poet:

"Among our dear Cowper's papers, I found the following memorandum—

'YARDLEY OAK IN GIRTH.
Feet 22, Inches 6½.

THE OAK AT YARDLEY-LODGE,
Feet 28, Inches 5.'

As to Yardley Oak, it stands in Yardley Chase, where the Earls of Northampton have a fine seat. It was a favourite walk of our dear Cowper, and he once carried me to see that Oak. I believe it is five miles at least from Weston-Lodge. It is indeed a noble tree—perfectly sound, and stands in an open part of the Chase, with only one or two others near it, so as to be seen to advantage.

"With respect to the Oak at Yardley Lodge, that is quite in decay—a pollard, and almost hollow. I took an excrescence from it in the year 1791, and if I mistake not, Cowper told me it is said to have been an Oak in the time of the Conqueror.—This latter Oak is in the road to the former, but not above half so far from Weston-Lodge, being only just beyond Killick and Dinglederry.—This is all I can tell you about the Oaks—they were old acquaintance, and great favourites of the Bard. How rejoiced I am to hear that he has immortalized one of them in blank-verse. Where could those 161 lines lie hid? Till this very day I never heard of their existence, nor suspected it."

Relicts

Relicts of ages! Could a mind, imbued
With truth from Heaven, created thing adore,
I might with rev'rence kneel, and worship thee!

'It seems idolatry with some excuse,
When our fore-father Druids in their oaks
Imagin'd sanctity. The conscience, yet
Unpurified by an authentic act
Of amnesty, the meed of blood divine,
Lov'd not the light, but gloomy, into gloom
Of thickest shades, like Adam after taste
Of fruit proscrib'd, as to a refuge, fled!

'Thou wert a bauble once; a cup and ball,
Which babes might play with; and the thievish jay
Seeking her food, with ease might have purloin'd
The auburn nut that held thee, swallowing down
Thy yet close-folded latitude of boughs,
And all thine embryo vastness, at a gulp.
But fate thy growth decreed: autumnal rains,
Beneath thy parent-tree, mellow'd the soil
Design'd thy cradle, and a skipping deer,
With pointed hoof dibbling the glebe, prepar'd
The soft receptacle, in which secure
Thy rudiments should sleep the winter through.

'So fancy dreams—disprove it if ye can
Ye reas'ners broad awake, whose busy search
Of argument, employ'd too oft amiss,
Sifts half the pleasures of short life away!

'Thou fell'st mature, and in the loamy clod
Swelling with vegetative force instinct
Didst burst thine egg, as their's the fabled Twins,
Now stars; two lobes protruding pair'd exact:
A leaf succeeded, and another leaf,
And, all the elements thy puny growth
Fost'ring propitious, thou becam'st a twig.

'Who liv'd when thou wert such? Oh! couldst thou speak,
As in Dodona once thy kindred trees
Oracular, I would not curious ask
The future, best unknown, but at thy mouth
Inquisitive, the less ambiguous past!

'By thee I might correct, erroneous oft,
The clock of history, facts and events
Timing more punctual, unrecorded facts
Recov'ring, and mistated setting right—
Desp'rate attempt till trees shall speak again!

'Time made thee what thou wert—King of the woods!
And time hath made thee what thou art—a cave
For owls to roost in! Once thy spreading boughs
O'erhung the champaign and the numerous flock,

That

That graz'd it stood beneath that ample cope
Uncrouded, yet safe-shelter'd from the storm.
No flock frequents thee now; thou hast out-liv'd
Thy popularity, and art become
(Unless verse rescue thee awhile) a thing
Forgotten, as the foliage of thy youth!

'While thus through all the stages thou hast push'd
Of treeship—first a seedling hid in grass;
Then twig; then sapling; and, as century roll'd
Slow after century, a giant bulk
Of girth enormous, with moss-cushion'd root
Upheav'd above the soil, and sides imboss'd
With prominent wens globose—till at the last,
The rottenness, which time is charg'd to inflict
On other mighty ones, found also thee.

'What exhibitions various hath the world
Witnessed, of mutability in all
That we account most durable below!
Change is the diet, on which all subsist,
Created changeable, and change at last
Destroys them. Skies uncertain, now the heat
Transmitting cloudless, and the solar beam
Now quenching in a boundless sea of clouds—
Calm and alternate storm, moisture and drought,
Invigorate by turns the springs of life
In all that live, plant, animal, and man,
And in conclusion mar them. Nature's threads,
Fine, passing thought, e'en in her coarsest works,
Delight in agitation—yet sustain
The force that agitates not unimpair'd,
But worn by frequent impulse, to the cause
Of their best tone their dissolution owe.

'Thought cannot spend itself comparing still
The great and little of thy lot, thy growth
From almost nullity into a state
Of matchless grandeur, and declension thence
Slow into such magnificent decay.
Time was, when settling on thy leaf, a fly
Could shake thee to the root—and time has been
When tempests could not. At thy firmest age
Thou hadst within thy bole solid contents
That might have ribb'd the sides, and plank'd the deck
Of some flagg'd admiral, and tortuous arms,
The ship-wright's darling treasure, didst present
To the four quarter'd winds, robust and bold,
Warp'd into tough knee-timber, many a load!
But the axe spar'd thee; in those thriftier days
Oaks fell not, hewn by thousands, to supply
The bottomless demands of contest, wag'd
For senatorial honours. Thus to time

The

The task was left to whittle thee away,
With his sly scythe, whose ever-nibbling edge,
Noiseless, an atom and an atom more,
Disjoining from the rest, has unobserv'd
Achiev'd a labour, which had far and wide,
(By man perform'd) made all the forest ring.

'Embowell'd now, and of thy antient self
Possessing nought, but the scoop'd rind, that seems
An huge throat calling to the clouds for drink,
Which it would give in rivulets to thy root;
Thou temptest none, but rather much forbidd'st
The feller's toil, which thou couldst ill requite:
Yet is thy root sincere, sound as the rock,
A quarry of stout spurs, and knotted fangs,
Which crook'd into a thousand whimsies, clasp
The stubborn soil, and hold thee still erect.

'So stands a kingdom, whose foundation yet
Fails not, in virtue and in wisdom lay'd,
Though all the superstructure, by the tooth
Pulveriz'd of venality, a shell
Stands now—and semblance only of itself!'

In some parts of this fragment, the poet is not inferior to Shakspeare and Milton; though in others he betrays both inflation and quaintness. It is fair, however, to suppose that, had Mr. Cowper finished his design, we should have found it more polished.—To conclude: he must take an eminent station among our writers both of verse and prose; and he merits also our cordial esteem as making genius always subservient to religion and virtue.

Facing the title is a view of St. Edmund's Chapel, in the Church of East Dereham, containing the grave of Mr. Cowper; and at the end of the volume is a sketch of his Monument, with the following inscription, written (we suppose) by the Editor:

'IN MEMORY
OF WILLIAM COWPER ESQ^R
BORN IN HERTFORDSHIRE 1731
BURIED IN THIS CHURCH 1800.

YE, WHO WITH WARMTH THE PUBLIC TRIUMPH FEEL
OF TALENTS, DIGNIFIED BY SACRED ZEAL,
HERE, TO DEVOTION'S BARD DEVOUTLY JUST,
PAY YOUR FOND TRIBUTE DUE TO COWPER'S DUST!
ENGLAND, EXULTING IN HIS SPOTLESS FAME,
RANKS WITH HER DEAREST SONS HIS FAV'RITE NAME:
SENSE, FANCY, WIT, SUFFICE NOT ALL TO RAISE
SO CLEAR A TITLE TO AFFECTION'S PRAISE;
HIS HIGHEST HONOURS TO THE HEART BELONG;
HIS VIRTUES FORM'D THE MAGIC OF HIS SONG.'

This epitaph is simply elegant, and appropriately just.

ART.

ART. III. *General Zoology*, or Systematic Natural History, by George Shaw, M.D. F.R.S. &c. with Plates from the first Authorities, and most select Specimens, engraved principally by Mr. Heath. Vol. IV. in 2 Parts. 8vo. pp. 640. 98 Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Kearsley. 1803.

THE preceding volumes of this judicious and elegant compilement were introduced to the notice of our readers in the 39th volume of our New Series, pp. 16. and 113., and it gives us pleasure again to report the progress of the author. In pursuance of his plan, Dr. Shaw now details the natural history of Fishes; and, as introductory matter, he has extracted, chiefly from the large work of Monro, some of the principal physiological and anatomical facts which relate to this interesting class of animals. These preliminary observations are valuable, but scanty; and in particular they convey little or no information regarding the scaly covering, the respiration, the habits, and the longevity of fishes.

In the distribution of his orders, Dr. Shaw follows the Linnéan divisions of *apodal*, *jugular*, *thoracic*, and *abdominal*. The first includes those fishes which have no ventral fins; the second, those which have the ventral more forward than the pectoral, or breast fins; the third, those which have the ventral fins situated immediately under the pectoral; and the fourth, those which have the ventral placed behind the pectoral.

'There still remains a particular tribe called Cartilaginous Fishes, *Pisces Cartilaginei*. This tribe was by Linnæus separated from the rest, and placed in the class Amphibia, where it constitutes the order *Nantes*.

'This particular distribution of the Cartilaginous Fishes was made on a supposition of their being furnished both with lungs and gills; an idea which seemed confirmed by the observations of Dr. Garden of South Carolina, who, at the request of Linnæus, examined the organs of the genus *Diodon*, and found, as he conceived, both external branchiæ or gills, and internal lungs. This idea, however, has been shewn by later physiologists to have been not strictly correct; the supposed lungs being in reality only a peculiar modification of gills. The cartilaginous fishes, as their name imports, differ from others in having a cartilaginous instead of a bony skeleton.'

Either prefixed or subjoined to the statement of these divisions, we expected a definition of the class: but, we know not for what good reason, the Doctor has omitted this information. The first part of the fourth volume, which is in size very disproportioned to the second, comprizes the apodal and jugular orders; and the second, the thoracic.—To the eight genera of the apodal order, as set down in the twelfth edition of the System

of Nature, the present author has added ten; namely, *Anguilla*, *Synbranchus*, *Sphagebranchus*, *Monopterus*, *Odontognathus*, *Comephorus*, *Triurus*, *Leptocephalus*, *Stylephorus*, and *Sternoptyx*.

The Linnéan generic characters of *Muræna* being applied to the *Anguilla* of Dr. Shaw, an eel-shaped body, want of pectoral fins, and a spiracle on each side of the neck, constitute his *Muræna*. From the latter, *Synbranchus* differs only in the spiracle being single, and situated beneath the throat. Its two species, both from Surinam, are neatly described.

It is still doubtful whether *Sphagebranchus rostratus*, adopted from Bloch, be essentially different from the *Muræna cæca* of Linné.

Monopterus Javanicus is inserted on the authority of La Cépède, whose splendid work on Ichthyology has been singularly enriched by the manuscript observations of Commerson.

Nineteen very amusing pages are devoted to the electric Gymnotus: but we pass to an article of greater novelty.

ACULEATED ODONTOGNATHUS.

Odontognathus abdomine aculeato.
Odontognathus with aculeated abdomen.
L'Odontognathe aiguillonné. *Cépède pisc. 2. p. 222.*

'The genus Odontognathus, instituted by Cépède, consists of a single species, of which the following is the description. The head, body, and tail are very compressed: the lower jaw, which is longer than the upper, is very much elevated towards the other when the mouth is closed, insomuch as to appear almost vertical, and is lowered somewhat in the manner of a drawbridge when the mouth is opened, when it appears like a small scaly boat, very transparent, furrowed beneath, and finely denticulated on the margins: this lower jaw, in the act of depression, draws forwards two flat, irregular laminæ of a scaly substance, a little bent at their posterior end, and larger at their origin than at their tips, denticulated on their anterior margin, and attached, one on one side, and the other on the opposite, to the most prominent part of the upper jaw: when the mouth is closed again, these pieces apply themselves on each side to one of the opercula, of which they represent the exterior denticulated border: in the middle of these jaws is placed the tongue, which is pointed and free in its movements: the gill covers, which are composed of several pieces, are very transparent at the hind part, but scaly and of a bright silver colour in front: the gill membrane is also silvery, and has five rays: the breast is terminated below by a sharp carina furnished with eight crooked spines: the carina of the belly is also furnished with twenty-eight spines, disposed in two longitudinal ranges: the anal fin is very long, and extends almost as far as the base of the tail-fin, which is of a forked shape: the dorsal fin is placed on the tail, properly speaking, at about three quarters of the whole length of the animal, but it is extremely small. The general length of this fish is three decimetres, and its colour, so far as may be conjectured from specimens preserved for

for some time in spirits, is a bright silver. It is a native of the American seas, and is common about the coasts of Cayenne, where it ranks in the number of edible fishes.'

Coinciding with La Cépède, Dr. Shaw transfers *Callyonymus Baikalensis* of Pallas, and of Gmelin's edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, to *Comephorus*; though, apparently from oversight, he describes it again, with some variation of language, under the Gmelinian designation, and in the order of *jugulars*.

The general appearance of *Scomber gladius* of Bloch may apologize for its transference to the genus *Xiphias*; yet the finny processes beneath the breast, and above and below the tail, with the small prominences on each side of the latter, plead in favour of the original arrangement.

Stylephorus chordatus, as here described, would form an interesting extract: but it has already appeared in the Linnéan Transactions, and in the Naturalist's Miscellany. In its stead, therefore, we transcribe the article *Triurus*; which will, no doubt, be new to many of our readers:

'TRIURUS. TRIPLE-TAIL.

Generic Character.

Rostrum cylindricum.	*Snout* cylindric.
Dens unicus in utraque maxilla.	*Tooth* single in each jaw.
Pinna dorsi anique ultra caudam extensa.	*Fin* dorsal and anal extended beyond the tail.

'COMMERSONIAN TRIPLE-TAIL.

Triurus Commersonii. *T. orificio operculorum valvula clausili.*
Triple-tail with the branchial orifice closed at pleasure by a valve.
Le Triure Bougainvillien. *Cep. de pisc.* 1. *p.* 201.

'The genus Triurus is instituted by Cépède from a remarkable fish discovered by Commerson in the Indian seas, and of which the following is the description. Its general appearance and size is that of a herring: the body is much compressed, and covered with scales, so small and deeply seated, that, at first sight, the animal appears destitute of any: the head, which is compressed as well as the body, and a little flattened above, is terminated by a very lengthened snout in form of a strait tube, at the end of which is a round hole by way of mouth, and which the fish has no power of closing: in the bottom of this tube are the two bony jaws, each composed of a single incisive and triangular tooth, no others being observable either on the palate or tongue, which latter is very short, cartilaginous, but rather fleshy at the tip, which is rounded: the nostrils are very small, and placed nearer to the eyes than to the tip of the snout: the eyes are moderately large, slightly convex, not covered by the common skin, as in the Gymnotes and some other apodal fishes, and the irides are of a bright gold and silver colour: the gill-covers are situated beneath the skin, and are each composed of an osseous lamina in form of a sickle: the gill-membrane is five rayed, and is attached to the head or body round its whole contour,

contour, in such a manner as to leave but a small orifice just beyond the snout; in which respect it appears analogous to the Syngnathi or Sea-Needles, as well as to the Callyonimi and some other fishes; but what renders the Triurus most remarkable is, a particularity of which we find no example in the whole class of Pisces: this consists in a soft, fleshy, lunated valvule, attached to the anterior edge of the branchial orifice, which it closes at the pleasure of the animal, by applying itself to the posterior edge: the body is not marked by any lateral line; the belly is terminated beneath by a sharp keel almost throughout its whole length, and the vent is situated at the extremity of the abdomen: the pectoral fins are small, delicate, transparent, of an almost triangular form when expanded, and have twelve or thirteen rays: the vent fin has fifteen soft rays, and is directed backwards, its sharp end stretching almost as far as the posterior edge of the tail-fin, of which it represents a continuation or appendix, and even seems to form a part: the dorsal fin is in the same manner a kind of auxiliary to the tail-fin: it is formed of an equal number of rays with the vent-fin, but is situated at a greater distance from the head, and is a third part longer, stretching backwards, not only as far as the tail, but beyond it; and as these two fins, viz. the dorsal and anal, reach that of the tail, it follows that the latter, at first view, appears as if composed of three distinct parts, and hence the name of Triurus, or Triple-Tail, applied to this fish by Commerson. In the mean time the real tail is so short that it appears more like a defective than a finished part, and is fringed at the edge by the terminations of the numerous, soft, divided rays of which it is composed. The colour of this fish is a brownish red, changing into silvery beneath the head, and into flesh-colour on the sides, belly, and tail, while a spot of clear white appears beyond the base of the pectoral fins. This curious genus was discovered by Commerson in the stomach of a species of Scomber; five individuals, perfectly uninjured by the action of the stomach, being taken out: several others were afterwards observed sporting on the surface of the sea. In some points this fish seems to bear a near alliance to the genus Centriscus.'

The alterations and additions in the second order are comparatively few. *Trachinus Osbeckii*, adopted from La Cépède, was first described by Osbeck, in his voyage to China.—*Gadus Leverianus*, distinguished by its sub-cinereous hue, and ocellated whitish spots, is presumed to be a native of the Southern ocean, since it was placed in a collection of fishes taken during Captain Cook's last voyage. The specimen from which the description was taken belongs to the Leverian Musæum.

Blennius fasciatus is described on the authority of Bloch, and *B. saliens* on that of La Cépède:

'This small species was observed by Commerson about the coasts of some of the Southern islands, and particularly those of New Britain, in the month of July 1768. It seems to be of a gregarious nature, and is seen swimming by hundreds, and as it were flying over the surface of the water, occasionally springing up and down with great rapidity among the rocks: it seems naturally formed for the celerity

celerity of its movements; the pectoral fins being very large in proportion to the body: they are nearly of a circular form when expanded, and when contracted reach almost as far as the vent on each side. This approach in point of form to the genera of *Pegasus*, *Trigla Scorpæna*, *Exocoetus*, and others posessed of the power of temporary flight, seems, as Cépède observes, naturally to indicate a similar property. The body is of a very lengthened form, and greatly compressed on the sides: the upper jaw longer than the lower, so that the mouth seems to be placed underneath: the eyes are seated near the top of the head, and are large and round, with gold-coloured irides; and on the occiput rises a cartilaginous longitudinal process, of a simple cylindric form, of about four millimetres in length: the colour of the body is brown, streaked with black, and the skin is extremely mucous or slippery. When dead, the colour frequently changes to a pale blue: there is no particular appearance of a lateral line, except what results from the longitudinal trace between the dorsal and lateral muscles.'

Under this genus, we have also to notice the *trifurcatus*, first described by Mr. Davies of Beaumaris, (the *punctulatus* of La Cépède,) from a specimen in the Parisian Musæum; and the *Boscianus*, from a specimen communicated to La Cépède by M. Bosc.

In the numerous order of *Thoracici*, we observe thirteen new genera, viz. *Gymnetrus*, *Vandellius*, *Macrourus*, *Gobiomorus*, *Acanthurus*, *Eques*, *Trichopus*, *Gomphosus*, *Ophicephalus*, *Lonchurus*, *Holocentrus*, *Bodianus*, and *Trachichthys*. Some of these are included in the Linnéan system under different appellations. This *Macrourus rupestris* corresponds to *Coryphæna rupestris*; *Gobiomorus* has been detached from *Gobius* on account of the separation of the rays of the ventral fins; *Acanthurus* includes those of *Chætodon*, which have broad and strong teeth; and *Eques Americanus* (*Chætodon lanceolatus*, Lin.) has received its new denomination from having the teeth disposed in concentric ranges.

'The Ascanian Gymnetrus is a native of the northern seas, and seems to have been first described by Professor Ascanius in his work entitled *Icones rerum naturalium*, *&c.* The length of the specimen was ten feet, and the diameter, which was equal throughout the whole length, about six inches: the head short, the mouth small, and the eyes rather large: on the upper part of the head, before the commencement of the dorsal fin, were situated seven or eight upright, naked rays or processes, of moderate length: the dorsal fin, which was rather shallow, commenced at a small distance beyond these, and running along the whole length of the back, formed by its continuation the tail fin, which was carried to a very small distance beneath the body, there being, properly speaking, no vent fin: the pectoral fins were very small, of a slightly ovate or rounded shape, and situated at a small distance from the head: the ventral fins, if they can be said to deserve the name, consisted of a pair of extremely long single rays or

processes terminated by a small ovate expanded tip or finny extremity: the gill-covers appeared to consist of five or six radiated laminæ: the colour of the whole body was bright silver with a blueish cast diffused over the upper part of the back: the lateral line was strongly marked, and ran from the gill-covers to the tail, and the sides of the body were marked by several longitudinal double rows of slightly extant, very small, dusky specks: the forehead was white; the fins pale brown.

'This fish is said to be generally seen either preceding or accompanying the shoals of herrings in the northern seas, for which reason it is popularly known by the title of *King of the Herrings*.'

Vandellius includes a single species, the *Lusitanian*, which is of rare occurrence in the Mediterranean and Atlantic seas.

Of the Indian *Remora*, *Echeneis Naucrates*, we are told on the authority of Commerson, that it is sometimes employed on the Mozambique coast, for catching turtle. 'A ring is fastened round the tail of the fish, in such a manner as to prevent its escape, and a long cord fastened to the ring. When thus prepared, the fish is carried in a vessel of sea-water, and when the boatmen observe a turtle sleeping, as is the frequent custom of those animals, on the surface of the water, they approach as near as possible without disturbing it; and then, throwing the Remora into the sea, and giving it the proper length of cord, it soon attaches itself to the breast of the sleeping turtle, which is thus easily drawn to the boat by the fishermen.'

The Rostrated Chætodon, a native of the fresh waters of India,

'Is celebrated for the extraordinary manner in which it takes its prey, which chiefly consists of the smaller kind of flying insects: when it observes one of these, either hovering over the water, or seated on some aquatic plant, it shoots against it from its tubular snout a drop of water, with so sure an aim as generally to lay it dead, or at least stupified, on the surface. In shooting at a sitting insect, it is commonly observed to approach within the distance of from six to four feet, before it explodes the water. When kept in a state of confinement in a large vessel of water, it is said to afford high entertainment by its dexterity in this exercise, since, if a fly or other insect be fastened to the edge of the vessel, the fish immediately perceives it, and continues to shoot at it with such admirable skill as very rarely to miss the mark.'

The bifasciated species is said to attain to a very considerable size, and to weigh upwards of twenty pounds. It is esteemed a delicate food, and resembles the sole in flavour.

The *Trichopus* genus is distinguished by a compressed body, and by ventral fins with a very long filament. The fifth species, denominated the monodactyle, being deprived of the long filaments, has been classed by La Cépède (and with more propriety

propriety than that gentleman sometimes evinces) as a separate genus.

The conterminous genera of *Sparus* and *Labrus*, of which the numerous species are mostly exotic, cannot be distinctly extricated without much minuteness of research, and many rare opportunities of investigation. It is generally allowed that Linné's enumeration is very imperfect. Dr. Shaw presents us with notices of upwards of 160 *Spari*, and thus concludes his descriptive catalogue:

'A general apology must here be made for any inaccuracies which in a tribe so numerous as the present may occasionally have crept into the descriptions; and it is by no means improbable that some of these fishes may in reality be rather varieties than species truly distinct. Some of those observed by Commerson, and described by the Count de Cépède, seem scarcely distinguished with sufficient accuracy, and indeed the specific characters in general, though composed with every possible attention to precision, must be regarded with a proper degree of indulgence. It is necessary to observe that in the present arrangement are included the genera of *Lutianus* and *Anthias*, as well as some of the Blochian Labri.'

The article *Labrus* is followed by a similar apology.

The intervening genus, *Gomphosus*, was instituted by La Cépède, and has its denomination from the lengthening of the jaws into a tubular spout. It contains two species, both natives of the Indian Seas.

A head coated with dissimilar scales, and a prolonged body, characterize *Ophicephalus*. The punctuated and striated are the only known species; both are natives of Indian rivers and lakes, and both are reckoned delicate food.

Lonchurus is discriminated by a scaly head, ventral fins with separated rays, and a lanceolate tail. Its only species is the bearded, which inhabits Surinam. The two preceding genera, which were formed by Bloch, are very nearly allied to *Sciæna*.

Holocentrus and *Bodianus* would require to be new cast, since their generic character are by no means sufficiently distinctive.

As an instance of Dr. Shaw's masterly delineation of a familiar subject, we shall transcribe his account of the Mackrel:

'SCOMBER MACKREL.

Generic Character.

Corpus oblongum, lævé, linea laterali interdum carinatum.	*Body* oblong, smooth, sometimes carinated by the lateral line.
Pinnulæ sæpius supra infraque versus caudam.	*Finlets* (in most species) above and below, towards the tail.

Common Mackrel.

Scomber Scomber. *S. cæruleus, lineis numerosis transversis nigris, abdomine argenteo, pinnulis supra infraque quinque.*

Blue Mackrel, with numerous transverse black lines, silvery abdomen, and five finlets above and below.

Scomber. *Pliny.* Scomber Scomber. *Lin. Bloch. t.* 54.

Common Mackrel. *Penn. Brit. Zool. Will. ichth. &c. &c.*

'This beautiful fish is a native of the European and American seas; generally appearing at stated seasons, and swarming, in vast shoals, round particular coasts. Its great resort however seems to be within the Arctic circle, where it resides in innumerable troops, grows to a larger size than elsewhere, and is supposed to find its favourite food, consisting chiefly of marine insects, in far greater plenty than in warmer latitudes. During the severity of the northern winter it is said to lie imbedded in the soft mud beneath the vast crusts of ice surrounding the polar coasts; being thus sufficiently protected from the effects of frost; and, on the return of spring, is generally believed to migrate in enormous shoals, of many miles in length and breadth, and to visit the coasts of more temperate climates in order to deposit its spawn. Its route has been supposed nearly similar to that of the Herring; passing between Iceland and Norway, and proceeding towards the northern part of our own island, where a part throws itself off into the Baltic, while the grand column passes downwards, and enters the Mediterranean through the straits of Gibraltar.

'This long migration of the Mackrel, as well as of the Herring, seems at present to be greatly called in question: and it is thought more probable that the shoals which appear in such abundance round the more temperate European coasts, in reality reside during the winter at no very great distance; immersing themselves in the soft bottom, and remaining in a *state of torpidity* *; from which they are awakened by the warmth of the returning spring, and gradually recover their former activity. At their first appearance their eyes are observed to appear remarkably dim, as if covered with a kind of film, which passes off as the season advances, when they appear in their full perfection of colour and vigor.

'The general length of the Mackrel is from twelve to fifteen or sixteen inches; but in the northern seas it is occasionally found of far greater size, and among those which visit our own coasts instances sometimes occur of specimens far exceeding the general size of the rest. The colour of this fish, on the upper parts, as far as the lateral line, is a rich, deep blue, accompanied by a varying tinge of green, and marked by numerous black transverse streaks, which in the male are nearly strait, but in the female beautifully undulated: the jaws, gill-covers, and abdomen, are of a bright silver-colour, with a slight

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'* Of this the Count de Cépède adduces the testimony of an eye-witness; viz. *Monsr. Pleville le-Peley*, who, about the coasts of Hudson's bay, observed the mud, at the bottom of the small clear hollows encrusted with ice round those coasts, entirely bristled over by the tails of Mackrels imbedded in it nearly three parts of their length.'

varying

varying cast of gold-green along the sides, which are generally marked in the direction of the lateral line by a row of long dusky spots: the scales are very small, oval, and transparent: the pinnules or spurious fins are small, and are five in number both above and below. The shape of the Mackrel is highly elegant, and it is justly considered as one of the most beautiful of the European fishes. Its merit as an article of food is universally established, and it is one of those fishes which have maintained their reputation through a long succession of ages; having been highly esteemed by the ancients, who prepared from it the particular condiment or sauce known to the Romans by the title of *Garum*, and made by salting the fish, and after a certain period, straining the liquor from it. This preparation, once so famous, has been long superseded by the introduction of the Anchovy for similar purposes.'

Trachichthys Australis is re-copied from the Naturalist's Miscellany, without any softening of its harsh generic name.

Our observations on the general merit of the former parts of this system of Zoology will, in most respects, apply to the present continuation; and the greater obscurity and difficulty of the subject will, in some measure, account for the diminished interest with which we have perused the volume before us. The very nature of the element which fishes inhabit prevents us from following their motions with exactness, from studying their characters, and from noting with fidelity their specific differences. Their colours often vary according to the accidental circumstances of age, sex, climate, season, breeding, &c. and many of them vanish in the open air, or with the principle of life. On the same shores, unknown species seldom occur; and, when they do, they may pass unnoticed by the illiterate fisherman. At the same time, it will not be denied that Artedi, Gronovius, Pallas, Muller, Brunnick, Broussonet, and many other distinguished naturalists, had removed various obstacles, and greatly promoted the science of Ichthyology; and a more diligent revival of their valuable writings, and of the detached memoirs of Guldenstaedt, Baster, Kolreuter, Klein, Osbeck, &c. might have furnished a more ample and pleasing fund of information. The plates, too, are evidently inferior to those which represent the quadrupeds; and we have occasionally stumbled on instances of careless composition. These circumstances we note with real concern; being desirous that a work which reflects so much honour on the author, and which promises to be a valuable repository of our present state of knowlege with respect to animated nature, should be conducted and completed with the smallest possible alloy of blemishes and defects.

The fifth volume will conclude the history of Fishes, and will speedily appear.

ART. IV. *Travels from Moscow, through Russia, Germany, Switzerland, France, and England.* By Nicolai Karamsin. Translated from the German. 3 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Badcock. 1803.

IF we have faithfully accompanied this northern traveller through the whole of his progress, without deriving much new or important information, we cannot forget that he is a native of Moscow, and that he performed his tour before he had attained his twenty-fifth year. To many persons his sentimental manner may appear affected, or over-strained; yet his letters are seldom dull; and sometimes they are agreeably enlivened by natural painting, interesting anecdotes, or notices of eminent literary characters.

Perhaps the first part of these peregrinations is the best calculated to afford entertainment, or to gratify curiosity. When the author's fancy pictured the felicity of rambling in foreign countries, his heart seems not to have admonished him of the bitter regrets which he must leave behind him; and unfortunately for his readers, the precious and mournful recollections of kindred and friendship rush on the mind of the susceptible youth at the very moment of departure, and disqualify him for making a single topographical remark during a journey of some hundred miles. 'Farewell,' says he, very pathetically, 'till Petersburgh!' This compendious mode of journalizing reminds us of a little travelling anecdote:—Two English gentlemen had agreed to proceed post from Calais to Paris; and the most obtuse and sleepy of the two, at the end of every short nap, saluted his companion with, *How do you do now, Sir?*—until the tiresome question was at length abolished by, *Very well, I thank you, Sir; all the way to Paris.* Mr. Karamsin, however, is no plodding traveller; for he advises lovers of geographical and satirical inquiry to consult Busching rather than his own letters: but, though this may be very disinterested on his part, we must beg leave to suggest that Busching's Geography is a very dull and cumbersome book, not over-correct, and very inadequate to an accurate delineation of the present state of European countries. We could, therefore, have desired that, in accommodation to those who are not deeply conversant with the state of his native country, Mr. K. had blended some local intelligence with his plaintive adieus.—At Petersburgh, he exclaims, 'When shall I be happy again! Hitherto, I have experienced nothing but grief.'

A seasonable instance of unaffected hospitality, which occurred on the road to Riga, and which is gratefully recorded, appears to have produced something like composure of feeling in the

the breast of the tender Moscovite; and he was now enabled to pass his strictures on the postillions, and on the character of the Livonians.

'I perceive no difference between the Esthonians and the Livonians, excepting their language and dress. The former wear black, and the latter grey clothes; their language is quite different, the Livonians have many of the German and some Slavonian words; I have noticed that they pronounce all their German words very soft, and this seems to argue that they have a very refined and delicate ear. But when we observe their slowness, laziness, and awkwardness, we must be satisfied of their being blockheads. Those noblemen with whom I had an opportunity of speaking on the subject, reproached them with laziness, and called them a nation of drones, who would do nothing but by compulsion; and probably not a little compulsion is employed, for they labour very hard, and a peasant in Livonia or Esthonia yields his master four times as much profit as one of our Casan or Simbirsk peasants. These poor people, who work the whole week through penury and compulsion, are at the same time extremely merry on holidays; of those, alas! they have however but few in their calendar.'

In this picture, we discern traits which do not exactly coincide with our notions of a *race of blockheads*. In every country which is imperfectly civilized, the lower classes of the community are inclined to indolence, unless stimulated by the dread of punishment, or the prospect of immediate gain. The inhabitants of remote and mountainous districts pass much of their savage life in sluggish repose: yet we should not form a very correct estimate of their character, were we to question their mental acuteness, or even their bodily activity, when objects are presented which rouse their energies, or operate on their sense of honour. Nor is a peasant, who 'labours very hard,' and who is extremely 'merry on holidays,' to be wantonly classed among the most stupid of his species.

During one of his nocturnal stages, the author 'fell asleep, and consequently made no observations till he awoke:' then it was, that the sight of another travelling carriage, in the court-yard of the inn, gave rise to the following very sage remark: 'I felt a satisfaction, as I said to myself, "there must of course be more travellers," and instantly fell asleep again.'

According to the laudable practice of sentimental tourists, Mr. K. is very careful to note when he took tea and coffee, dinner and supper. The latter, however, we must observe, was once or twice sacrificed to a sight of the setting sun, and the contemplation of the stars; and our readers are also to be informed that he who could thus resolutely forego a smoking repast, in order that he might indulge in evening meditation in the open air, was not to be deterred from the precincts of learning or

wisdom, by the want of unmeaning formalities. At Königsberg, accordingly, the writer of these Travels boldly introduced himself to the *all-crushing Kant*, and prolonged his visit beyond three hours. 'Kant talks quick, low, and unintelligibly, and I had the greatest difficulty to understand what he said.' We may add that there are many who experience equal difficulty in understanding what he writes.

A parcel of rusty weapons and coats of mail produce a reverie more than an hour long; and the public are favoured with the result in the form of an apostrophe, which appears to us nearly as mysterious as the Kantian metaphysics. 'Where are ye, thought I, ye dark ages of barbarism and heroic atchievements? Our enlightened period retreats with terror before your gloomy obscurity. The sons of inspiration alone ventured to call forth your shadows from the abyss of the past, (like Ulysses who summoned to the light the shadows of his friends from the dark mansions of death,) to preserve in their sublime compositions the remembrance of the wonderful vicissitudes of nations.'

The particulars relative to the death of Kleist, the poet, and the heroic patriot, are more deserving of quotation:

'In the year 1759, at the obstinate battle of Kunnersdorf, he commanded a battalion, took three batteries, and led his soldiers towards the fourth, under the most tremendous fire of artillery. He lost two fingers from his right hand. But at the moment when the gallant Kleist was mounting the enemy's battery, a ball crushed his foot. He fell, crying out to his soldiers, My lads, do not abandon your king! The Cossacks came up, stripped him, and threw him into a ditch. It will scarcely be credited, but even at this moment he laughed heartily at the singular physiognomy and awkwardness of a Cossack, who was stripping him. He at length fell asleep through fatigue, and slept as sound as if he was in his own tent. In the night he was found by the Russian hussars. They carried him to a dry place, and laid him on some straw before a fire, covered him with their cloaks, and one of them even put some dollars into his hand. But as he would not accept of this present, the hussar threw them angrily upon the cloak, and rode off with his comrades. Towards morning, Kleist saw one of our officers, Baron Budberg, and told him his name and rank, upon which the Baron instantly ordered him to be conveyed to Frankfort, where his wounds were dressed. Here he conversed quite cheerfully with the philosopher *Baumgarten*, some other learned men, and our officers, who visited him. In a few days he died with the fortitude of a stoic. All our officers at Frankfort attended his funeral. One of them observing there was no sword on the coffin, instantly placed his own upon it, saying, such a gallant officer should not be interred without a sword. Kleist is one of my favourite poets. The spring would not have such charms for me, if *Kleist* and *Thomson* had not so admirably described its beauties.'

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The account of Berlin is rather long, but offers little that can arrest liberal curiosity. Though here, as at other places, the author discovers great solicitude to become acquainted with the literati, his reports inspire us with no transcendant reverence for their sentiments and talents. We are, however, sufficiently aware that the character of a scholar, or of a philosopher, is not to be appreciated by a few accidental interviews; and that, in the company of a professed traveller, he may assume more than his wonted reserve. On turning to the author's own meditations, we find him asserting, with due solemnity, that a fine meadow, a noble wood, a handsome female, 'in short, every thing fine, pleases' him. Here we think of the sage agriculturist, who, after mature deliberation and many experiments, gave it as his decided opinion that the best food for young calves was their mothers' milk;—and, in the plenitude of conviction, we proceed to Leipsig.

Of the *savans* within and without the walls of this celebrated city, Plattner and Weisse seem to have attracted the writer's fondest regards: but the celebrated impostor Schröpfer is not forgotten. With Mr. K.'s leave, we shall introduce him to our readers:

'He was for a long time waiter in a coffee-house at *Leipzig*, and nobody observed any thing extraordinary in him. He disappeared of a sudden, and it was not till several years after that he again made his appearance at *Leipzig*, in the character of baron *Schröpfer*. He took a large house, hired a great number of servants, and puffed himself off as a *sage*, to whom all nature, and even the world of spirits, were subject.

'By pompous promises of splendid discoveries he allured a multitude of credulous people, and pupils thronged to him from all quarters. Some actually expected to learn things of him, that cannot be acquired at any university; others were delighted with the excellent table he kept. He frequently received by post large parcels, addressed to baron *Schröpfer*. Several bankers received orders to pay him large sums. He spoke of his secrets, which he pretended to have learned in *Italy*, with a seductive eloquence; and he shewed people the spirits and shadows of their deceased acquaintance. When he had heated the imaginations of his hearers, "Come and see!" he cried, to all who were inclined to doubt; they came, and actually saw shadows, and various terrible sights, which made the hair of timorous persons stand on end. It must be observed, that his warmest adherents were not men of learning, or such as were accustomed to logical deductions; for people who placed more reliance on their understanding than on their senses, would not at all suit *Schröpfer*'s purpose. Thus his pupils consisted entirely of noblemen and merchants, who were totally ignorant of the sciences. He exhibited the wonders of his art to others, but he taught them to none, and at last, he only performed his miracles at home, in private apartments prepared for the purpose.

Br.

Br. told me the following anecdote of him:—A certain *M.* likewise came in company with his friends to *Schröpfer*, to see his apparitions. He found a great number of guests there before him, who were incessantly plied with punch. *M.* refused to drink any thing, but *Schröpfer* pressed him very much to drink at least a glass, which *M.* as firmly refused. At length they were all conducted into a large hall, hung with black cloth, the window-shutters of which were closed. *Schröpfer* placed the spectators together, and drew a circle around them, beyond which he strictly enjoined them not to stir. At the distance of a few paces a small altar was erected, on which burned spirits; this cast the only light that illuminated the room. *Schröpfer*, uncovering his breast, threw himself on his knees bfore the altar. He held in his hand a large glistening sword, and prayed with a loud voice, and with such earnestness and warmth, that *M.* who had come with the intention of unmasking the impostor and the imposture, felt in his heart a pious awe, and sentiments of devotion. Fire flashed from the eyes of the supplicant, and his breast was powerfully agitated. He was to call the shadow of a well-known character lately deceased. After having finished the prayer, he called the ghost with the following words: "Oh! thou departed spirit, who livest in an immaterial world, and invisible to the eyes of mortals, hear the voice of the friends thou hast left behind, and who desire to see thee; leave, for a short time, thy new abode, and present thyself to their eyes!" Hereupon the spectators felt in every nerve a sensation, similar to an electric shock—heard a noise like the rolling of thunder, and saw above the altar a light vapour, which grew thicker by degrees, till it assumed the figure of a man. However *M.* observed, that it was not a striking likeness of the deceased. The figure hovered over the altar, and *Schröpfer*, pale as death, flourished the sword above his head. *M.* resolved to step out of the circle and to go to *Schröpfer*; but the latter, perceiving his intention, rushed towards him, holding the sword to his breast, and crying with a terrible voice, "You are a dead man, if you stir another step!" *M.* was so terrified at the dreadful tone in which *Schröpfer* uttered these words, and at the glistening sword, that his knees shook under him. The shadow at length disappeared, and *Schröpfer* was so fatigued that he lay extended on the floor. The spectators were conducted into another room, where they were served with fruits. Many of the more sensible people went to *Schröpfer*'s house as to a theatre; they knew that his boasted art was nothing but imposture, yet they were delighted with the serious comedy which he performed.

'This continued for some time; but *Schröpfer* all at once got into debt with several trades-people of *Leipzig*, and unfortunately of that class who did not wish to see his ghosts; but were extremely importunate for their money. He received no more bills. The bankers would not advance him a penny; and the miserable magician, worked up to the highest degree of despair, shot himself through the head in the *Rosenthal*. Nobody knows to this day how he got his money; and for what purpose he played off his phantasmagoria.'

Before we have well recovered from our astonishment at this man's quackery, we are called to admire a curious speci-

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men of Russian gallantry. Till we perused the passage, we could not have imagined that a young gentleman, who delights to strew his way with tender sensibilities, would peruse his *Vicar of Wakefield*, rather than converse with a pretty girl entrusted to his protection. As his manner, like his conduct, on this occasion, is at least singular, we shall again allow him to speak for himself.

'The post-coach stopped at a house in a small town on this side of *Hirschfeld*, which I conceived to be, as usual, a public house. I walked in, and asked of the first that came towards me, with a low bow, for some Rhenish wine and water. I then threw myself into a chair, without thinking of pulling off my hat. In the room were four men, who conversed very civilly with me. A bottle of Rhenish wine was brought. I drank and praised the wine, and at last asked what I had to pay. "Nothing," answered a man, bowing at the same time, "you are not in a public house, but the guest of an honest burgher, who is extremely glad that you like his wine." Imagine my amazement! I pulled off my hat, and began to apologize. "It is not worth mentioning," said my host; "I request only your kindness for my daughter, who is going to accompany you." To which I replied, "I will treat her with politeness—with honor—and every thing you please." The daughter, a pretty girl of twenty, dressed in a green surtout, with a black hat, entered the room. We bade adieu, got into the coach, and set off. *Caroline* (that was her name) told me, that she was going to her aunt in a neighbouring village. That I might not trouble her with farther questions, I took the *Vicar of Wakefield* from my pocket. My fellow-traveller yawned, and could scarcely keep her eyes open. At last she fell fast asleep, with her head upon my shoulder. I durst not stir, for fear of waking her; but a sudden and violent shake of the coach threw her to the other corner. I offered her my large pillow, which she took and placed under her head, and fell asleep again. Meantime it grew dark. *Caroline* slept soundly, and did not awake till we reached the place where we parted. As to me, I behaved more honorably than even the virtuous knight, who is afraid of offending, by an immodest look, the bashful innocence entrusted to his care. Such examples, my friends, are rare, very rare in this age! *Caroline*, in her innocence, did not think it necessary to thank me for my reserve, and took leave of me rather coolly. God be with her!'

The remarks on Frankfort, Mentz, Stasburg, Bâle, &c. are mostly superficial, or trite. At Breig, however, we are treated with an adventure, which is related with much graphic humour, and which its length alone precludes from a place among our quotations.—The little excursion from Zurich to a neighbouring parsonage-house is likewise sketched with pleasing interest.

Of the late amiable but enthusiastic and excentric Lavater, the notices are particularly engaging. His printed and MS. works

works exceed fifty volumes. Some of the former were addressed and communicated only to friends; and his private journal was accessible to none. He made it a rule never to read the opinions of others concerning any of his works.

'Every day augments my admiration of *Lavater*; he has not an hour's leisure, and the door of his closet is never shut. Hither throng beggars asking charity,...the afflicted who seek consolation,...travellers who, though they want neither, at least contribute to occupy his time. Besides, he visits the sick not only of his own parish, but likewise of many others. This evening, after writing several letters, he took his hat, and requested me to accompany him. I should like to see where he is going to, thought I, and followed him. We went out of one street into another, and at length through the gate of the town. We arrived at a small village and entered a cottage. "Is Anna yet alive," demanded Lavater, of an old woman who came to meet us. "She scarcely breathes," replied she, with a flood of tears; and opened the door of a chamber; where I beheld, in a bed, an aged and emaciated woman, whose wan and livid countenance bespoke the near approach of death. Two boys and two girls stood round the bed and wept. The moment they saw Lavater, they ran and kissed his hands. He approached the patient, and asked her how she did. "I am dying! I am dying!" she replied, but was unable to say more. Her eyes were fixed on her bosom, which heaved with inward convulsion. Lavater sat down beside her, and began to prepare her for her departure. "Thy hour is come;" said he, "thy Saviour awaits thee. Be not afraid of the grave! Not thou, but only thy mortal body, will be deposited in it. In the moment when thy eyes are closed to the light of this life, the glorious morning of an eternal and better life will shine upon thee. Be thankful to God that thou hast attained a good old age, and hast seen thy children and grand children grow up, matured in honesty and virtue. They will for ever bless thy memory, and will once embrace thee with raptures in the mansion of the blessed. There, there, we shall all form but one happy family." These last words he uttered in a tremulous voice, and wiped his eyes. He then prayed, blessed the dying sinner preparatory to her exit, and took his leave. He kissed the children, told them not to weep, and at his departure gave them some money. The dejection of my heart was very great, and even the pure evening air could scarcely restore me to a free respiration.

"Whence do you derive such strength and patience?" said I to Lavater, in admiration at his indefatigable activity. "My dear friend," replied he, smiling, "it is in the power of every one to perform a great deal if he will; and the more he does, the more ability and inclination he will find for active exertion."

'Believe not, my friends, that Lavater, who does so much good to the poor, is himself possessed of great riches. No; on the contrary, his income is very small; but from the sale of his printed works and manuscripts he acquires a considerable sum for the relief of his indigent brethren. I have myself bought two of his manuscripts; one is entitled, "An Hundred Secret Physiognomical Rules;" with the motto, "Never

'Never ridicule misery, or the means of alleviating it;" and the other is "A Monument for Travellers." For the latter he would not take the money himself, but ordered me to pay it to a poor Frenchman who had requested relief of him.'

Many of the letters from Geneva and the Swiss towns derive their chief attractions from allusions to living characters, among whom Bonnet justly holds a distinguished rank: but we suppress many particulars, that we may make room for the following love history:

'*Becker* has arrived in *Geneva*. We met each other by accident in the street, and rushed into each other's arms, like old friends, embracing after a long absence. Since that time we see each other daily; we walk out together, and drink tea at the fire-side. He has hired apartments in the same street where I live. His countrymen, the Count *Moltke*, and the poet *Baggesen*, have staid at *Berne*. The latter will soon be married. This match has been brought about in a truly romantic manner. I wrote to you, that *Becker* had gone with him to *Lausanne*; from which place they crossed the *Alps* to *Unterseen*, and arrived there extremely fatigued. They hired a boat to cross the lake of *Thun*; and at the moment when the waterman was pushing off the boat, a young female, and an old man, made their appearance; the girl in a white dress, a green hat, and with a stick in her hand; and seemed to be about twenty.—Her countenance was pleasing and friendly. She approached and nimbly jumped into the boat; and with a friendly *bon jour, messieurs*, addressed the travellers, who sat, hanging down their heads, *like knights of the melancholy figure*. They were surprized at this unexpected appearance, and stared, now at the girl, now at each other, and almost forgot to return the compliment of the charming stranger. However, *Becker*, who is a man deserving of credit, assures me they answered her tolerably well; though the count stammered at the second word, and he and *Baggesen* were struck quite dumb. By degrees, when they were at a considerable distance from shore, they fell into conversation. The girl told the Danes, that she had been at her uncle's at *Unterseen*, to visit her good nurse, who was very ill, and that she was now returning to *Berne*. "How did you leave the patient?" asked the sympathizing travellers, with great eagerness. "God be thanked! she is better," replied the fair stranger. She then enquired the names and residence of her fellow-travellers; and, when she learned that the count was the grandson of the late Danish Minister, she began to speak of that venerable man, and the history of his time, in such a manner, that it was evident she was acquainted with the history and relations of the powers of Europe. They landed at *Thun*. The count gave her his hand, and accompanied her, together with his fellow-travellers, to the inn, where they found a room. Here they learned from the hostess, that their charming companion was a grand-daughter of the celebrated philosopher and poet *Haller*. *Baggesen* leaped for joy, and instantly hastened to her, to recommend himself anew to her favour, and to assure her of the unbounded regard which he entertained for her grandfather. "Ah! you should have known him more intimately," said she, in a tone of

the highest sensibility. "Even in his old age, he fascinated great and small by his amiable disposition. I cannot refrain from tears when I recollect with what gaiety and familiarity he played with us small children, in his leisure-hours, after the most serious labours for the welfare of mankind. How often did he take me on his knee, kiss me, at the same time calling me his dear *Sophia!*"

'The amiable *Sophia* dried her tears, and *Baggesen* wept with her. Our travellers forgot their fatigues, and passed the whole evening with *Sophia Haller*. As they intended to set off the next morning early for *Berne*, and *Sophia* and her uncle were going to make some stay at *Thun*, they took leave of them—"Shall it be for ever?" said the young count; and, full of expectation, fixed his eyes on *Sophia*'s. *Baggesen*'s looks, animated by the most lively expression of tenderness, lingered on her lips, and *Becker* stretched forward his head. She smiled; and, presenting her card to the count, "This," said she, "is the address of my family, who will be very happy to receive such amiable travellers." The Danes thanked her with warmth, and retired to the room which had been prepared for them.

'The day after their arrival in *Berne*, they hastened to pay their respects to Miss *Haller*. They found her not at home, but were received very politely by the uncle and aunt. "Will Miss *Haller* not soon return? Will Miss *Sophia* be from home long? Shall we soon have the pleasure of seeing our amiable fellow traveller?" To all these questions the uncle and aunt were obliged to answer a hundred times. At length she returned. The Danes could not forbear the most joyful exclamations. She welcomed them as acquaintances; which made her appear in their eyes still more charming and amiable. The Count, *Baggesen*, and *Becker*, all wanted to speak to her,—all put questions to her at the same time. She replied to one with words, to the other by a smile, and the third by a nod; and all three were satisfied. Towards evening a walk was proposed. Male and female friends assembled; but the Danes saw and heard only *Sophia*. At length they parted, after having made the appointment to see each other again the next day. The second, third, and fourth day, were spent in the same way. At last, *Becker* perceived he was not the first in the favour of *Sophia*. He moderated his warmth in conversation with her, and resigned all claims to her partiality. The Count, who perhaps perceived the same, became dull, and soon entirely ceased his visits to *Sophia*. To dissipate his melancholy, he sought all kinds of social amusements. As to *Baggesen*,—perhaps only the poetess of *Lesbos* loved her *Phaon* with such a passion as he loved his *Sophia*; and scarcely could the inspired *Pythia*, on her golden tripod, have been so beside herself as our young poet, when his lips hung upon her hand. Each of his words was animated by profound sensibility when he spoke of her, and that sensibility was like a powerful flame. He durst not tell her, I love you; but the tender *Sophia* understood him, and did not remain indifferent. Her gaiety and vivacity diminished; she was frequently lost in deep thought, and her eyes sparkled. They often walked out in the evening in the avenues of the platform, and the thick foliage of the chesnut-trees, and the rays of the full moon witnessed their virtuous intercourse; till at length the platonic lover,

lover, on one of these fine evenings, threw himself on his knees before *Sophia*, seized her hand, and exclaimed, "It is mine!—thy heart is made for mine!—we will be happy." "It is thine," replied *Sophia* with a look of tenderness; "It is thine; and I hope to be happy with thee!"

'I leave to an abler hand the description of this moment! The same evening the family of *Haller* embraced *Baggesen* as *Sophia*'s bridegroom, and their friend. The wedding day was fixed. The poet now enjoys the beauteous dawn of that happiness which awaits him in the arms of his beloved wife; and praises in raptures the lake of *Thun*, where his eyes first beheld her, and where his heart loved her at first sight. Meantime Count *Moltke* has become quite tranquil, and rejoices at the felicity of his friend; as does *Becker* too, who related to me this history as I have written it to you.'

The description of the hospital at Lyons is creditable to the author's feelings: but we are inclined to believe that more praise is ascribed to the managers, on the score of cleanliness, than facts will justify.

We forbear to dwell on the state of Paris and its neighbourhood in 1790. Mr. K.'s last letter from that too celebrated capital describes his departure from it in terms of high praise and deep regret; and he says, 'my mind is still so full of the past that I do not think of the future at all: I am travelling to England, yet my imagination has not thought on that country even for once.' That this last assertion is strictly conformable to truth, we cannot readily believe. Neither have we learnt, even from Busching's Geography, that, when the fruit is ripe in the *ci-devant* Isle of France, the trees are only in blossom about Boulogne.—A straight of twenty-one miles, which separates two bold and white shores, rather militates against the propriety of the following expression: 'The French coast has vanished from our sight, and the English begins to rise before us in the distant horizon.'

In the course of the same epistle, we are told that 'the English in general do not much care about sallad, and garden herbs. Roast beef and beaf-steaks are their usual food; and hence their blood becomes thick, and themselves phlegmatic, melancholy, and not unfrequently self-murderers. To this predisposing cause of the spleen,' (continues the sagacious Moscovite) 'we may add the following, viz. the mists continually rising out of the sea, and the smoke of the pit-coal, which hangs like a dense cloud over the towns and villages.'

Again;

'I sent for a barber, and they brought me a thick phlegmatic Englishman, who, having first unmercifully flayed my face, plaistered my head with flour and tallow. "Alas! I am no longer in Paris," said I to myself, with a sigh, "where the powder-puff of the inge-

nious lively Rulet played like a gentle zephyr around my head, and strewed it with a resplendent white aromatic rime." To my complaints that he was flaying me, that his pomatum stunk, and that his hair-powder was only coarse flour, the unpolished English barber sullenly answered, "I don't understand you, Sir!"—

Gentle reader, wouldst thou learn the fate of the rich Englishman—know that he 'travels, becomes a virtuoso, a man of taste and a collector; launches out into every species of extravagance, marries a wife, and at last shoots himself—and all this merely from *ennui*.'

How often are we indebted to foreigners for our instruction! Till favoured with a perusal of the third volume of these Travels, it had not occurred to us that the ascent to the top of Mont Blanc is less fatiguing than mounting to the second gallery of St. Paul's Cathedral, even though accompanied by a lively French Marchioness. Nay, we were ignorant that the President of the Royal Society, when seated in his chair of office, 'passed judgment on several works, but with great candour and moderation.' That we may not fall short of such an illustrious pattern, we shall conclude with thanking Mr. Karamsin for the agreeable entertainment which he has afforded us in this land of beef-steaks, mist, and smoke; and with assuring him that, though the journal of his tour retains abundant marks of youth and levity, it is not, on that account, less calculated to chace spleen and melancholy from the critical tribunal.

The translator has apparently executed his task with tolerable success. A few sentences, however, are oddly dislocated, and the punctuation is often inaccurate and deficient.

ART. V. *Poems on various Subjects*; by Mrs. Grant, Laggan. 8vo. pp. 447. 10s. 6d. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh; sold in London by Longman and Co.

THE verses by which these compositions are ushered to the public are a favourable foretaste of the entertainment which the reader may expect:

'Go, artless records of a life obscure,
Memorials dear of loves and friendships past,
Of blameless minds from strife and envy pure;
Go, scatter'd by *Affliction's* bitter blast,
And tell the proud, the busy, and the gay,
How rural peace consumes the quiet day.

'Oh ye, whom sad remembrance loves to trace,
Look down complacent from your seats above,
Regard with soft compassion's melting grace,
The simple offering of surviving love:

For,

For, while I fondly think ye hover near,
Your whisper'd melody I seem to hear.

'Ye dear companions in life's thorny way,
Who see your modest virtues here display'd,
Forgive, for well you know the unstudied lay
Was only meant to soothe the lonely shade.
But, when the rude thorn wounds the songster's breast,
The lengthen'd strains of woe betray her secret nest.'

Of the smaller pieces, we may observe that many scarcely equal these stanzas, though a few may be allowed to surpass them.

The longest poem in the collection is intitled '*The Highlanders.*' To sketch the bold and magnificent features of mountain-scenery, and to catch a picture of characteristic manners, prejudices, and virtues, before they are diffused and obliterated in the mass of assimilating improvement, form a design worthy of the philosopher, and, at the same time, peculiarly susceptible of poetical embellishment. Mrs. Grant, who appears to have passed a considerable portion of her life in the recesses of Inverness-shire, had many opportunities of contemplating the physiognomy of the country, with the intellectual, moral, and religious character of its inhabitants. In this poem, her professed aim is to paint Highland scenery and manners, mingled with reflections on emigration; yet moral and common-place views of an active life, as contrasted with habits of soft repose and frigid selfishness, occupy too much space in the first and last parts of the poem. The object to be desired in a performance of this description is appropriate colouring, not general and trite morality. That active, laborious, and generous dispositions pre-eminently distinguish the Scottish Highlanders from the Lowlanders remains, perhaps, to be proved. Impartial travellers, who have visited both districts of country, have more than once remarked that, unless roused by some powerful excitement, the Highlander is inclined to indolence, and will sit with folded arms, when his wife or his daughter is engaged in those offices of drudgery, which the consent of civilized society has assigned to the stronger sex. Slovenly, too, in his external habits, and more shrewd than open in his ordinary transactions, the Highlander seems by no means intitled to the exclusive praise which our fair author so gratuitously bestows on him. With her we lament the removal of any number of a hardy race of rustics to foreign and distant settlements: but might they not find employment in our flourishing towns and plains? We really cannot censure the proprietors of mountainous estates for adopting those measures which are dictated

by an extending commerce, and by those new relationships which have their origin in the progressive melioration of the human condition. Partial migrations, from the more remote and desolate to the fertile and peopled districts of our island, may bear hard on the local attachments and prejudices of individuals: but who would revive the barbarous splendour of feudal times? Or who, after having contemplated the boisterous climate and the wretchedness of the northern extremities of Great Britain, would not approve the introduction of extensive grazing farms, in preference to the painful culture of very precarious and very scanty crops of oats or barley? The migration of a highland tribe to a country different from our own must certainly be regarded as an evil, but not of such magnitude as to absorb all the sources of our pity.

'Nor let to Afric's wilds Compassion roam,
While modest Anguish weeps unseen at home.'

Such is our poet's request: but is it reasonable? Let us suppose for a moment that the removal of some hundred families from a poor to a rich country is a very direful calamity, would it follow that our sympathy must be measured by degrees of longitude and latitude? or that slavery does not originate with those who enact it?

"*Hear him*, ye Senates! hear this truth sublime;

"HE, WHO ALLOWS OPPRESSION, SHARES THE CRIME."

The provincial delineations, which are scattered through the other parts of Mrs. Grant's poem, strictly coincide with her plan; and, though not touched with the glowing colouring of a Collins or a Gray, they evince much amiable feeling and a creditable intimacy with the muses. We are pleased to follow the mountaineer through his various occupations and amusements, as they are regulated by the hours of the day, or the seasons of the year; and to contrast the simple and noiseless tenor of his existence with the bustle and the passions of a city life.

The episodical story of Farquhar wants compression; and gentle poesy should be allowed to euphonize such an unplastic name as *Mornig*, the heroine in this interlude. The allusions to the eventful history of the Pretender are, perhaps, too much multiplied and prolonged; and, since the facts are so generally known, a few forcible lines would have more effectually illustrated the infelicity of his adherents. Let it not be forgotten, however, that Mrs. Grant's notes on this subject may still be perused with interest; and that her muse is less tame than a certain courtly, but lulling historian of the Scottish rebellion

'Oh

'Oh tell, good father, tell what wretched lot
Befel the blameless inmates of thy cot:
Have they obey'd the victor's stern command,
Or fled for succour to some happier land?'

On this passage, we have an humane and spirited comment:

'When the veil of death has long covered the unfortunate, and the storm of party animosity subsided, people are judged as they shall be hereafter, by their intentions. Adhering to that rule, we must esteem the sufferer, and detest even that cruelty which was said to be exerted for our eventual advantage, as if, indeed, there could be any advantage drawn from insulting the fallen, robbing the poor, and destroying the unresisting, in whose warm and upright hearts, a little timely lenity would have produced endless gratitude; and whose loyalty might have been brought, by that means, to change its object without abating its force.'

Again,

'No voice of joy is heard, no smile is seen,
No rural pastime sports along the green;
But sad solicitude and shuddering fear,
And patient sufferance dwell in silence there;
No hopes of mercy to th' offending train—
Thy worth and wisdom, FORBES, plead in vain!'

'FORBES of CULLODEN, then President of the Court of Session; a man so rever'd for his wisdom, and beloved for his virtue, that his personal influence was beyond belief in such times as these; by dint of that influence, he prevented the northern tribes from rising *en masse*, as they were much inclined to do. He wrote circular letters, with great judgment and address, to all the heads of families on the PRINCE's landing, pointing out to those who could neither comprehend, nor attend to sound political argument, the inefficacy of their force and preparation, and the certain failure of an enterprize so rash and ill conducted. These, joined to his succeeding efforts, broke the force of the confederacy, and divided its councils. His liberality in supporting the royal cause injur'd his fortune; and the contemptuous coolness with which he was treated by the Young Conqueror, who could not brook the idea of sharing his merit with any one, broke his spirit;—and what completed his disgust was, that his lenient counsels, in the hour of success, were despised and neglected; many being put to death for whom he interceded. He might be justly included in the number of those patriots, who

"Clos'd their long glories with a sigh, to find
Th' unwilling gratitude of base mankind."

The character of this worthy patriot would have been still more exalted, had he triumphed over ingratitude itself:

"*Repandez vos bienfaits avec magnificence;*
Même au moins vertueux ne les refusez pas;
Ne vous informez point de leur reconnaissance,
Il est grand, il est beau de faire des ingrats."

From the circumstances mentioned in the advertisement to the 'Journal from Glasgow to Laggan,' we scarcely deem it a fair subject of our strictures. We shall, therefore, refer our readers to the author's apology, *et valeat quantum valere potest.*

The death of Abercromby is a theme which no poet has hitherto duly commemorated; and our fair auth r must pardon us, if, on this occasion, we applaud her intentions more than her performance.

In 'A Familiar Epistle to a Friend,' we are playfully beguiled into the following elegance and refinement of sentiment:

'No longer pursue those fond lovers of fame,
Nor envy the honours and trophies they claim;
No further excursive to speculate roam,
But fix our attention and pleasure at home:
Why regret, when celebrity proves such a curse,
The cares of the mother and toils of the nurse:
While the nurse finds delight in sweet infancy's smiles,
And hope the fond mother's long trouble beguiles.
"But why these quick feelings, or why this nice ear
Or musical accents, if no one must hear?
Why blossoms of fancy all scatter'd to waste,
The glow sympathetic, or pleasures of taste?—"
Ask why in the mountains the flow'ret should blow,
Which none but the hermit is destin'd to know?
Why the wild woods re-echo with melody clear,
Which none but the hunter is destin'd to hear?
When often enjoyed, and but seldom they're shewn,
Our riches and pleasures are truly our own:
The milk maid that carols her wild native airs
To solace her labours, and lighten her cares,
Feels a pleasure more genuine and free from alloy,
Than CATLEY or MARA could ever enjoy:
Who, while their divisions they warbled aloud,
Depended for joy on the praise of the crowd;
Then blest be the lyre, ever sacred its strain,
In the regions of bliss let it waken again;
When the kind hand of Nature has fitted its strings,
And the dictates of truth and of virtue it sings,
As softly and sweetly it touches the mind,
As ÆOLUS' harp when 'tis mov'd by the wind;
Untainted by art were the notes it has sung,
It has cheer'd our decline, and has charm'd us when young;
And when useful employments demanded our prime,
Our leisure it soothed without wasting our time:
And when all our sorrows and toils shall be o'er,
Its music perhaps may delight us once more;
When swelling to concords more rich and sublime
It may rise beyond earth, and may live beyond time.

The

The blossoms I once so admir'd and caress'd,
That cheer'd my fond heart till they dy'd on my breast,
Which my tears that fell frequent, like soft silent rain,
Could not waken to life and new fragrance again;
There, again, in new sweetness and beauty shall bloom,
And the evergreen plain with fresh odours perfume;
Perhaps while exalted their graces shall rise,
Again their dear verdure shall gladden my eyes!
When the season of fear and of sorrow is o'er,
And our tears and our songs are remember'd no more!'

As expressions of simple feelings, we select a few stanzas from the poem on a Lady who was familiarly called *Moome*, an endearing appellation in the Gaelic language:

'Her fate awakes my former woes,
And bids them all their force resume,
Those griefs which once I could repose
Upon the faithful breast of MOOME.

'She clos'd my darling PETER'S eyes,
When low I sunk, with grief o'ercome;
And sweet PETRINA'S latest sighs
Were breath'd upon the knees of MOOME!—

'Her prayers and alms, and deeds of love,
Arose to heaven like sweet perfume,
And balmy comfort from above
Distill'd upon the heart of MOOME.—

'And when the mighty angel's voice
Shall wake the dreadful trump of doom,
Blest infant spirits shall rejoice
To meet the generous soul of MOOME.'

The 'Answer to a Poetical Apology,' &c. is well conceived, but would bear retrenchment.—Ease of numbers and elegant expressions of friendship distinguish the 'verses to Lady Clan.' The particular allusions will, no doubt, be highly gratifying to the parties concerned: but in the joys and sorrows of a private circle the public cannot cordially participate.

Introductory to the two 'Translations from the Gaelic,' are some very temperate, candid, and discriminating observations on the long agitated question of the authenticity of the Poems of Ossian. The fair author's own opinion, to which, from her opportunities of obtaining accurate information, we are disposed to pay considerable attention, may be collected from a few sentences:

'Old people can very well remember, before Mr. MACPHERSON ever thought of translating these remains, when many comparisons and allusions to be found in them, were as current as Scripture quotations in the last age among the peasants of the west. "She is beautiful as AGANDECCA the daughter of the snow—She is musical

as MALVINA—He is as forlorn as OSSIAN after the departure of the FINGALIANS—Such a one is alert and nimble as CUCHULLIN"—were phrases in common use. Whatever embellishments, or whatever anachronisms the injudicious vanity of a translator, may have grafted on these poems, no person who lived in the country of their reputed author ever doubted their existence or antiquity: there, every stream and mountain, every tale, song, or adage, retained some traces of the generous hero, or the mournful bard: But there was little chance of getting at the truth of this question, while the contention lay betwixt learned pride on the one hand, and the national vanity on the other. The former was accustomed to consider letters, not as the vehicle, but the essence of knowledge, accounting all unlearned people utterly savage and barbarous, and unable to conceive how any one could entertain noble or generous sentiments without deriving them from classical models. The latter was unwilling to confess how little the Gaelic had been used in writing, and to what a narrow district of the kingdom it had been, even in remote ages, confined,—which was the real cause why no connected series of these poems had been written down, and why they had been so long hid in obscurity. To the same motive may be attributed the silent acquiescence of the Highlanders in the alterations and embellishments added to these poems, by a translator more ambitious of adapting them to modern taste, than of adhering strictly to the sense of the originals; more studious of his own advantage, than of the addition to be made to the science of human nature, by developing truly and closely the manners of the Heroic Age; by which I understand that intervening betwixt rude barbarity, and the regular establishment of law, property, and agriculture.'

The whole of this short dissertation, together with the animated and well drawn character of Burns (p. 256.), will amply reward the trouble of perusal.

In regard to the Translations themselves, we are not competent to judge of their fidelity: but we are not partial to Erse poetry, when reduced into regular English rhymes. *Prose run mad* is, perhaps, better suited to its bold and unconstrained spirit. Yet, in the second of these poems, intitled 'The aged Bard's wish', we meet with some well turned and affecting stanzas:

'Leave not my soul, O dream of joy!
O turn again, once more return!
They hear me not—My darling boy!
For thee, for her, not long I mourn!

'Now lay me close by yonder fall
That leaps in thunder o'er the rock;
My lyre and shell attend my call,
The spear my sires in battle shook.

'And come whence ocean's waters roll,
Ye breezes mild that softly blow,
And bear away my parting soul
Where sinks the sun at evening low.

"O bear

O bear me to the happy isles
Where shades of mighty heroes rest,
Who, sunk in sleep, forgot their toils,
Or wake the music of the blest.

'Blind Ossian's misty halls unfold:
Your eyes no more the bard shall view:
Let me my harp and shell behold,—
And now, dear harp and shell, adieu!'

From the preceding remarks and specimens, the reader has, perhaps, anticipated our sentiments on the general character of Mrs. Grant's poetry. The emotions, which her muse loves to awaken, are pleasing rather than grand; she is rather sweet and pathetic than animated or majestic; and, while we applaud the correctness and delicacy of her thoughts, we regret that they are so seldom adorned with bright and glowing imagery. We must add that the effect of some of her prettiest pieces is considerably enfeebled by expansion, and by an intemperate use of epithets. Notwithstanding these defects, however, the work deserves the liberal patronage which it has received from subscribers. In the event of a second impression, we would beg leave to call the author's attention to some blemishes, which, though trifling, are not always patiently endured, especially in poetry. The first which we shall notice is a too frequent use of pleonastic phraseology. Thus, we have 'Od'rous buds *perfumed*,' '*listless torpor*,' '*glossy burnish* of *shining* hair,' '*sportive gambols*,' '*sportive glee*,' '*dank moisture*,' '*tranquil rest*,' '*lonely waste forlorn*;' and, more '*coercive force*'—which, if it mean any thing, must be "a vigour beyond the law."

Of lines harsh or prosaic, the number is not inconsiderable. We subjoin a few:

'To plod in dull mechanic sort their lot,
And vegetate upon the self same spot.'

'While *raspberries* richly flavour'd climb on high.'

'Their honour's friends became their int'rest's foes.'

'In a false, treach'rous rival's cruel arms.'

'More difficult to clear than his Rev'rence's text.'

'Who strove their parents' spotless paths to trace.'

'And while that and large fires thro' the winter did glow.'

Three Alexandrines in the course of nine lines (p. 82.) have rather an Amazonian appearance; and five triplets in two pages (232 & 233.) display an obvious abuse of discretion.

Cult and *wool*, *store* and *poor*, *pale* and *meal*, *Thames* and *streams*, *look* and *spoke*, *star* and *sepulchre*, *hope* and *groupe*, &c.

will not pass as current rhymes.—The same word (*repose*) terminates the first and third line of the first stanza of 'Moome.' When a delegated member of a certain ecclesiastical court maintained that he *represented himself*, it was humourously observed that he would, no doubt, give great satisfaction to his *constituent*.

A few sentences are constructed without sufficient regard to grammatical accuracy. Thus, that beginning with, 'In every hamlet,' &c. (p. 39) though of immoderate length, affords not a proper antecedent to 'Why Meteors glare,' &c. The pronouns *thou* and *you* are, in a few instances, carelessly interchanged. *Tracks* occurs for *tracts*, *wrote* for *written*, *forgot* for *forgotten*, *heather* for *heath*, *splits* for *splinters*, to *bandage* for to *bind*, &c. The accentuation of some words is likewise faulty: as, *travérse*, *áccess*, *súpport*, *respíte*, *sónorous*, *crávats*, *indústry*, *recórds*, &c.

The volume is handsomely printed on fine paper.

ART. VI. *Dr.* Winterbottom's *Account of the Native Africans in the Neighbourhood of Sierra Leone*, &c.

[*Article concluded from the Rev. for May, p.* 90.]

THE first volume of this work, as we have already stated, was occupied by a detail of the manners and institutions of the native Africans, as far as the author could learn them from the publications of preceding writers, and from the opportunities of personal observation which a long residence at Sierra Leone afforded him. The second volume bears more of a professional character, being confined to an account of the ideas entertained in that part of Africa in which Dr. W. resided, respecting the nature of diseases, with the mode adopted for the cure of them. In prosecuting his inquiry, he first treats of the 'General Diseases to which both sexes are liable; 2dly, of the Diseases of Women, with the sexual peculiarities in Africa; 3. of the Diseases and Management of Children.' From the more important or interesting parts, we shall make a few extracts.

Fever is much less common among Africans, than among the Europeans who settle in that country. It is in general denominated from the principal symptoms accompanying it, and hence the use of the terms sick head, sick belly, &c. The former is one of the most frequent and distressing symptoms, and on this account it is that cephalics constitute a most numerous class of remedies in the African *Materia Medica*. Most of them are applied externally to the forehead. When they fail, cupping is sometimes tried, which is practised by an old woman;

man; who first makes a small number of incisions with a pointed knife in the skin, on the temples or forehead, as near as possible to the seat of pain, and then places over the incisions, a cup formed of a small gourd cut in two, the air being first rarefied by burning a little dry grass or cotton in it. 'It is a custom with some, when affected with head-ache, to lie upon the hearth before a large fire, having a heavy stone laid upon one side of the head.' Africans are very seldom affected with enlargements of the spleen, which occur so frequently among Europeans: but

'They are very subject to a species of lethargy, which they are much afraid of, as it proves fatal in every instance. The Timmanees call it márree, or, 'nluoi, and the Bulloms, nagónlôe, or kadeera: it is called by the Soosoos, kee kóllee kondee, or sleepy sickness, and by the Mandingos, seenoyúncaree, a word of similar import. This disease is very frequent in the Foola country, and it is said to be much more common in the interior parts of the country than upon the sea coast. Children are very rarely, or never, affected with this complaint, nor is it more common among slaves than among free people, though it is asserted that the slaves from Benin are very subject to it. At the commencement of the disease, the patient has commonly a ravenous appetite, eating twice the quantity of food he was accustomed to take when in health, and becoming very fat. When the disease has continued some time the appetite declines, and the patient gradually wastes away. Squinting occurs sometimes, though very seldom, in this disease, and in some rare instances the patient is carried off in convulsions. Small glandular tumors are sometimes observed in the neck a little before the commencement of this complaint, though probably depending rather upon accidental circumstances than upon the disease itself. Slave traders, however, appear to consider these tumors as a symptom indicating a disposition to lethargy, and they either never buy such slaves, or get quit of them as soon as they observe any such appearances. The disposition to sleep is so strong, as scarcely to leave a sufficient respite for the taking of food; even the repeated application of a whip, a remedy which has been frequently used, is hardly sufficient to keep the poor wretch awake. The repeated application of blisters and of setons has been employed by European surgeons without avail, as the disease, under every mode of treatment, usually proves fatal within three or four months. The natives are totally at a loss to what cause this complaint ought to be attributed; sweating is the only means they make use of, or from which they hope for any success: this is never tried but in incipient cases, for when the disease has been of any continuance they think it in vain to make the attempt. The root of a grass, called by the Soosoos kallee, and the dried leaves of a plant, called in Soosoo fingka, are boiled for some time in water, in an iron pot; when this is removed from the fire, the patient is seated over it, and is covered over with cotton cloths, a process which never fails to excite a copious perspiration. This mode of cure is repeated two or three times a day, and is persisted in for a considerable length of time, until the disease be

be carried off, or appears to be gaining ground. No internal medicines are given in the complaint.'

Venereal complaints occur in various forms in Africa, but mostly in that of gonorrhœa. The author is convinced that there is no vegetable in use among them which possesses properties resembling mercury; and he assures us that, when they excite a salivation, which they do in every case of syphilis, it is only by means of mercury procured from Europeans.

The *coup de soleil*, or stroke of the sun, is unknown in Africa; though the natives are in the habit of exposing the head to the perpendicular rays of a scorching sun, during the greatest bodily exertions; and Europeans, under such circumstances, seldom have more than a thin handkerchief folded round the head.—Dysentery is a frequent complaint on shore, but more particularly prevails in slave ships, in which a considerable part of the unfortunate cargo has often been carried off by this serious malady:

'The natives of the Gold Coast have the credit of being very successful in the cure of this complaint. The chief medicine which they use in it is lime juice, to which is added some of their favourite capsicum or red pepper: this latter is so highly esteemed by them that it is used not only as a seasoning to their food, but enters largely into the composition of their medicines, and always constitutes the chief ingredient in their enemas.'

The most celebrated remedy is the bark of a large tree, called by the Foolas *Bellenda*, and by the Soosoos and Mandingos, *Bembee*. 'It is employed either in powder mixed with boiled rice, or is used in a strong infusion. This bark is an agreeable astringent, possessing somewhat of a sweetish taste.'—The author had not an opportunity of trying the effects of this medicine in dysentery, but he had seen it employed with advantage in diarrhœa. It has been used by Dr. Willan in London, in agues, fevers, sore-throat, and dysentery, much to his satisfaction.—In a subsequent part of his work, the author mentions some farther experiments on this bark, from which he is inclined to speak very favourably of its employment in intermittent complaints of various kinds.

A chapter is devoted to the consideration of Elephantiasis, of which the author has seen two cases, which he particularly describes. This and the succeeding chapter on Dracunculus, or Guinea-worm, and Chigres, contain much curious information, though it has been mostly derived from preceding writers.

A singular operation is practised in Rheumatism. When other means fail in relieving it,

'They make, with a sharp instrument, an incision upon one or both of the patient's legs, through the skin into the cellular membrane.

brane. Into this wound they introduce a hollow reed, or the stem of a pipe, and blow as much air as they think necessary, or as the patient can support. The wound is then covered with a piece of strongly adhesive plaster, and a mixture composed of pepper, lime-juice, brandy, and certain herbs, is administered to the patient. He is next ordered to run as violently as he can, and when overcome with fatigue, to betake himself to bed, where he remains a few days, being kept all the time in a profuse sweat. During this process a calibash full of the abovementioned drink is administered every day, until the artificial tumour has disappeared, and the patient feels restored to health. The tumor generally begins to decline perceptibly about the third day, and on the 9th, 10th, or 11th day, it is no longer to be seen. Sometimes this operation is repeated in the same patient, of which Gallandat relates instances; he adds, that several negroes, whom he knew, assured him that they were cured by this means.'

Gout is a disease wholly unknown in Africa; and Consumption is not a very general complaint: the decoction of a bitter bark, mixed with rice, is a celebrated remedy for the cure of it.

In a chapter on Yaws, Dr. W. describes the usual appearances of this complaint, as given by the natives, and by various authors, and annexes the history of some cases, which came under his own observation.

The diseases of Women are, as may be readily imagined, much fewer than in more polished countries. The whole tribe of hysterical and nervous complaints are total strangers among them. Their labours are in general easy, and in some parts of the coast it is considered as infamous for a woman to cry out during their continuance. They are trusted solely to nature, and it has therefore sometimes happened that a woman has died undelivered.

Concerning the management of Children, the author observes;

'It is very simple: their diseases are also few, and of no great importance: immediately after birth, the infant is washed in warm water, or soap and water; this is continued for a few days, after which cold water only is used. During very hot weather it is usual for the mother to throw a vessel of cold water upon the child's head two or three times a day, apparently to the satisfaction of the latter. After the morning ablution, the child is well greased from head to foot.

'Soon after a child is born, a few grains of malaguettu pepper are bruised, and tied up in a cotton rag, which is moistened with water, and the juice of it is pressed out into the child's mouth: this is done to evacuate the meconium. In order to strengthen a child born at the end of seven months, the mother takes every morning a mouthful of cold water, which she spirts upon the inside of the joints of the arms, wrists knees, and successively those of the whole body, immediately

diately after which the child is immersed in very cold water. This practice is repeated every morning until they suppose the child strong enough to bear the shock of cold water without any preparation.'

Dr. W. considers Dr. Zimmerman as having erred in stating that the newly born children of negroes are readily affected with trismus; since not a single instance of this complaint fell within his own observation, nor have the natives themselves any acquaintance with it. In the West Indies, however, the case is materially different; for it is supposed that a fourth of the negroe children are cut off by it.

Large protrusions of the navel are very common among negroe children; which, in the author's opinion, arise from relaxation of the parts, and the want of a bandage to support the umbilicus, till it has acquired a sufficient degree of firmness. Dirt-eating, which so often occurs in the West Indies, is also, we are informed, not unfrequent among the negroe children in Africa.

In an Appendix, together with the remarks on the African Bark, which we have noticed above, the author gives an account of circumcision as practised in Africa. He also annexes some observations on White's and Blumenbach's opinions on the supposed characteristics of the negroe race, and the rank which they bear in the scale of Creation. He adopts the opinion of the latter, and concludes that there are no original differences in mental or bodily conformation, between the negroe and the white.

ART. VII. *A Journal of Travels in Barbary, in the Year* 1801. By James Curtis, Esq. Surgeon to the Embassy to Morocco. With Observations on the Gum Trade of Senegal. 12mo. pp. 154. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THIS little volume briefly relates the facts which came within the author's observation, during the short time which he passed in Barbary; and we learn from it that in May 1801, he received directions from General O'Hara to go to Tangier, in order to accompany His Majesty's Ambassador to the Emperor of Morocco, in the quality of surgeon to the mission. His narrative of the journey from Tangier to Fez, and back, contains various curious particulars, some of which we shall extract as samples of the entertainment which the reader may expect from a perusal of the whole book.

At Tangier, Mr. Curtis relates:

'A dying child was brought to me under the superstitious notion that an English Doctor can cure every disease by feeling the pulse of

of his patient. I desired the person who came with it, to call again in two hours, when I would prepare something that might be beneficial; but on his return, he acquainted me the child was dead and buried. In this country it is the uniform practice to inter a body, without either coffin or covering, the moment it ceases to breathe.'

In the first day's journey from Tangier, the author says:

'It is utterly impossible for me to convey an adequate idea of the delightful tract of country which we traversed during the course of this day: the fields were dressed in their richest garb, and every part evinced a high state of cultivation. About fifteen miles from Tangiers we forded two rivers, inlets from the sea, at Cape Spartell, one of which is of considerable breadth and might be easily rendered navigable, as the tide flows a great way up the country. On the other side of this river lies an immence tract of land entirely *uncultivated*, extending towards *Ozila* about ten miles, and composed of fine rich black loam.'

Mr. C. passed through many tracts of uncultivated land in this journey; a deficiency which he attributes in a great measure to the destruction of the human species made in that country by the plague. As the travellers approached the city of Fez, the country appeared to be populous, and the fields were full of corn. 'The mode in which the Arabs cultivate their fields is extremely simple, and attended with little labour. They make use of a small harrow and a pair of oxen for turning up the soil, which they instantly sow, and with another harrow of a finer construction they level the mould, and leave the rest to the operations of Nature.'

'The streets of the city of Fez are uncomfortably narrow, almost every one of them is arched over, and a foot deep in dust during summer, and in dirt during the winter season. From this description, one cannot wonder at the effects of contagious distempers in so large a city as either Fez, Mecquenies, or Morocco, in which the inhabitants are thus closely confined, and compelled to breathe infected air. If a person were to propose any salutary methods of checking them, he would be considered as a madman, and as long as the putrid effluvia is confined, it would be folly to administer medicines, besides that it is certain they would not take any. Their ordinary language is, "If we are to have a plague, nothing can prevent it, and we must die."

'Every city and town of the empire of Morocco, and even every street of Fez has a gate, which is regularly shut at sun-set; and as they are likewise surrounded with walls, no person can be admitted after that hour.'—

'The city of Morocco is totally deserted; the plague carried off three hundred thousand of its inhabitants; above three thousand five hundred persons died daily during the space of twenty-seven days. Those who could afford to give from ten to twenty ducats, buried their parents and relatives; but at Fez they were thrown over the neighbouring

neighbouring mountains, to the number of three or four thousand at a time, and the bodies were covered with the sands which abound on them. The city of Fez lost one hundred and seventy thousand persons, principally young men, women, and children; but the more aged men and women escaped.'

Fez is said to contain at present 800,000 persons.

Muley Solyman, the present Emperor of Morocco, enjoys the entire sovereignty of Morocco, Fez, and Mecquenies; which were formerly divided into three distinct kingdoms.

'He is unceasingly engaged in war with his rebellious subjects, who refuse to pay the usual tributes and duties. Before our arrival at Fez, the Emperor had levied a tax for the purpose of carrying on the war, which excited great murmurs among the people. Upon my enquiring of a person, who was complaining every hour that he was ruined, the amount of his contribution, he replied, that he paid twelve blanquins! (about three pence sterling.) What admirable subjects the Moors would make, if they were transplanted into the polished communities of Europe!'—

'The Emperor is reported to be one of the best scholars in the empire, and he aspires to be an High Priest; he is at prayers twelve times in a day. His dress is the same as the rest of the Moors, only his clothes are finer; he is about five feet ten inches in stature, stout, but well made, with a handsome countenance. By the laws of his country, he is obliged to marry four wives from the royal family, after which, he may retain as many concubines as he thinks proper. The haram of the present Emperor is composed of about sixty women.'

The amusement which we found in reading these travels has led us to give a larger proportion of extract, than we had intended in the account of so short a performance.—After the narrative of the journey and return, we are presented with the author's *Observations on the Gum Trade of Senegal;* containing a description of the trees which produce the gums, and a short history of the trade.

ART. VIII. *Britannicus*, a Tragedy, in Five Acts; translated from the French of Racine, with a critical Preface. By Sir Brooke Boothby, Bart. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

GOOD taste is always pleased with elegant simplicity: but this quality alone is not sufficient to delight the multitude. Crowded audiences are not to be obtained without intricacy of plot, bustle, spectacle, and pantomime: nor are mystery and ceremonies more necessary to a popular religion, than show and stage effect to popular entertainments. Men of sense, when they design to captivate the vulgar, have recourse to these well-known expedients: but, when their only purpose is to prepare

prepare a mental feast for the discerning few, they lay aside what, in the language of the Green-room, is called "the strut, whisker, and gold fringe." Addison in his Cato, Mason in his Caractacus, and Racine in his Britannicus, were solicitous to produce dramas which might be perused with delight; and which should not entirely depend for their effect on good acting, like the flimsy productions of the modern stage.

Racine speaks of the tragedy before us as that which, of all his pieces, he has laboured with the greatest care; and the professed endeavour of his translator has been to preserve the chaste simplicity of the original. In the execution of this task, Sir B. Boothby had no view to the reception of the piece on the English stage. It is indeed a dramatic dialogue, formed on the models of antiquity, and presenting a picture of the courts of Augustus and Nero, faithfully delineated according to the testimony of Tacitus. Nero is here depicted in the first year of his reign, in which his horrid vices only began to shew themselves, and were not yet displayed in their full atrocity. The tragedy can scarcely, according to the modern acceptation of the term, be said to have a plot: it is a simple action, advancing by degrees to its end, and sustained only by the interests, the sentiments, and the passions of the *dramatis personæ*. To the few who can be satisfied with so inartificial and unembarrassed a performance, the labours of the respectable translator will be acceptable; though they may lament that the version was not sufficiently polished to exclude some aukward lines; as, *e. g.*

'And in one night 'tis you become her lover.'

Few changes are made: but, had Sir Brooke been disposed to deviate from the models and precepts of the antients, he might easily, as he has shewn in his preface, have so altered the play of Racine, by the introduction of a portion of bustle and show (especially in the fifth act,) as to have fitted it for modern representation. We transcribe a part of this drama, that the reader may judge of the manner of its execution:

'ACT V. SCENE IV.

AGRIPPINA, JUNIA, BURRHUS.

Agrippina. Stop, Burrhus. Whither in such trembling haste?
Burrhus. Madam, 'tis done. Britannicus expires.
Junia. Immortal gods!
Agrippina. Britannicus expires!
Burrhus. Or, is already dead.
Junia. Pardon me, Madam:
I fly to aid, or to partake his fate!

SCENE

SCENE V.

AGRIPPINA, BURRHUS.

Agrippina. Gods! what deed is this!
Burrhus. Most horrible!
My task is done: I cannot here remain.
Agrippina. And did he lift his hand against his brother?
Burrhus. No: with more mystery the scene was acted.
Soon as the Emperor perceiv'd his brother,
He rose to meet him, and with open arms
Press'd to his bosom in a strait embrace;
Then taking in his hand a bowl, he says,
"To crown this day with happy auspices,
I make libation of this sacred wine."
The pious act Britannicus repeated;
The cup was then replenish'd by Narcissus,
Who gave it to Britannicus to drink;
But scarcely had the liquor touch'd his lips,
When, pale and lifeless, on his couch he sunk!
Judge with what terrors all the rest were seiz'd:
Part, uttering cries of horror, fled the place;
While some, more us'd to the disguise of courts,
Fashion'd their eyes to Nero's. He unmov'd,
Look'd on: and "This," he calmly said, "is nothing;
He from his infancy is often thus."
In vain Narcissus with a shew of pity
Veil'd the perfidious joy he could not hide;
I pierc'd the throng, regardless what they thought:
Let them mark me for their next violence.
Agrippina. Gods, he is here!

SCENE VI.

AGRIPPINA, NERO, JUNIA, BURRHUS, NARCISSUS.

Nero (to Junia.) Yes, I respect your tears,
But yet avoid this horrid spectacle!
Myself have turn'd away my weeping eyes.
Britannicus is dead: thus Heaven disposes
Of our best purposes; and when we thought
Our friendship to renew, divides for ever.
Junia. My Lord, I lov'd Britannicus; you know it;
And if one spark of pity touch your breast
For miseries like mine, you'll not refuse
That in Octavia's bosom I may seek
The little consolation that remains.
Nero. Yes, Junia, go. I there will follow you.

SCENE VII.

AGRIPPINA, NERO, BURRHUS, NARCISSUS.

Agrippina. Nero, a word or two before we part;
Britannicus is dead! I know the assassin. *Nero.*

Nero. And who suspect you of so black a crime?
Agrippina. You.
Nero. Me! Were, Madam, your suspicions heeded,
I should be capable of every crime.
You lov'd the Prince: his death confounds your projects.
I cannot answer for the will of fate.
Agrippina. No, no; Britannicus has died by poison!
Narcissus mix'd the draught, by your command.
Nero. Who, Madam, can have dar'd to hold this language?
Narcissus. Is then, my Lord, this language so injurious?
Madam, the Prince had entertain'd design
That might have cost you far more just regret.
To Junia's hand his hopes were not confin'd;
With your own gifts he would have punish'd you:
You were deceiv'd in him: his haughty spirit
Pretended, soon or late, to claim his place.
Be it, that fate against your will has serv'd you;
Or, of the plots inform'd that touch'd his life,
Cæsar has trusted my fidelity,
Leave, Madam, to your enemies these tears;
Let them lament Britannicus: but you——
Agrippina. Nero, proceed; with ministers like this
New glories cannot fail to mark thy course!
This act is but a prelude to the rest.
A brother's blood already on thy hand,
I see it rais'd against thy mother's life!
I know my benefits hang heavy on thee;
From all restraint my death must set thee free,
But think not it shall save thee from my vengeance:
Rome, yonder heaven, the air thou breath'st, my gift,
Shall hourly call me to thy view appall'd:
The furies of remorse shall lash thy soul,
And drive thee headlong on from crime to crime,
Till wearied Heaven, that can no more endure,
Turn thy despairing hand against thyself;
And thy last crime become an act of justice:
Thy name accurs'd to latest times shall go,
The worst of insults to the worst of tyrants.
This my prophetic soul foretels. I have done;
Thou mayst depart.
Nero. Narcissus, follow me.'

The critical preface contains not only some judicious remarks on the distinguishing features of the several species of dramatic compositions, but also some hints for the consideration of the landscape gardener.

ART. IX. *An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Public Wealth*, and into the Means and Causes of its Increase. By the Earl of Lauderdale. 8vo. pp. 488. 8s. 6d. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable and Co.; London, Longman and Co. 1804.

ONE of the boasts of the present age may be that it has drawn Philosophy from her Academic retreats, to mingle in the business and concerns of active life; and learned trifling now slumbers in obscurity, or has gradually given place to discussions which are more rational, perhaps more elegant, certainly more beneficial. The invention of bills of exchange, the establishment of banks, the introduction of paper as a circulating medium, the vast increase of manufactures, and the wide extension of commerce, have fashioned the artificial structure of society in modern Europe, and furnished ample scope for inquiry and reflection. The subdivision of employments, and the various distribution of wealth, thus become proper subjects for calculation; and Political Arithmetic, which originated in England about the middle of the seventeenth century, is now, under the more improved shape of Statistics, eagerly cultivated by the patient industry of the Germans: but Political Economy, which naturally springs out of the former, and constitutes a most interesting and important science, has arisen almost within our own times. France led the way; and the famous sect of Economists, though sometimes betrayed by the love of system, displayed, on the whole, a precision, a boldness, and a depth of investigation that were never surpassed. Scotland next succeeded: but the writings of Hume and Stewart have been finally eclipsed by the luminous and comprehensive work of Adam Smith; and the *Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations*, with all its imperfections, must long be esteemed a standard production.

It affords us sincere pleasure to see a nobleman, who appears destined by his rank, his fortune, and his talents, to fill some important charge in the councils of the nation, pursuing the same arduous career which was opened by his scientific countrymen, and vigorously directing his studies to such useful and interesting objects. The performance now under review does credit to his acuteness and ingenuity. It gives proofs of curious and extensive reading, and evinces close observation combined with legitimate trains of argument. The style is simple, unaffected, and remarkably perspicuous; and the illustrations introduced are frequent, though they seem to want variety. With respect to the results, we are not so much disposed to value them for their intrinsic merit, as for their evident tendency to correct and improve the principles now currently received. Lord

Lord Lauderdale most satisfactorily points out several incongruities in the propositions of Dr. Smith; whose loose didactic manner, and fondness of presenting his thoughts under different aspects, had particularly exposed him to attacks: but, though the noble author appears rather anxious to give his own deductions an air of novelty or singularity, we think that in some cases they differ more in words than in idea from the received opinions; and that in others the paradoxical conclusions, though perhaps strictly drawn, proceed merely from the vagueness and inaccuracy of the principles usually admitted. Yet the service thus rendered to Political Economy, may not be the less real, since we are taught to re-examine and settle the bases on which that science is built.

In the concluding paragraphs of the work, Lord Lauderdale recapitulates the leading principles which, in the progress of inquiry, he had endeavoured to establish; and this passage will give the reader some notion of the course of reasoning which he is to expect in a perusal of the volume:

'If, in delineating the means and the causes of the progressive increase of wealth, we have been fortunate enough to impress conviction, it will follow:—

'That man owes his wealth, or the accumulation of the objects of his desire, which he alone of all animals possesses, to the power of directing his labour to *the* increasing *of* the quantity, or *the* meliorating *of* the quality, of the productions of nature; and to the power of supplanting and performing labour by capital;—faculties peculiar to, and characteristic of, the human species:—

'That though land, labour, and capital, may be regarded as the sources of wealth, the wealth of mankind is alone increased by labour, whether performed by the hand of man or by capital, employed in increasing the quantity, and meliorating the quality, of the productions of nature; and by labour, whether manual or performed by capital, employed in giving form to, and adapting raw materials for consumption:—

'That the direction which labour in every country takes, and of course the channels of industry in which it excels,—nay, the extent to which the exertions of its industry, and even its population, can be pushed, depend upon the distribution of its wealth:—

'That when once the peculiar character of the industry of a country is, by this means, fixed and decided, the progress of its opulence is accelerated or retarded in proportion as the distribution of wealth in other countries creates a demand for the articles, in the production of which it excels;—And, lastly;—

'That all impediments thrown in the way of commercial communication, obstruct the increase of wealth, as much by discouraging the industry of the country which gives rise to them, as by their effects on the industry of the country they are meant to injure.'

It is requisite, however, to discuss the facts and reasonings which are adduced in support of these propositions. Chap. I. treats of *Value*, and contains the chief arguments on which the rest of the work depends. Nothing, it is contended, has any real or intrinsic *value*, which is merely relative, and is created by *demand* and *scarcity*. Thus, water, the most essential article of life, because it exists in abundance, seldom bears any price; and gold, though usually deemed a precious metal, was treated by the natives of America almost with indifference, till the eager demand of the Spaniards gave it value. So little has the quality of an article any effect in deciding its value, that it often is estimated lowest when the former occurs in the highest degree. Grain is always the finest in a plentiful season, and yet it then obtains the smallest price. Value, being therefore only artificial and extrinsic, is not susceptible of any standard of comparison. Various writers, and particularly Dr. Smith, have considered *labour* as the proper measure of value: but this idea Lord L. endeavours to combat. He maintains that labour varies in its value as much as any other object of demand; since its price fluctuates at different periods and in different countries; and it is subject to all the variations which arise from the change of mutual relation between demand and scarcity. Indeed the distinction made by Dr. Smith between *productive* and *unproductive* labour seems, at first sight, utterly inconsistent with the idea of its being an accurate measure of value.

We readily admit this reasoning to be very specious, but we must dispute the solidity of the basis on which it rests. Value is not *determined* by demand and scarcity; it is only *affected* or *modified* by those circumstances. The increase of demand or of scarcity has certainly an effect in raising the value of any thing, as the decrease of either has a similar influence in depressing it: but such fluctuations can occasion merely a temporary derangement; and, notwithstanding the action of these disturbing forces, the value continually tends to its natural equilibrium. The demand and scarcity seek always a mutual balance; and whatever is formed, or procured, by human industry, would soon appear in that precise degree of plenty which is proportioned to the demand. The natural and steady value of any article is, therefore, just what would repay the labour employed in producing it. Ordinary work, however, being performed by the lowest class of society, is rewarded nearly alike in all ages and countries: it must afford enough to feed, to clothe, and to lodge the labourer and his family; and very seldom does it go farther. Perhaps the real condition of the peasantry is not much different all over Europe; and if they possess more comforts in England, they also toil much harder

harder than in many parts of the Continent. The rise of wages is almost invariably accompanied with increased exertion; and if labour at a former period bore a smaller price, and probably could purchase fewer of the necessaries of life, assuredly it was less strenuous and animated. In America, wages are kept above the level by the prevailing taste of the people, which disinclines them from being employed, and tempts them to become petty cultivators. Besides, they are not obliged, in any considerable degree, to share the fruits of their labour with the proprietor, the capitalist, or the state annuitant; in other words, they pay very little in the shape of rent, or interest, or taxes.—Hence we conclude that labour, though not an accurate measure of value, is yet the nearest approximation that the varying position of society will admit; and we maintain that every article in request has a certain absolute or medium value, from which it may oscillate on either side according to the degree of plenty or the fluctuation of demand, but to which it naturally endeavours to return.

The second chapter considers *the relation which subsists between public wealth and individual riches*; and here, in opposition to the universal sentiment of mankind, the noble author insists that the mass of private wealth does not constitute national opulence. He argues that the general scarcity of any article enhances the value of what is possessed by an individual: that, while war diminishes the price of stock, and even that of land, the stockholder continues to receive the same dividend, and the landlord the same rent: that in seasons of scarcity, the price of corn always rises in a higher ratio than the scantiness of the crop; and that therefore individuals are enriched, while the community is rendered poor. These positions are illustrated in detail, by tracing the obvious effects of the alteration of quantity, or demand, on the value of some staple articles; such as sugar, meat, and wine:

'It is further necessary to remark, that when variations in value, or in the mass of individual riches, are created by alterations in the quantity of any commodity, the opposite effect in all cases immediately takes place in public wealth. A diminution of the value of a commodity, in consequence of an alteration of its quantity, is an invariable symptom of an immediate increase of its quantity; and of course of an increase of public wealth: an augmentation of the value of a commodity, in consequence of an alteration of its quantity, is an invariable symptom of an immediate diminution of its quantity, and consequently of a diminution of public wealth.

'But if there is a diminution in the value of a commodity, in consequence of a variation in the demand for it, this is no symptom of an immediate alteration in the quantity of the commodity; but it is a sure presage of future diminution of its quantity, and of course

course a diminution of public wealth; and if there is an augmentation in the value of a commodity, in consequence of an alteration in the demand for it, this in like manner is no symptom of an alteration in the quantity of a commodity; though it is always followed by a reduction of its quantity, and of course by a reduction of public wealth.'

This mode of arguing is evidently fallacious; since the public wealth arises not from *certain individuals*, but from *the whole collective body*. The scarcity of any commodity may indeed enrich a particular class of men; yet the rest of the community, who are the purchasers, must proportionally suffer; and therefore the aggregate mass of riches will be thus diminished. An increased demand for sugar would only transfer to the West India planter, and merchant, a greater portion of the wealth that was before diffused through the nation: what is added in one part of the general account is only subtracted from other parts; and the balance would therefore continue the same. According to the computation of Gregory King, a deficiency of one-fifth of the crop will make the price of corn to rise four-fifths. The farmer consequently receives 44 *per cent.* more than in ordinary years, while the great body of the consumers are obliged to pay 80 *per cent.* more than the medium price; and hence the mass of public wealth suffers a diminution equal to 36 *per cent.* or the value of the deficient fifth part of the crop estimated at the enhanced rate.—The effect of war in lowering the public funds, and even the price of land, seems owing to the joint operation of two causes: 1. by creating apprehension and danger, it diminishes the security and consequently the value of all property; and 2. by occasioning continual calls for money in the form of loans, it alters the relation between capital and income, between the importance of present enjoyment and the prospect of future possession. If we except the multiplied burthens which it inevitably brings on the people at large, the only tendency of war is to disturb the natural equilibrium of wealth. It is as favourable to him who can advance money to the state, as it is disadvantageous to him who is obliged to consume the whole of his annual gains. To say that a nation is rich because it supports many over-grown fortunes, however customary it may be, is yet a manifest abuse of language. Countries in which greater equality prevails will indeed appear less brilliant, but may contain a larger sum of wealth.

Chapter III. examines *the sources of wealth*.—Whence does wealth arise? This question still remains to be solved. Land, labour, and capital, either separately or combined, have had their several advocates. Dr. Smith seems to assert that land and

and labour are jointly the source of wealth: but this axiom is not distinctly and satisfactorily proved; and Lord Lauderdale shews, by some apt quotations, that the views of that celebrated author were, on this head, wavering and inconsistent. His lordship reckons all these three elements,—land, labour, and capital,—as concurring in the formation of wealth, and he proceeds to trace the distinct effects of each.

1. *Land.* The Economists held that the rent of land, after having deducted the seed which must be returned to the ground, formed the only real surplus which goes to constitute the national wealth: but Lord Lauderdale contends that the whole territorial produce, and not merely the net rent, is an addition to the riches of the state. This opinion we allow to be in the main true; and we are inclined to proceed a step farther, and to consider rent as only a reasonable and acknowleged transfer to the proprietor, and which contributes not in any degree to augment the public wealth. It is indeed a tax on industry, but a tax to which men will chearfully submit, from habit and the sense of justice. Land has no original value, but acquires value gradually, in consequence of successive improvements and growing competition. In the wilds of America, land costs a mere trifle, a small bounty paid to the state for the purchase of security: but, as population increases, the demand and monopoly must have a necessary effect in raising the price, or the rent.

2. *Labour.* The Economists reckoned every species of labour, except that of the husbandman, as absolutely unproductive. The arguments with which Dr. Smith has endeavoured to confute this singular opinion are clearly shewn by Lord L. to be inconclusive, if they have not indeed an opposite tendency. He represents the distinction of the same author into *productive* and *unproductive* labour as entirely groundless, and combats it with some keenness and ingenuity. Dr. Smith's definition is certainly loose and incorrect; yet we think that it has some foundation in nature. Between articles of utility and those of mere luxury, a material difference subsists, though it would be difficult to draw the precise line of separation; and certain kinds of industry are confessedly more profitable or more important to the state than others.—Of the arguments brought against the doctrine of the Economists, a tolerable idea will be formed from the subsequent passage:

'It must also be remarked that, even if the nature of things were so far altered that the works of the manufacturer and artist should become so abundant in proportion to the demand for them as universally to reduce the wages of manufacturers and artists to what in value was merely equivalent to their sustenance, (if wealth truly consists

consists in the abundance of the objects of man's desire), we should be obliged, as long as the love of conveniency and taste is incident to mankind, to consider the manufacturer and artist as productive labourers, on the same principle that we have regarded water as an article of public wealth.

'In truth, it is only from the circumstance of confounding wealth and riches, and considering wealth, in the course of their reasoning, at one time as depending on exchangeable value, and at another as constituted by the abundance of the objects of man's desire, that this doctrine of the œconomists can for a moment be maintained. For supposing that an artist or manufacturer added only the value of his maintenance to the raw material, if wealth is to be understood in its true sense, his labour, even in this case, must be considered as productive of wealth. The nourishment on which he subsists is wealth, because it is an object of man's desire. In satisfying the desire of the labourer, it has fulfilled the duty it is destined to perform; whilst, on the other hand, by the form given to the raw material by his industry, a distinct portion of wealth remains ready, to satisfy the desire of some other individual: so that, admitting that at no one period there existed, in consequence of his industry, an additional value, still it is evident that, in consequence of the industry of the manufacturer, there is a portion of desire satisfied, and of course a portion of wealth created, which would not otherwise have existed.'

A moment's reflection, however, will convince us that the labour of the artist differs from that of the cultivator in degree only, and not in kind. Both of these sorts of industry pay to the landlord a certain tax, or, in the language of the Economists, they yield a net surplus. The sole difference is, that the annual sum, levied from the manufacturer in the shape of rent, bears such a very small proportion to his whole produce as to be commonly overlooked: but, if a manufacture requires great extent of ground, an advantageous situation, a fall of water, &c. the rent charged may then enter into the estimate, and sensibly affect the price of the goods. On the other hand, in the more refined species of agriculture, rent becomes relatively of small consequence. Thus, in the instance quoted by Lord Lauderdale, of land dressed under the gardening system in the neighbourhood of London, yielding at least 220*l. per* acre the produce exceeded perhaps twenty times the rent; while, from the same land employed to raise corn, one third part of the whole crop would have been scarcely sufficient to satisfy the claims of the proprietor. The exportation of manufactured articles, unless great capital is engaged in their fabrication, therefore contributes less to the public wealth than the exportation of corn; because the former barely repays the wages of the artisan and the advances of his employer; while the latter not only repays the farmer and his servants, but moreover furnishes

nishes a revenue to support the country gentlemen, the clergy, and their numerous dependants.

3. The last source of wealth, as enumerated by Lord Lauderdale, is *Capital.*—Dr. Smith appears to consider the profit of stock as paid out of the value which the workman adds to the raw material: but his lordship contends that it is an original, and not a derivative, source of income. He successively considers capital as employed in these five ways,—in machinery, —in trade,—in commerce,—in agriculture,—and in circulation. His great proposition is, that the profits of capital are derived from *its supplanting or performing labour*; and he argues that the stock invested in a spade or a plough supersedes the quantity of labour which would have been rendered necessary without the help of those instruments: that, as one person may perhaps work as many stockings on a loom as a dozen could knit in the same time, the loom then performs the labour of eleven people; and that, though in consequence of competition that profit is soon reduced, the labour, thus displaced, still forms the fund from which it is derived.—We cannot, however, accede to this mode of reasoning, since Lord L. seems here to confound skill with capital. It is true that the inventor of a machine draws at first a reward from the source above mentioned, or from the measure of improvement: but, as the monopoly ceases, skill entirely loses its value; and, however important the contrivance in itself may be, it soon yields no more profit than that which, in other cases, capital will command. In strict logic, *a machine* cannot supplant or perform labour. The language of Dr. Smith seems more natural, and in this instance, we think, it is more correct. To displace a portion of labour is only to render that which is then employed more productive.

In treating of the profits of capital vested in trade, Lord L. endeavours to push the same argument. It spares, he says, the labour which the consumer would have necessarily undergone in hunting after the articles wanted. Surely this is a very limited view of the matter. The far greater part of the capital is employed in purchasing and storing up the articles, to wait the effective demand. With respect to the profits of foreign commerce, the same objection is valid; and the shipping which it employs comes directly under the case of machinery. Those of agriculture are likewise resolvable into similar elements. Lord L. maintains, however, that capital, vested even in circulation, derives a profit from supplanting labour. Money no doubt facilitates exchange, but paper, which costs nothing, will perform the same office; and it appears more reasonable to consider coin as a mass of unproductive capital,

capital, of which the state foregoes the profits, for the sake of giving more stability to commerce.

How, then, does the profit of capital generally arise? It is, like the rent of land, merely a transfer from one class of the society to another: it is the tax which frugality and foresight impose on profusion and improvidence. The rate of interest must also vary according to the state of the market, or the relation between the demand and the plenty of stock: but when the situation of affairs is tranquil and uniform, the premium paid to the lender on good security appears every where tending towards a certain natural level. This rate perhaps depends on the mean duration of human life, or on the value, in every one's estimate, of personal enjoyments in comparison of those which only await posterity. High interest of money marks the degree of importance attached to present gratifications; and, on the supposition that life were extended to the patriarchal age, it might be presumed that the rate of interest would sink in all countries.

Labour, then, we regard as the true basis and only original source of wealth. Yet land and capital have indirectly a beneficial influence, since they furnish materials for the exercise of industry, and are the means of exciting more strenuous exertions. The rent paid by the farmer will occasion larger crops to be raised; and capital may be viewed as quantity of power or obligation stored up, which, being thrown into action, gives to labour a stimulus and an useful direction.

In chapter IV. Lord Lauderdale considers *the possibility of increasing wealth by any other means than those by which it is produced.* This title has obviously the appearance of a negative truism: but the noble author here pursues his favourite proposition, that the mass of individual riches does not compose the public wealth; and he treats with severity 'the baneful passion for accumulation, that has been falsely denominated a virtue.' He does not, however, go so far as wholly to deny the use of capital, but he dwells on the possibility of its exceeding due bounds. In that case, he contends, the public must suffer: 1. 'By the creation of a quantity of capital more than is requisite; and, 2. By abstracting a portion of encouragement to future reproduction.' Yet if capital, according to his hypothesis, performs or supplants labour, we should infer that it must always be advantageous to the state, since it would tend to increase the general produce, and diminish the toil exacted from the individuals. The capitalist, however, whom Lord L. pictures in his imagination, is only a sordid miser, occupied in hoarding up treasure in a dormant and useless shape. Stock is no doubt gradually formed by the accumulation

cumulation of the annual surplus of the produce above the consumption or the expenditure: yet it is not idle, nor inefficient; and the holder, in consulting his private advantage, proves a benefactor to the state, since he relieves the distress incurred by heedless prodigality, sets in motion the creative powers, and rouses the latent energies of the community. The formation of capital may rather discourage unproductive labour, but it animates the industry of the productive class; and we cannot discern any limit to it's useful operation. It would cease to accumulate if it did not yield a profit, or was not advantageously employed. Its abundance would encourage every beneficial undertaking at home; and, after the rate of interest became too much depressed, it would find its way abroad, and, laying foreign countries under contribution, it would silently bring a revenue to the state. Such has long been the situation of Holland.

Following up his principles, Lord Lauderdale gives a history of the Sinking Fund; and he displays, with considerable ingenuity, the inconvenience which would result to the public from carrying into effect the plan for extinguishing the national debt. The annual operation of this fund amounted in 1799 to *five* millions; and Mr. Pitt proposed that the produce of the Income Tax, which he estimated at *ten* millions, should after the war be added to it. The project, however, was altered by his successor; the power of the Sinking Fund is now about *six* millions; and the Income Tax, after a short and inauspicious repeal, has been again revived under a different name, liable to all the former objections, and to many others in addition.—That the reader may better comprehend Lord L.'s objections to the measure of reducing the public debt, we quote his own words:

'If L. 15,000,000 a-year extraordinary were levied by the Government from the revenue of its subjects, to defray the charge of warfare or any other extraordinary expenditure; as this money would be expended in articles of consumption, as fast as assumed, the expence of the Government would effectually counteract the effects of the parsimony it renders necessary, and creates in the subject. The only mischief, therefore, that could ensue, would arise from the extensive demand it must suddenly occasion for one class of commodities, and from the consequent abstraction of so large a portion of the revenue of the subjects from the acquisition of those articles in which it is usually expended;—a mischief in itself nowise trifling, as recent experience has taught the merchants of this country.

'Very different, however, must have been the effect of raising fifteen millions for the purpose of accumulation, or of forcibly converting fifteen millions of revenue into capital. In this, as in the former

former case, there would have ensued all the mischief occasioned by abstracting a portion of demand represented by fifteen millions a-year, from the commodities which the subjects were accustomed to acquire with this part of their revenue: but, in this case, there would unfortunately have existed no extraordinary expenditure, to counteract the full effects of this forced parsimony; for it would have been difficult to persuade the proprietors of stock, from whom such extensive purchases would have been made by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, all at once to spend, as revenue, that which habit had taught them to regard as capital; or, in other words, all at once to ruin themselves, in order to counteract the bad effects of this miserly policy in Government.

'Unless, however, the stockholder could have been persuaded thus to expend his capital, fifteen millions a-year less must have been expended in the different articles the country produced or manufactured; that is, a portion of demand would at once have been withdrawn from commodities of British growth or manufacture, nearly equal to the whole demand created by the foreign trade of the country in the year 1786, when the million was first set aside to accumulate, as the exports from England amounted in that year to the sum of L. 15,385,987.'

This strain of arguing, we confess, seems more popular than might have been expected from such an able politician. The expence of war surely causes incalculably greater mischief than the mere derangement of the equilibrium of employment. It is not enough if the money levied during hostilities were only spent within the country, since it is spent in promoting that unprofitable species of industry which leaves not a monument behind it, and is extorted from beneficial labour to support what is employed in consuming the bounties of nature, and carrying forwards the business of destruction. We cannot perceive how the discharge of the public creditor should, at least for some time, alter his mode of living, or disturb the balance of internal demand and consumption. He would seek to turn his capital into another channel; in pursuing his private emolument, he would encourage all useful undertakings, and perhaps would unconsciously put in motion the various sorts of productive industry. As stock accumulated, his profits would in course diminish: but then the community would be an evident gainer. He might at last be tempted, by the higher rate of interest, to send part of his wealth abroad; and thus he would procure to the state all the advantages of a foreign conquest, without the expence of atchieving and maintaining it. The creation of public debt has multiplied the idle members of society; and the extinction of it would therefore have an opposite effect, and eventually give to the industrious classes a larger share of the fruits of their labour. All political changes, however, ought to be effected gradually. Perhaps the repayment

ment of 15 millions *per ann.* might subject the holders of stock to serious hardships; though we have unfortunately witnessed, for a considerable period, as large a sum borrowed annually, without occasioning much inconvenience. In 1733, Sir Robert Walpole reckoned one million annually to be as much as the creditors of the public could bear to receive: but this was after a peace of twenty years; and it is not perhaps exaggeration to say that ten millions would be more easily absorbed at present. After all, it is not probable that the wants of Government will ever allow the operation of the Sinking Fund to mount so high; and, as long as the recurrence of wars shall be thus frequent, the creditors of the public, if they but continue to receive the annual dividends, may dismiss all apprehensions of having their capital tendered back. The Sinking Fund might certainly prove advantageous as a political measure: but, in the hands of lavish and impetuous ministers, it becomes a most dangerous engine. It casts a deceptive glare around it, and has a tendency to facilitate the pernicious practice of borrowing, by which it tempts the nation to waste her energies in wild and fruitless projects of interminable warfare.

'Nothing, indeed, can be more absurd, than the golden dreams with which Parliament and the nation have been amused, through the medium of the calculations that have been formed on this subject. Perhaps it may with reason be thought, that nothing could be more unfortunate than the faith that seems to be reposed in them.

'For though the Sinking Fund, the offspring of this delusion, never can, without ruining the country, be accumulated to an amount equal to the debt of the nation, yet its existence has greatly facilitated the contracting of debt; that is, it has enabled those who had the management of the Government more completely to derange the natural and most advantageous distribution of the property of the country; —that distribution, which, giving to the possessor the greatest real interest in the property he has to manage, affords the greatest encouragement to those exertions of industry in the conduct of it, which alike benefit the proprietor and the public.'

If ever peace shall revisit these lands, and the Sinking Fund should not be swallowed up in the pressing exigencies of the state, perhaps it would be a preferable mode, instead of employing it then in buying up stock, to lend it out as much as possible on mortgage and good securities; since it would in this way be more productive, and consequently operate with greater effect. A more essential benefit, however, would thence accrue to the public, as it might serve to check the passion of plunging headlong into war, by setting the country gentlemen to oppose the clamour of the money-holders, who have a manifest interest to promote every scheme that will create

create a demand for capital: because the former, who would constitute the principal borrowers, must foresee the probability of being speedily called to repay the loan, that it might be more advantageously invested in stock.

Every one who turns his thoughts to matters of finance is astonished to see, during war, with what ease a minister of this country can from year to year borrow those vast sums which have lately been obtained, while no such overflowing accumulation of capital is perceived in times of peace. It is true that new channels are then opened for productive industry: but this reason appears insufficient to account for the fact, and perhaps the real cause lies deeper. In time of war, the progressive imposition of taxes incessantly reminds the consumer to husband his resources, and the high rate of interest tempts him to save annually a portion of his income for the purpose of converting it into capital. Thus, by a most beautiful moral balance, the frugality of the individual not only tends to repair the waste of the public wealth, but is actually, in a great measure, excited and produced by that very profusion. Modern war, therefore, however pernicious in its effects, is not quite so destructive as some desponding politicians would represent.

The last chapter treats *of the means of augmenting wealth, and the causes that regulate its increase;* and here we are in general disposed to approve the opinions and remarks of the noble author. He states that wealth, except what is derived from the ocean, can only be increased by labour, 'whether personal or performed by capital'—in short, by *agriculture* and *manufactures*. He cites a remarkable passage from Xenophon's *Cyropædia*, to shew that the antients were acquainted with the advantages resulting from the subdivision of labour; and he proves that Dr. Smith, who laid so much stress on it, has greatly over-rated the importance of such arrangements. In almost every manufacture, the subdivision of labour seems to be of far less consequence than the introduction of machinery,—the offspring of skill and contrivance. Some of the most essential arts of life will scarcely admit of subdivision: but the application of tools and instruments always prodigiously facilitates and augments the powers of labour.—The state of society, or the nature and degree of demand, must determine the sorts of industry which are exercised in every country; and no legislative interference can either profitably or effectually divert them from their proper channels. In spite of all the bounties paid for the curing of herrings in this kingdom, they must ever be inferior to those prepared by the Dutch; since, instead of adding to the luxuries of a German table, they are sent to feed our negroes in the West Indies.

dies. America affords a vent for the coarser kinds of manufactures: but to India we can export only a few articles of jewellery, and pieces of curious mechanism intended for the native princes; the great mass of the people being too wretched to desire the acquisition of European commodities. In England, we find ease and comfort tolerably diffused, frequently the appearance of expence, and seldom much of elegance; in France, on the contrary, we look in vain for general neatness, but we are occassionally struck with the display of taste, magnificence, and splendour.—Though commerce, being the mere exchange of articles, does not positively add to the wealth of the state, it has yet a beneficial tendency; since it gives a spur to activity, and serves to procure the several advantages which belong to different soils, climates, and conditions of society. All restrictions on trade must be regarded as highly injudicious and impolitic; and it is indeed very remarkable that philosophical writers, with scarcely a single exception, and by whatever road they proceeded, have uniformly arrived at the same conclusion. This liberal maxim should be continually sounded in the ears of those who direct the affairs of nations; and it is much to be lamented that governments have been so long deceived by ignorance, and misled by prejudice or by partial and interested representations.

The Appendix, which occupies 114 pages, contains a number of curious and interesting documents. They consist mostly of extracts from the writings of the Economists—the testament of Fortuné Ricard—calculations on the Sinking Fund—observations on the commercial treaty with France—remarks on French agriculture—difference between the quantity of food produced under the grazing system and that of tillage—and lastly, an estimate of the superior husbandry practised in the rich tract of the Carse of Gowrie in Scotland.

The volume is rather incorrectly printed, especially where figures are concerned. In page 51, the table is hardly intelligible, on account of the decimal point being misplaced. We might also remark some inaccurate modes of expression, if, respecting a work of this nature, it would not appear to be hypercriticism.

In concluding, we must remark that Lord Lauderdale has given to his subject a novel cast; that he has discovered no ordinary abilities in the contexture of the discourse; and that, if his arguments do not always produce conviction on the mind, they will seldom fail to surprize and perplex. Amid any seeming obscurity of ideas, the attentive reader will yet discover depth of thought and extent of observation; and the singularity of the opinions sometimes advanced must provoke discussion, and therefore eventually contribute to the advancement

ment of political science.—The noble author justly observes that the great source of error, in such abstract disquisitions, proceeds from the vague and popular meaning of the words necessarily employed: yet we have seldom found much benefit arise from formal definitions, because the writer is extremely apt to forget the restricted sense with which he had set out, and insensibly to admit, in the course of his reasonings, a much wider latitude, which consequently must involve him in paralogisms. We believe, however, that the main cause of mistake, in questions of political economy, originates in the incautious use of figurative language, which ascribes agency to mere instruments and accessories. The word *capital* has, almost throughout this book, a signification highly metaphorical.

A prefixed Advertisement acquaints us that Lord Lauderdale's original intention was to print, at the same time, a second work on the Legislation of Commerce and Finance: but that, on farther reflection, he resolved to pause, and wait the decision of the public. In taking this step, we think that his lordship has acted wisely; and he will probably in the meantime revise and improve his ideas, that he may come forwards again with greater efficacy.—The present volume is dedicated to the Prince of Wales.

ART. X. *The Swiss Emigrants;* A Tale. 12mo. pp. 126. 4s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1804.

THE object of this well-told tale is at once to set forth the happiness which may be derived from the practice of beneficence in an humble and obscure sphere, and to exhibit a moving picture of the misery of which war is productive. The author does not favour us with the name of his hero, and therefore in speaking of him we shall denominate him *Ignotus*. We learn that this personage had spent his younger days in the army: that, on quitting the service, he married; and that the lovely partner of his joys lived only long enough to present him with a daughter. About the same time, misfortunes of another kind overtake him, which leave him so much reduced in circumstances, as not to be able to support the rank in which he had before appeared. He therefore quits the gaiety of a town life, and retires to Langen, a romantic village in the mountainous parts of the Canton of Berne; where, living on a competence, he employs himself in ameliorating the condition of its rude inhabitants, and in educating his child. His efforts are long attended with little success, but still he perseveres.

severes. In time, Julia grows up, beautiful and accomplished, and is adored by the villagers. Under her fostering hand, the seeds sown by her father are rapidly matured. None resist the admonitions of Julia; the manners of the rustics are softened, their morals are improved, their comforts are increased, they become superior and happier beings. Meiners, a promising youth, living in a neighbouring town, had long visited in the family of *Ignotus*, who respected and loved him; and he at length declares himself the admirer of Julia. The match is approved on all sides: but at the meeting in which the period for the union of the lovers was fixed, the rumour of an approaching rupture between Helvetia and France is announced, and diffuses a temporary gloom over each countenance; though time, and a willing scepticism, concur to dissipate the alarm. Shortly afterward, Meiners re-appears, and confirms the sad intelligence, adding that hostilities had actually begun. Not a moment was now to be lost. The Langenites obey the call of *Ignotus*; under whose command, accompanied by Meiners, they set out for the field of honor. The tender-hearted Julia bids a heavy farewell to her parent and her lover: but she acts on the trying occasion in a manner worthy of herself, and submits with alacrity to the cruel separation which distracts her soul. The Langenites join the Bernese army just in time to engage in the bloody action that was to decide the fate of their common country; and the ingenuousness and firmness visible in their countenances induce the commander in chief to assign them a post of consequence. In the day of battle, they make a glorious stand against superior numbers and superior discipline united, but are finally mown down by the dreadful flying artillery of the enemy. Few of the brave Langenites survive the fatal day, Meiners is killed, and *Ignotus* is wounded dangerously, but not mortally; while Julia and those who had staid behind at Langen are obliged precipitately to fly, and to seek refuge at Coire. *Ignotus*, being in some degree recovered, is set at liberty, and allowed to proceed to the town which contains his Julia. He hears her welcome voice, and his eyes behold his beloved daughter: but alas! her faded form, and her pale and emaciated countenance, announce that she is in a deep decline. For a few short months, this unfortunate parent enjoys the society of his angelic child; each day of which only gave fresh and more clear notice of the cruel privation which he must speedily undergo. The hours of increasing melancholy soon pass over; the soul of Julia joins that of her lover; and to *Ignotus* are left the mournful reflections which he thus expresses:

'Meiners! Julia!—Of all, for whose sake chiefly I could have wished my life to be prolonged, I am destined to be the melancholy survivor. The grave now covers you from my eyes. But I have learned to penetrate its gloomy silence, and look into the regions that lie beyond; I have learned to anticipate there some future and more blissful re-union with those whom I love.

'I mourn not, O Julia! over thy destiny. Thou art gone from this polluted scene to dwell in purer abodes, from which sorrow and guilt are for ever excluded. I mourn for myself alone; yet wherefore? since, worn out with age and sorrow, I too must quickly fall. I have only to find out some solitary retreat in which to lay down my head, and die in peace.'

Such is war, and such are the blessings which conquerors and warlike statesmen confer on humanity! Yet what a small corner in the wide field of devastation and misery, occasioned by one expedition only, does this volume describe! The most detailed relations of General Brune's progress in Switzerland cannot include the desolation of Langen, nor notice the afflictions under which the aged shoulders of *Ignotus* now bent; and if such as these pages describe be the misery produced in one sequestered village in consequence of a single battle, what imagination can grasp the sum of that which was caused by the revolution, and all its sanguinary contests.

ART. XI. *Statistical View of France,* compiled from authentic Documents. By the Chevalier de Tinseau. 8vo. pp. 178. 10s. 6d. Boards. Printed by Spilsbury. 1803.

IN order to ascertain the strength of nations, it is necessary in the first instance to have recourse to the Book of Numbers; though in forming an accurate estimate of their relative power and resources, circumstances must be taken into the account which must either augment or diminish the result of mere numerical calculation. France displays with pride her vast population; and in her continental connections, it affords her a decided preponderance: but her greatness, compared with that of our empire, is not respectively in the exact proportion of inhabitants. Before France can bring her numerous legions to act with effect against the sovereignty of Britain, she must subdue our most formidable Navy; and should she be able to accomplish this her darling project, and to land her troops on our shores, "the unconquerable will, and courage never to submit or yield," of Britons, would oppose a resistance which must falsify arithmetical calculation, and overwhelm the invaders with disgrace. Collected in ourselves, we can contemplate, without the smallest trepidation, the strength

strength of the enemy given in their statistical accounts. It is, however, prudent in us to make ourselves well acquainted with the ability and resources of the country with which we are now at war; and, as assisting us in this object, the volume of the Chevalier de Tinseau will be consulted with peculiar interest, since it displays the extent of her territory, and the manner in which her vast population is spred over it.

'The Tables, (it is observed,) that will be found in the present work, were drawn up in the tenth year of what is called the French Republic, by command of the Government, and under the direction of the Minister of Justice, Abrial, to whom they were dedicated by Chanlaire and Herbin, who had been appointed to complete and superintend the execution thereof.

'The conclusions drawn from the following Tables may, possibly, appear somewhat exaggerated; but as the materials of these conclusions are given in the greatest detail, and as no recent and positive enumeration can be opposed to them, it would be absurd to attack established facts by bare conjectures. Domiciliary researches, and inquisitions of all kinds, have besides been so multiplied by the Revolution, and so much rigour and even cruelty have been employed in these repeated acts of despotism, that it is not reasonable to suppose, that any portion of what it so highly imported them to know, can have escaped the vigilance of the French Government.

'I have ascertained, myself, the exactness of those Tables, by comparing the population of certain towns therein stated, with that of the same places, which, previous to the Revolution, I had had an opportunity of being well acquainted with; and have found, in general, the present population of those cities is stated to be inferior to what it was at the former period. I shall only quote a few instances. In the year 1783, Mr. Necker * stated the population of the following towns to be; viz.

	M. Necker's Account.	The Tables.
Paris	660,000	546,856
Lyons †	160,000	109,500
Lille	67,000	54,756
Sedan	17,500	10,544
Dunkirk	27,000	21,158
Versailles	60,000	25,000
Arras	21,500	19,364
Rennes	35,500	25,904
Orléans	38,500	36,175
Toulon	28,000	20,500

'Here

'* In his work "On the Administration of the Finances of France," published in 1783.'

† Bourdeaux 112,844 (Tables.)
Marseilles 111,130
Rouen 87,000
Nantes 73,649

'Here shall I stop; but the comparison proves that the new Tables were not intended for exaggeration; and it is easy to account for the causes from which proceeds the decrease of the population of some towns, to such a high degree. For instance, the massacres of the wealthy manufacturers and other inhabitants of Lyons, has occasioned the migration of a vast number of journeymen and others. Lille and Sedan were likewise manufacturing towns. The Court resided at Versailles. The massacres and the destruction of the navy, have thinned Toulon of one-fourth of its inhabitants. Rennes was the capital of an extensive province, the residence of a numerous Noblesse, which has been either murdered or dispersed. Orléans contained a vast number of sugar bake-houses, and besides, a capital dépôt of maritime imports, &c. &c.

'If those same Tables state the population of some few towns to be more numerous than formerly, as namely, Bourdeaux and Marseilles, it is to be considered that the enumeration of the inhabitants of those cities has been confounded with the population of their respective Cantons.'

For the purpose also of elucidating the Tables of which this work is composed, the organization of France is thus explained:

'This State is at present divided into one hundred and two *Departments*, being so many totally distinct Provinces. Each Department is itself subdivided into three, four, or five *Districts* called *Communal Arrondissements*. These Districts are, in their turn, subdivided into *Cantons*. Lastly, each Canton is composed of a certain number of *Communes*; that is to say, of towns and villages. A Commune is sometimes a single town, and sometimes an union of several villages, possessing a Mayor and a Communal Municipality. All the considerable cities are divided into several Communes. The Despot would consider his precarious authority endangered by the reunion of the discontented inhabitants of an entire extensive city. By means of this refinement upon the maxim of tyrants, *divide and govern*, the inhabitants of the same town have ceased to be fellow-citizens.

'Each Department is administered by a Prefect, and as many Sub-Prefects as it contains Districts. The details of the administration descend from the Sub-Prefects to the Mayors, who are appointed by the Despot. Each District has a primary Judicial Tribunal, and each Department a Criminal Tribunal. Every three Departments possess a Tribunal of Appeal, which takes cognizance, by appeal, of all the causes determined by the Tribunals of the Districts under its jurisdiction. Lastly, each Canton has a Justice of the Peace. All the Tribunals of Appeal acknowledge a superior Tribunal, called the *Court of Cassation*, possessing the power of annulling the sentences of the Tribunals of Appeal which appear to it illegal, and of referring

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We add these numbers to enable the reader to compare the amount of the population of the six largest cities in France, with that of the six largest in England, as given n p. 311, including the capital of each country.

* 'The six Piedmontese departments are not included in this number.'

the

the examination of the cause to any other Tribunal it shall please to appoint. All these Judges are in a state of dependence upon the Government; several have been punished for finding innocent men, who had been accused by the Government; and when the Despot is fearful of an opposition to his vengeance, they are displaced by special commissions.

'The Prefects and the Gendarmerie are the two great springs of the Government. The Prefects are appointed by Buonaparté, and can be removed at his pleasure. They enjoy his confidence, and exercise his authority in the Provinces. The Gendarmerie is composed of about 20,000 men, horse and foot, in twenty-seven divisions. Each Gendarme is at once a spy, and a sort of ambulating, armed Justice of Peace, possessing the power of arresting whomsoever he pleases, and of paying domiciliary visits all hours of the day or night.'

An account of the new measures adopted by the French is moreover subjoined:

'Hitherto, the measures adopted by the generality of Nations, as well as the subdivisions of those measures, were arbitrarily, or, to speak more correctly, accidentally adopted: such are the English foot, the French toise, &c. The yard is divided into three parts, the toise into six, the Rhinish foot into twelve, &c. Instead of those fundamental measures, arbitrarily taken and divided by every nation, the French have adopted one connected with the dimensions of the globe. This measure, which they call *metre*, or measure *par excellence*, from the Greek term μετρον, is the ten-millionth part of the fourth of the Terrestrial Meridian, which is, every one knows, the distance from the Pole to the Equator. This primitive measure they have successively multiplied or subdivided by ten, in order to form the greater or smaller measures, by analogy to the decimal system of arithmetic, which is the numeration univetsally adopted in Europe.

'A *Metre*, as we have already seen, is the ten-millionth part of a quarter of the Terrestrial Meridian. One thousand Metres, or a *Kiliometre*, the geographical mensuration adopted by the French, is the ten-thousandth part of the same quarter of the Meridian. In order to find out the proportion between the Kiliometre and the Maritime or Italian Mile (of 60 to a degree, which is the geographical measure in most common use), it is to be observed, that the number of miles which the quarter of the Meridian contains is 60×90, or 5,400. The *Kiliometre* accordingly is to a *Mile* in the ratio of 5,400 to 10,000, or of 27 to 50: and the square Kiliometre to the square mile, as 27×27 to 50×50; otherwise as 729 to 2500; that is to say, very nearly as 7:24. Thus it follows, that 24 square Kiliometres = 7 square Miles. Kiliometres accordingly may be reduced into square miles by multiplying the number by 7, and dividing the produce by 24.

'Now, as a quarter of the Meridan contains 2250 leagues, of 25 to a degree; a league is to a kiliometre, as 10,000 to 2250, or 40 to 9, which is the geographical measure in most common use: consequently, a square league is to a square kiliometre, as 40×40 to 9×9, or 1600 to 81; nearly as 79 to 4.'

In addition to the details contained in the several Tables, will be found a list of the 500 principal cities and towns in France, divided into 14 classes, according to the number of their inhabitants, and a general alphabetical Table of the Departments; together with an account of the Population, territorial extent, number of Districts, Cantons, and Communes; of personal, sumptuary, and other Contributions, either on Moveables or Immoveables; on Doors, Windows, and Letters-Patent; of the hundredths additional Duty; and lastly, of the Expence of Administration, Justice, and public Instruction, in each Department, for the 11th year of the new French Æra.

Hence it appears that the territorial extent of France in Kiliometres is 636,343, or 185,600 square miles: that the total amount of her Population (exclusively of that of the Piedmontese Departments, which is reckoned at 1,946,800) is 33,104,343; and that the general total of Contributions is 320,165,425 francs, of 24 to the sterling pound's metallic value.

These Tables prove that France, by her conquests, has increased her ancient territory by an extent of 23,790 square miles, and her population by 5,114,419 persons, (without including Piedmont, estimated at nearly two millions,) which is nearly 215 to a square mile.

The Chevalier adds:

'If now we deduct 5,114,419 souls for 23,790 square miles, the extent of the conquered countries, we shall find that the population of former France amounted to 27,989,924 souls, over 161,810 square miles of territory, which was little more than 172 inhabitants for a mile; whereas, that of the conquered countries gives 215. Thus it appears that the population of former France amounts, in a square number, to 28,000,000 souls, and that of present France to 35,000,000; that, consequently, its population is increased one-fourth, and most probably its riches and produce in a still higher proportion. If, as it is generally reckoned, the population of Great Britain, Spain, Prussia, Russia, and Austria, amount to 14—10—7—21—and 24 millions inhabitants, that of France is double to and one half more than that of Great-Britain, treble to and one half more than that of Spain, five fold to that of Prussia; it exceeds that of Austria by two thirds, and that of Russia by one half. Since France has united this immense superiority in population to so many other advantages which she derives from the concentration of her territory, from the strength of her frontiers, from her situation between the two seas, from the possession of so many navigable rivers, in short from the abundance and variety of her productions, what is become of the political balance of Europe? But if in the same scale with France are added, Switzerland, Holland, Spain, Southern Italy, and the adjacent parts of Germany, which every one of them are subjected and tributary

butary to that Empire, there will no longer be any balance between France and all the other independent powers of Europe together, if France be permitted to hold her controul over all those countries.'

In the summary of the Counties of England and Wales, the author states the total of their Population at 9,343,578, that of Ireland at 4,500,000, and that of Scotland at 2,500,000, making a grand total for the United Kingdom of 16,343,578.

London is stated to contain 864,845 persons

Manchester -	84,020	
Liverpool -	77,653	
Birmingham -	73,670	352,150
Bristol -	63,645	
Leeds - -	53,162	

On the authority of private information, the Chevalier stated the population of Ireland and Scotland as above: but, in the Advertisement, he acknowleges himself to have been incorrect, and gives the numbers according to the official returns; making the first to be somewhat more than 4,000,000; and the second somewhat more than 1,607,760. If, however, the summary gave the population of Ireland and Scotland in numbers surpassing the truth, it omitted that of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, the Scilly Islands, and the Isle of Man, the inhabitants of which are reckoned at above 80,000; so that the total amount of the Population of the United Kingdom is 15,031,338 persons, viz. about three-sevenths of the population of France. This may appear a discouraging statement: but, continues the author,

'If we include the population of her extensive American Colonies, and her vast and very populous dominions in the East-Indies, the difference will entirely disappear. If at the same time we reflect, that the population of the Mother Country is concentrated in a compact territory, which, thanks to her insular situation and her formidable marine, is in reality a fortress; that the Colonies are inaccessible to the impotent rage of our enemy; that both of them carry on, together, a commerce of manufactured and territorial products, equal, or even superior, to that of the combined Nations of Europe; that throughout the Colonies, as well as in the Mother Country, there reigns an universal spirit of attachment to a Government which diffuses prosperity, happiness, and liberty, into every corner of its vast empire; we cannot entertain the smallest doubt respecting the powerful means this Country possesses, of overturning the destructive projects entertained by an abandoned miscreant, against a Nation that will ever scorn his principles, and be able to baffle completely all his wicked attempts.'

The vast increase of France by the late war is an event which all Europe has reason to deplore: but, if France could resist all Europe leagued against her, how much more is Britain enabled, by the mere circumstance of her position, to repel the

force which a single state can bring against her? France, from recent experience, has no right to count on superior bravery. She can only attack us on our shores by detachments, which must, in part at least, be discomfited by our fleets; and we must be greatly changed, if, when called to fight *pro aris et focis*, successive armies will not be ready to dispute every inch of ground with the invading foe. It is lamentable, however, that the population of states should he considered only in reference to war. When will the time arrive, in which nations will consult, not how they may annoy, but how they may most advantageously interchange the bounties of Nature, and the blessings of Industry!

ART. XII. *A Refutation of the Libel on the Memory of the late King of France*, published by Helen Maria Williams under the Title of Political and Confidential Correspondence of Louis XVI. By A. F. Bertrand de Moleville, Minister of State. Translated from the original Manuscript by R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. pp. 102. 2s. 6d. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1804.

NEITHER the talents which dulness alone can refuse to Miss Williams, nor the protection with which her sex environs her, prevented us from animadverting with severity on the strange and unnatural sentiments advanced by her, in the work to which this pamphlet refers*: but, while we did not shrink from the discharge of our duty, we trust that we did not forget the courtesy which is claimed by the fair. It is true that the revolutionary heroine had given the author before us bitter provocation, and must, on other grounds, have appeared in his eyes a heinous offender; yet still, as a lady was the combatant, we conjectured that something of chivalrous generosity would have been displayed by a *Gentilhomme* of the old school; and that the controversy, though warm, would have displayed, on his part, a quick sense of delicacy, and all the nice shades of good breeding.

Such being our expectations, we have now to state that we have been grievously disappointed; since, instead of a model of elegant reproof, and of refined chastisement, we meet with abuse of the most gross and vulgar kind, more suitable to the meridian of a certain well-known place in this metropolis, than becoming a man who had breathed the air of the French court. Our mistaken countrywoman might deserve little quarter; yet it may be thought that there were considerations which the *ci-devant* minister owed to himself, and which ought to have secured her

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* See Review for March last, p. 225.

from

from such harsh treatment. He gallantly thanks the lady for her abuse of him: but his acknowlegements might have been omitted, since he has more than repaid her in quantity, and in kind. Indeed the scurrility, into which he descends, ill agrees with the contempt which he professes to entertain for his fair opponent, and indicates that in this vaunt there is more of bravado than of truth. The minister of state deigns to ransack all her numerous volumes on the French Revolution, and to cull from them the most unwarrantable passages. Few writers could submit unhurt to this ordeal, applied to works sent into the world at very different periods, and relating to an event which has assumed such divers aspects, and which has exhibited, in successive changes, such varying features. We are aware that this apology does not afford a sufficient shelter for the lady, and we do not profess to exculpate her: we solely animadvert on the sort of treatment which she has experienced in the present instance.—As the greater part of this tract is personal, we have been imperceptibly led to descant thus long on personality: but we shall now advert to its more material contents.

The author conjectures, with great probability, that the letters to the King of Prussia, and to the Baron de Breteuil, were furnished to Miss Williams by the latter; and we are told that the poor old Baron is so much hurt at the use which has been made of them, that he has fretted himself into a fit of illness. The letter to the King of Prussia is that on which Miss W. principally relied, in order to establish the insincerity of Louis XVI. to the extent for which she contended. The effect of this document entirely depends on its date; that which it bears in the published work is 3d December 1791: but M. Bertrand maintains that this is not the true date, and that the original one was 1790. The reasons which he adduces in favour of this proposition appear to us very strong; and this point being established, he alleges that there is nothing in the letter which invalidates his assertion that the king remained unchangeably faithful to his engagements, after his second acceptance of the constitution. By this expression, however, he can mean only a naked literal conformity to them; not an *ex-animo* acceptance of that instrument, and a *bonâ fide* observance of it. The memoirs of this writer himself, as Miss Williams observes, in every page contradict a different supposition; while the very appointment of the author to the ministry of the marine, and the confidence with which he tells us he was honoured, incontestibly prove this to have been the extent of the Monarch's fidelity.

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With regard to the authenticity of the Royal letters as published by Miss Williams, it will be recollected that, while we declined all elaborate investigation of the matter, professing to leave it to persons more competent, and whose opportunities more favoured a successful examination, we stated the inclination of our minds to be in favour of their genuineness. We are glad to find ourselves sanctioned, with respect to the grounds on which we went, by the authority of this writer; who admits that these letters, though he treats most of them as fabrications, contain the *opinions* and *real sentiments* of Louis XVI. Seven only however, out of the seventy-two, of which number they consist, will he allow to have been the productions of his royal master; and he points out various minute circumstances, and alleges several reasons, which induce him to consider the other sixty-five as spurious. Selecting seven out of the sixty-five, he deduces from their contents strong grounds for questioning their authenticity; and he professes to be able to exhibit similar proofs of the forgery of the rest: but he declines the attempt. We are sorry that he has stopped thus short. Had he pursued this task, he would, in our opinion, have better consulted the respect due to the memory of the murdered Prince, and better served the cause to which he is devoted, than by mis-spending time in collecting together objectionable paragraphs from the now almost forgotten revolutionary works of his fair antagonist.

Miss W. having in one of her letters represented the people of England as approving the proceedings on the 10th of August, we feel obliged to Mr. Bertrand for vindicating the nation from so foul a charge:

'On what ground (asks he) has Miss Williams the assurance thus to implicate her countrymen in her regicide sentiments? What a juncture has she selected to do them such injustice? It was when England was receiving, with a most exalted hospitality, Frenchmen of every class, compelled by their attachment to religion and their King to fly their country; it was when the House of Commons, on a motion made by Mr. Fox and seconded by Mr. Sheridan, (December 20th, 1792,) voted an address to the King, to express to him the indignation and horror of the whole nation on the situation of the King of France, and on the injustice and barbarity of the fate to which he was doomed.'

M. Bertrand observes, with respect to the style of the late king, that

'It was simple and clear, but always careless, and frequently incorrect. I know no letter, no writing of his, and I am not afraid to assert that there is not a single one existing, in which some negligence of style or grammatical error is not to be found; even his Will is not entirely

entirely free from those little blemishes; and they are the more valuable, as, without injuring the beauty of that immortal act, they confirm its authenticity. All those letters therefore, so correctly and elegantly written, which Miss Williams publishes as originals, must be considered as not authentic; they can no more be attributed to Louis XVI. than to Henry IV. His opinions, indeed, and sentiments may be found in them; but those lofty expressions, that style so pure, so academic, were never his language.'

Both M. Bertrand and Miss Williams are too much of partisans to appreciate properly the events of the French Revolution: but their differences, had the former been less personal, might have led to the elucidation of certain important parts of its history.

ART. XIII. *An Answer to Mr. Pitt's Attack upon Earl St. Vincent and the Admiralty*, in his Motion for an inquiry into the State of the Naval Defence of the Country, on the 15th of March 1804. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ebers.

THE late Board of Admiralty, and the noble Earl who presided at it, have found in this writer a spirited and able advocate. He reduces the accusation into these three heads:

'First—"That the Admiralty had not augmented that species of force which was most particularly adapted to the peculiar circumstances of the empire."

'Secondly—"That in several years of the late war, greater exertions than on the present occasion were made, both absolutely and relatively, with respect to the force of the enemy, as well in equipping ships as in raising men."

'Thirdly—"That a sufficient number of contracts, for the building of ships of war, have not been made by the present Board of Admiralty, either for the service of the present moment, or for the future preservation of the British Navy."

Under the first head, he observes that the Rt. Honorable accuser ought to have proved the superior excellence of the gun-boat system, before he ventured to censure any other; and he maintains the total ineligibility of such a plan, as requiring nearly twice the number of men that are wanted according to the present mode. He says that, if it were adopted, one half of our sailors would not be more than sufficient to mask the single port of Boulogne; that one ship of war is a match for almost any number of gun-boats; that, for certain purposes, the late Board held this sort of force to be useful, and had set it on a footing much more respectable than that on which it was under Mr. Pitt's administration; that there is at present in commission a flotilla of this kind, which carries 1311 guns,

1311 guns, and which is manned by 25,570 men, whereas the same sort of force, while Mr. Pitt was at the helm, never exceeded 139 guns; and that 86 out of the 120 gun-boats, which constituted the whole of the flotilla in the time of the same minister, were found to be badly constructed, to be wholly unfit for use, and were condemned by the Navy Board.

To obviate the second of the preceding charges, the writer states that Mr. Pitt's ministry was only able in one whole year, after the last war began, to put in commission 268 ships; while the number brought forwards by the Earl of St. Vincent, in nine months, amounted to 351, besides 1241 armed vessels of different kinds; and that in the latter period the ships of the enemy had diminished from their total amount in the former, in the proportion of six to five, while our force was superior in that of seven to five. He observes that Mr. Pitt and his colleagues entered on war surrounded by the stores which had accumulated during a long period of peace, and that they were not required to create an immense land force, but to attend solely to naval preparations: whereas Lord St. Vincent was called to equip the navy when the nation had scarcely found time to breathe after a war which had exhausted our utmost resources, and was retarded in consequence of the waste and improvident consumption of his predecessors, and of the universal want of order and regulation in every department. Still, says his advocate, his superior experience and activity enabled him in nine months to send out against France alone a naval force three times as great as that with which the country, after nine years of preparation, was furnished in 1801, in order to face the fleets of all the maritime powers, both those of the South and those of the North of Europe. The ships of the line in 1804 are within seventeen, and shortly will be within five, (twelve more being nearly ready,) of their numerical amount in 1801. The whole naval force of the latter year was 650 vessels only, while that of the present amounts to 1,660; a force not only almost three times greater, but containing fewer of those kinds of vessels which are unimportant in the scale of defence. He apologizes to the Right Honourable Gentleman for stating to him the difference in the expenditure in the two respective years. In 1801, 16,429,537*l.* were required for the naval department, to be laid out on no more than 650 vessels; while in 1804, for 1,660 vessels, only 9,951,378*l.* were voted.

Under the third head, the zealous defender of the Noble Earl inveighs against the system prevalent when Mr. Pitt was in power, of constructing two thirds of the navy in merchants' yards; as well as against the idleness and waste of treasure allowed in those of His Majesty. Lord St. Vincent is said to have

have contrived a reformation of these evils, to have added considerably to the number of ships built in the royal yards, and to have increased tenfold the labour produced there by the same number of hands. Mr. Pitt laid it down that, in war, no new ships could be built in the royal dock-yards, because the repairs of the navy would require all the hands there employed; whereas, in consequence of arrangements proposed to be introduced by the Noble Earl, the usual number of hands would be able to add yearly to the naval force of the country thirteen sail of the line, with a proportionate number of frigates; besides performing all the repairs which the service may require, and working only at the rate that is allowed in the merchants' yards. According to the settled prices of the Navy Board for work, the wages for building the whole British Navy, masts and yards included, would not amount to two millions. In the last seven years, a sum has been expended which would have been sufficient to replace the whole navy; and yet in three times seven years, not a fourteenth part of the whole navy has been launched from the King's yards! Is this, then, asks our author, the activity, zeal, and spirit of the Right Hon. Gentleman's friends?—and are these the persons whom he proposes as a model to the board at which Lord St. Vincent presided?

If the facts here stated be correct, and the representations well-founded, it will be impossible for any impartial man to withhold his tribute of gratitude to the late Admiralty Board, for the services which it had rendered, and which it was in a course of rendering to the country; as well as not to regret the fate which it has experienced, since this discussion took place. We profess not, however, to form any judgment on the case, nor to direct that of our readers: merely recording the principal facts and arguments of those who pretend to a greater knowlege of the subject.

Some other tracts on this controversy have appeared, which we hope to consider in our next number.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1804.

EDUCATION.

Art. 14. *Sequel to the Pronouncing Spelling Book:* containing about 2000 Words from Mr. Murray's English Reader, Dr. Enfield's Speaker, and other School Books; with their Signification and Explana-

Explanation from Mr. Walker's Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. &c. By Mrs. Wilmshurst. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Conder, &c.

Great care and attention appear to have been employed by Mrs. W. in this selection for the use of her pupils. Her labours in the service of youth have been already noticed by us in the course of the present year; and we are happy in having a new opportunity of recommending to public patronage the exertions of a deserving and experienced instructress.

Art. 15. *Abrégé de l'Histoire Universelle, pour la Direction des jeunes gens, &c. Par feu* M. Vernet, *Professeur à Genève.* Small 12mo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

This very concise abridgement of Universal History has much merit, and deserves the pains taken by the editor to republish it in England. It divides history into fifteen periods; of which, seven are allotted to Antient History, five to the middle ages, and three to modern.—The author had an extensive acquaintance with historical records, and a perspicuous mode of arranging the principal points.—At the 29th page, an error has crept in, and the period of Constantine is made 132, whereas it ought to have been 312 of the Christian Æra.

Art. 16. *English Parsing, comprising the Rules of Syntax,* exemplified by appropriate Lessons under each Rule, &c. &c. By James Giles, Master of the Free School, Gravesend. 12mo. 2s. Robinsons.

These rules may perhaps be found of service by those parents, who, as the author supposes is often the case, undertake to instruct their children without a competent knowlege of English Grammar. Where this defect, however, is not the misfortune of the teacher, we should conceive that oral instruction would supersede the necessity of these lessons.

Art. 17. *An Easy Introduction to M. Wailly's French Grammar.* In two separate Books. By Blanch Mercy. 12mo. 2s. each, bound. C. and R. Baldwin.

One of these little volumes is intended for the use of the instructress, the other for the exercise of the female pupil.—The exercises appear to be drawn up with care, and the directions to the teacher are very full and minute.

Art. 18. *Skeleton of the Latin Accidence.* By J. Carey. Pasted on folding Boards. 2s. Longman and Co.

This *wooden* expedient will happily obviate one charge against the pupil,—that of *tearing* and *dogs-earing* his book: but we do not observe any other material advantage likely to accrue. The tenses are not kept sufficiently distinct on these boards; and the eye of the learner, we should apprehend, would be confused.

Art. 19. *The Young Englishman's Manual:* containing, Part 1. a Geographical and Topographical Description of England. Part 2. a general View of the Constitution, Revenue, Ecclesiastical, Civil, and Military Establishments of England. By B. Price. 2d Edition, considerably enlarged. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Sael and Co.

This

This is a very useful introduction for young persons to the local knowlege of their own country, as well as to an acquaintance with its primary institutions.—Much information is detailed in a small compass, and we doubt not that the design will meet due encouragement.

NOVELS.

Art 20. *Letters from Mrs. Palmerstone to her Daughter.* By Mrs. Hunter, of Norwich. 12mo. 3 Vols. 15s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

In our remarks on the merits of this lady's talents as a novel-writer, on two former occasions, we principally objected to the multiplicity of characters which were introduced; and in consequence of which the narrative became an intricate labyrinth, calculated to perplex and bewilder the reader in his search after entertainment. We are glad to state that this objection is removed in the present instance, by the adoption of detached narratives for each letter; which enable the writer to pourtray, with just effect, several distinct and instructive scenes of human life, without the embarrassment of leading the same individuals through a lenghthened series of events.—The conduct of this latter kind of narrative requires peculiar talents; and we think that those of Mrs. H. are more happily exerted in depicting multifarious views of the virtues or vices incident to mortals.

The present letters evidently display a habit of observation on men and manners, and no mean degree of discrimination in regard to characters: but it is of more importance to add that they exhibit, in the person of the author, the Patroness of Virtue; and while they furnish many useful lessons for the young female reader, they will not fail to amuse, and perhaps to instruct, those of maturer years. The allegorical tales are pleasing; and in particular that of the Mother-in-law does honour to the understanding and maternal tenderness of the writer.

Art. 21. *The Cave of Cosenza:* a Romance of the 18th Century; altered from the Italian, by Eliza Nugent Bromley. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Robinsons.

The hero of this tale, Frederic Fitzjames, after many years of conjugal felicity, is suddenly induced by the fascinating arts of a female stranger to forsake his dearest connections, and to surrender himself a captive to the charms and wiles of an abandoned Syren. Conducted to Italy, he begins to discover his error: but, by the villany of Baptista, who is in league with his mistress, he is carried off a prisoner, and let down by ropes into the cavern of a mountain. Here he is monthly supplied with bread and water, till at length he discovers a passage in the cave, which conducts to a den of robbers. With them he afterward is compelled to associate, and becomes a friend and favourite with their captain.—The character of this captain is represented as the most daring and atrocious; vindictive even to the perpetration of murder and the foulest assassination; and yet friendly, benevolent, and anxiously seeking objects of his kindness and protection: such a character cannot exist. A robber may be capable of a sudden act of generosity: but to suppose his general conduct to be influenced by principles so irreconcileable and opposite, is to suppose that "Satan can be divided against himself."

POLITICAL.

Art. 22. *A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord King*, in Defence of the Conduct of the Directors of the Banks of England and Ireland, whom his Lordship (in a Publication intitled, "Thoughts on the Restriction of Payments in Specie," &c. &c.) accuses of Abuse of their Privileges. With Remarks on the Cause of the great Rise of the Exchange between Dublin and London, and the Means of equalizing it. By Henry Boase. 8vo. 2s. Nicol. 1804.

We presume that the Bank Directors are honourable men; and if the Restriction Bill, with the circumstances accompanying it, originally was, and still continues to be, a necessary measure, the inquiries to which this transaction has led might be conducted without implicating the moral character of these gentlemen. It is fair to believe that they acted to the best of their judgment for themselves and for the country: but how far it was politic in the Government to place the Bank of England in such a situation that it was under the necessity of applying to parliament for a bill restricting its cash payments, and what may be the ultimate result of this step, are questions about which monied men and political arithmeticians are at variance. Some think that the increased circulation of paper is a benefit, while others assert their preference of metallic money, and predict evils from the excessive diffusion of tissue currency. Mr. Boase, in volunteering the defence of the Bank Directors, is in course the panegyrist of paper money, singing its praise "above gold, even above fine gold:" but though, in some places, he has suggested hints not unworthy of Lord King's consideration, he, in others, argues not only superficially, but even in the teeth of his own statements. We shall not enter into his justification of the conduct of the Bank Directors, on the ground of their having 'a larger stake in the public-weal than in the capital of the Bank,' but proceed at once to his argument, in which he contends that notes and guineas are of equal value.

Mr. B. says, if a foreign merchant were to come in person to receive a bill for 105l. sterling, and he was paid an hundred guineas in gold, these would avail him no more in the British market than 105l. in Bank notes; *because the law forbids him to melt or export the current coin.* As in another place he confesses that he knows not any law to prevent clipping and melting, when the price of bullion encourages this practice, we apprehend that few persons will give much credit to Mr. B.'s *because*. In pp. 38 and 39, he completely proves that 100 guineas and 105l. Bank notes are not of precisely the same value in the estimation of the Bank of England; since, if they were melted and taken to the bullion office, the Bank would give more than 105l. in notes for the ingot thus made out of the guineas. It may not be amiss to let Mr. Boase speak for himself on this delicate subject:

'No man is obliged to take a Bank note for payment of a Bank note: he may go to the bullion office and purchase gold or silver for it at the market price. The Bank charter does not prescribe the payment of its notes in guineas; and where would be the justice or equity

equity of compelling the Bank to pay its notes in gold at the rate of 3l. 17s. 6d. per ounce, for which it pays 4l. 1s. or upwards? and what right has a man to expect the Bank should furnish him with gold at five or ten per cent. under the market price? at the market price they have never ceased to supply it, and therefore in point of equity, there has been no suspension.'

What can be more evident, from this very view of the subject, than that the nominal value of any sum in Bank notes is not equal to the same amount in gold coin?

Gentlemen may write as much as they please on the advantages of paper circulation: but there is no possibility of keeping its value on a par with coin, by any other means than the old-fashioned principle of notes being convertible into cash at the will of the holder. If notes are beneficial in so far as they increase the quantity of the circulating medium, yet dangers are to be apprehended from their excess. When paper operates in concert with coin, not to its exclusion, there is no necessity for vindicating its use: it then speaks for itself, and wants no puffer. We cannot therefore join with Mr. B. in his congratulations to the Nation on our 'substituting the least in lieu of the most expensive medium of circulation;' for guineas are less perishable than paper, and (as Mr. B. allows) are 'valuable in all changes of political affairs,' which Bank notes may not be.

The author's account of the rise and fall of the Exchange, as owing to the balance of Exchange operations, is plausible: but we cannot say so much of his plea in behalf of Bank notes, which, he contends, must operate to diminish the price of bullion. 'The decreased consumption of bullion, in consequence of the prevailing use of paper-money, had a tendency to diminish the price.' If so, how comes it that gold still is so high in the market? Is not this a singular mode of contemplating the subject? Mr. B. recommends it to the Irish Bank *to deal*, like the Bank of England, *in bullion*, and to be the great emporium of that commodity in Ireland; believing that this practice will serve to correct the exchange between Dublin and London, and be of essential service to that part of the United Kingdom.

Art. 23. *Letters on the Importance of the present War.* By Alan Macleod. Letter I. The Question stated.—Letter II. Strictures on the Constitution resumed—View of the relative Importance of the leading Topic of Discussion, that the War in which we are engaged is both necessary and just. 8vo. 1s. each. Vernor and Hood.

These pages present us with words that burn, language that glows, and eloquence that blazes: but the composition is not polished into elegance, nor adorned with any graces. A panegyric on our constitution less qualified, and a description of its blessings more highly wrought, we have never perused. The contrast between Great Britain and France was never more strongly drawn: the former is all excellence, all perfection; the latter is all misery, deformity, and infamy: its chief the blackest tyrant, his subjects slaves, and his projects detestable.

In his second letter, the author directs his energies against notions which he considers as not less weakening the nerve of patriotism on the present occasion, than as leading to mischief if adopted. Universal suffrage he pronounces to be universal evil, and annual elections to be annual commotions.—According to him, Bonaparte was on the point of seizing the East when the war commenced; and its timely beginning alone saved our distant possessions. He disapproves, however, the style of abuse in which Mr. Windham and others have indulged against the Chief Consul: and he says that we ought to fight with arms, not with venom. Yet much spleen is mingled with these patriotic effusions. Though a late panegyrist of Grotius may have bestowed on his favourite author very exaggerated praise, it by no means follows that the justly-venerated sage merits the harsh reflections which Mr. Macleod throws out against him.

We apprehend that these tributes of public spirit are intended to meet the eye of Mr. Attorney-General. Where his corrections have produced effects so salutary, and inspired sentiments so patriotic, it may be expected that he should interpose to mitigate the rigour of punishment, and to shorten its duration.

Art. 24. *Remarks addressed to the Country, not to Parties.* By a National Observer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1804.

The object of this sensible and dispassionate tract is to impress the public with the importance of having abler ministers at foreign courts; to excite in government a greater activity in repelling the calumnies so incessantly and extensively circulated by France against this country; to invite administration to place more confidence in the people, to make them more a party in public affairs, to confide to them more of its secrets, and to acquaint them with the causes and objects of the grand struggle in which they are engaged. The writer states their claims to this treatment, and pronounces a warm and well-merited panegyric on the patriotism recently displayed by all orders of men. In his opinion, foreign nations are jealous of us, and would regard our fall as a benefit to them, at least as far as commerce is concerned. He advises the reduction of the national debt by a tax of a quarter per cent. on all transfers of stock; and also a war tax of two per cent. on all property, to be paid in half-yearly instalments for two years, and that it be renewed if the public necessities require it. It was, he tells us, the practice of the court of Versailles, and is now that of St. Cloud, to attach one or two persons to every mission at the principal courts, from among whom envoys were afterward chosen; and he recommends it to Great Britain to adopt a similar conduct. He regards the decisions in our courts of admiralty and appeal as too favourable to captors; and he proposes that the prize laws should be revised, and that we should manifest more liberality in our commercial relations:—concluding with observing that our superiority at sea, and our pre-eminence in navigation, trade, and colonial possessions, can best be made palatable to foreign nations by justice, liberality, temper, and forbearance; and that haughty conduct is the forerunner of the fall of nations.

Art.

Art. 25. *Facts and Illustrations relative to the Military Preparations carried on in France*, in the Interval between the Conclusion of the Treaty of Amiens and the Commencement of the present War. From the French of Sir Francis d'Ivernois. 8vo. pp. 66. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1804. [Also an Edition in French.]

This worthy knight certainly shares in many of the qualities which distinguished his renowned predecessor of la Mancha; since he brandishes his spear not less valiantly, is equally apt to mistake chimeras for realities, and combats them with similar resoluteness. Rarely, if we except some of the other performances of our *preux chevalier*, has the old adage, *parturiunt montes*, been so applicable as to the title and contents of the production before us. We differ *toto cælo* from the translator, in whose opinion this pamphlet exhibits a very important part of the question between this country and France, in a clearer light than any other publication or argument that has appeared:—but let us examine these pages, and see into what the *Immenses Préparatifs* resolve themselves? The knight states the gasconades of the First Consul, and of his ministers, respecting the formidable armies which they were setting on foot, and would soon have in readiness; he also makes mention of sums, unusually large, decreed to be expended on the navy: but, at the same time, he takes considerable pains to prove, and clearly deduces it from his profound knowlege of French finances, that these statements were vain and empty boasts, which the funds of the Consul could never permit him to realize. Sir Francis acquiesces in Bonaparte's declaration that he could not, in less than ten years, create a marine force capable of coping with the royal navy of England, and shews that his enumeration of the men in arms in France was grossly false. We own ourselves ignorant of the rules of logic by which these concessions, and this sort of reasoning, which we admit to be just, prove the *Immenses Préparatifs* inscribed on the title page of the present tract, and which roused in us no inconsiderable degree of curiosity. We find in these pages a very pompous enumeration of the grievances which led to the rupture of the peace of Amiens: but the willing advocate of government policy, under all its transformations, forgets that the minister of the day, when most if not all of these obstacles had been made known, gave parliament unequivocal assurances of the great probability that the peace would be lasting; assurances which led cautious British merchants, who did not happen to have better foreign political information than Mr. Addington, to embark their capital in speculations which were universally hazardous, and in many instances ruinous.

Art. 26. *Address to all the Sovereigns of Europe*; in French and in English. 8vo. pp. 34. 1s. 6d. each Edition. Prosper and Co.

This pamphlet enumerates the political delinquencies of Bonaparte, and the dangers arising to sovereigns and states from his ambitious and unprincipled projects: warmly exhorting the old governments of Europe to unite, not merely for their own safety, but for the more active purpose of crushing the common enemy. Perhaps the principal objection to all this advice is its impracticability. The charges

may be well laid, and the punishment may be well proportioned, but how to carry it into effect is a question which is not here solved. The author loses no opportunity of commending the conduct of the English nation, and of pointing to it as an example deserving of imitation.

Art. 27. *A Letter to the Earl of Wycombe*, &c. &c. from Mr. Miles, on the present State of Ireland. 8vo. 3s. Faulder.

We need only look to Ireland for a confirmation of the truth, that *narrow policy* will not place the security of empires on a *broad bottom;* and it is high time for Government to open its eyes to its own errors. While it is vigilant against disaffection, and its offspring rebellion, let it trace these evils to their real source; and consider that there must have been something radically defective in the conduct of administration, when the loyalty of millions is obliterated, and bayonets and gibbets become necessary to public tranquillity. The fact is evident that Ireland can justly complain of grievances; and the statements and arguments of such a manly, liberal, and enlightened writer as Mr. Miles ought, for her sake, as well as for that of the empire at large, to receive the most deliberate consideration of the Cabinet. The confidence of the people of Ireland must be obtained; and to secure it, the Government must do them justice. The principle of loyalty is naturally strong; and when a nation is fairly used, Government obtains an ascendancy over the public mind which requires not to be propped by force, and which is the best preservative against insurrection. Mr. Miles is so fully convinced of the importance of his subject, that he observes:

'The Minister who will have the virtue to point out to the Throne the absolute necessity of investigating the causes of those dangerous discontents, and who will enter into the question with a zeal and fidelity equal to the magnitude of the object, will deserve a statue of gold to be erected to his memory; for, in that case, he will become, not in a figurative, but in the real sense of the word, the Saviour of his Country!'

The measure which Mr. M. recommends is to relieve the Catholics from tythes, and to place them in every respect on a footing with the other subjects of the empire. As he speaks his mind with much clearness and ingenuousness, we shall allow him to explain his own project for the amelioration of Ireland:

'To be explicit, for dissimulation forms no part of my character, Ireland has in fact been under the dominion of an aristocracy not very correct in its public morals, which, availing itself of that influence which never fails to accompany great names and great wealth, and finding no very great check or counterpoise to illegitimate pretensions from the hand that held the balance of power, monopolised, in some degree, the whole government of the country, and often dictated when it should have obeyed. The measure of the Union, so boldly conceived and executed by the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, attacking, as it did, not only the interests of this powerful junto, but the national pride and prejudices of the whole kingdom, would never have been carried, without an assurance that the concession should be recompensed by Catholic emancipation. It is no longer denied, that this

was

was at least one of the conditions of the Union; and, the Union being acceded to, this country is bound in honour to respect the conditions on which it was obtained, and the more so, as its object was to correct a radical evil in the administration of Ireland; an evil which rendered her a kind of mill-stone about the neck of every Minister to whom the King ostensibly confided his affairs. This, I conceive, to have been the motive of Mr. Pitt for depriving Ireland of a legislature, the loss of which is more to be regretted by vanity than justice, because I cannot discover any other that could so well justify a measure evidently harsh; the harshness of which, however, would have been qualified, and perhaps totally done away, if he had been permitted to perform his part of the contract. Why the bond was violently rent, torn asunder, cancelled, and disavowed, the very instant the boon was obtained, is a subject too delicate for discussion at this moment; but it retains a firm hold on my mind, and shall not descend to posterity without comment. Catholic emancipation, or, in words to the full as energetic, and perhaps more appropriate, legislative justice to a vast proportion of the population of Ireland, would, by consolidating the affections of His Majesty's subjects in that country, consolidate the power and dominion of his Throne, the general interests of the United Kingdoms, and render the British Empire invulnerable to foreign force; while, on the other hand the return, or even occasional residence, of gentlemen on their estates would supersede the necessity of having that mischievous description of people called middle men, who extort from laborious industry its utmost farthing. The bishops, as bishoprics are certainly not sinecures, should, for a variety of reasons, be required to reside on their respective dioceses; and, as their vocations imply as much, and indeed enjoin it, a requisition to that effect, on the part of Government, would have nothing in it to wound their feelings, or to hurt their interests.'

If Government would steer a manly and direct course with respect to Ireland, Mr. Miles is confident, and confident with good reason, that the happiest issue would be the consequence.

Art. 28. *An Inquiry into the Depreciation of Irish Bank Paper*, its Effects and Causes, and a Remedy proposed. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

The author of this pamphlet appears to be well acquainted with the subject which he undertakes to discuss. In the first place, he states the fact that Irish Bank paper is depreciated to the amount of 7 or 8 per cent. or thereabouts; he then specifies the effects of this depreciation on the different classes of the people of Ireland; explains the cause of this evil to consist in the ballance of remittances being constantly against Ireland; and observes, in the chapter on remedies to be applied, that 'the only effectual mode of equalizing the exchange between England and Ireland, so long as there is a continual balance of remittances from one country to the other, is by establishing a common medium of currency between the two countries. So long as there is a medium of currency in the one country equal in nominal, but deficient in productive value, to the medium of currency in the other, the exchange must be disadvantageous to the former in the proportion of the productive value.

'But if there be a common medium of currency, exchange never can rise much above par. If gold were the medium, exchange must be regulated by the expence, trouble, and risk of bringing gold from one to the other. If the notes of the same bank were the medium, exchange would be regulated in the same way, the notes of a common bank never could be much dearer in the one place than the other.

'There appear to me then to be but three modes of restoring exchange to its natural level, and of relieving Ireland from the very weighty, grievous, and (to the state unproductive) tax to which Ireland is at present unquestionably subject—

'The issue of specie;

'The establishment of English bank notes, as the medium of currency;

'Or, the introduction of such a number of English bank notes, as shall prevent the depreciation of Irish notes.'

The first and second modes here proposed are regarded as impracticable: but the author strenuously contends for the adoption of the third; and he particularly recommends that 'the interest of the public debt and all other public payments or disbursements should be paid, if required, in Bank of England notes, at the Treasury.'

The remainder of the pamphlet is occupied in obviating objections, and in elucidating the justice and policy of this measure.

MEDICAL.

Art. 29. *An Examination of Dr. Heberden's Observations on the Increase and Decrease of different Diseases, and particularly the Plague.* By Wm. Falconer, M.D. F.R.S. 8vo. pp. 20. Printed at Bath.

In this little essay, the author combats Dr. Hederden's idea, that the principal seat of the plague has at all times been in 'the nastiest parts of dirty, crowded, ill constructed large cities.' Cairo and Constantinople are adduced as examples of this fact: but the author can find no documents which prove that they are particularly dirty, or even so much open to that imputation as many places which have never been visited by this pestilence.—The exhalations at Cairo, from the Canals, when they begin to dry, have been supposed to be a cause of plague: but, if this were the case, the same effect, he thinks, ought to follow in Holland, and in other places, in which the effluvia are more permanent, and more offensive.

'The advantages of cleanliness,' says the author, 'in preventing the spreading of the plague, I am very willing to acquiesce in; but I must confine its merits to the preventing persons being exposed to the infection, as by avoiding the contact of infected clothes; by washing out the infection from them, and from furniture, in a safe and effectual manner; by diluting the poisonous effluvia with fresh air; by preventing its accumulation and concentration; by preventing the infection being collected, and becoming more virulent by confinement in linen, &c. that has been worn a long time, &c.

'These may, and will, I doubt not operate to hinder people from being exposed to the infection; but I much doubt if personal cleanliness will make any one less liable to receive the infection, provided he

he is exposed to it. The Turks are as clean as any set of people whatever; their life is little more than a series of ablutions and purgations, but they die of the plague as soon as any other persons, because they take no precautions to avoid the infection. That the cleanliness of modern times has improved the health of our countrymen, and prevented the spreading of infectious diseases, I am ready to acknowledge; but cannot believe that the plague, and even the sweating sickness, were owing to the dirt and filth of former ages.'

Madrid is an instance of a city which has, till lately, been kept in a most dirty state, yet was never visited by the plague; and though many parts of London and other towns of this kingdom, as well as Ireland, are remarkable for filth, this disease has not appeared in the British islands for more than a century.

Dr. Falconer does not agree with Dr. Heberden in thinking that the plague is only a severe putrid fever, and that the jail fever or dysentery can be changed into plague. There are several symptoms, he observes, which are common to the latter and to typhus fever: but he considers the appearance of buboes and carbuncles to be more peculiarly characteristic of the disease, and to be as necessarily concomitant as the eruption in the small-pox.

Art. 30. *Hints for the Improvement of Trusses*, intended to render their Use less inconvenient, and to prevent the Necessity of an Understrap. With the Description of a Truss of easy Construction and slight Expence, for the Use of the Labouring Poor, to whom this little Tract is chiefly addressed. By James Parkinson. 8vo. 9d. Symonds.

The improvements here suggested cannot well be understood without the assistance of the plate annexed to the pamphlet but they principally consist in the formation of a cheap truss, which may be readily obtained by the poorer orders, and will answer the purpose of keeping up the hernia.

'It is well known, (says the author,) that if a piece of stick, placed between the coils of a piece of rope, fastened at each end to some solid body, be turned round a few times, immediately as the force is removed by which it was turned round, it returns to its former situation with considerable force. Children avail themselves of this power to supply themselves with a little toy, a species of spring gun, which they use for throwing cherry-stones and small pebbles to a moderate distance. A string is fastened for this purpose to the two ends of a bent bone, or piece of cane, and a piece of stick inserted in the middle of the string, is turned round a few times, until by having sufficiently twisted the string, it re-acts with considerable force. If then the end of the stick is drawn out so far that, when urged by the elastic action of the coiled string it shall press against the one side of the cane, it will directly return back to its former situation, on the removal of any pressure by which it had been forced round to the other side, and thus throw any substance placed on it to a certain distance. It is the application of this principle that is here wished to be recommended. This simple instrument, it is proposed, should be sewed on the outside of a belt, formed of girth web, first fitted with straps, or with buttons and button-holes, exactly to the shape of the

belly. The stick may be furnished on the side which is to apply to the belly, with a pad made with leather, filled with folds of flannel, or stuffed with bran. The stick being then brought from underneath, it will there act with a degree of force equal to the tightness with which the cord has been twisted; and, if applied in this state, the protruded part being first reduced, it will in general, be found competent to the retaining of it in its natural position.'

Art. 31. *Observations on the Anti-Phthisical Properties of the Lichen Islandicus; or Iceland Moss:* comprehending explicit Directions for the making and using such Preparations of the Herb and Auxiliaries, which Experience has proved best adapted to the Cure of the different Species of Pulmonary Consumptions of Great Britain. By Richard Reece, &c. 8vo. 1s. Highley.

The principal object of this pamphlet is to recommend the Farina of the Lichen, instead of the Decoction, in those cases in which it may be necessary to employ that remedy. Little advantage, the author thinks, can be obtained from its use, unless two or three ounces are exhibited in the course of twenty-four hours; and as this quantity, given in the usual way, must soon produce disgust in the patient, he prefers the employment of the Farina; which, he says, is exempt from this objection, and 'may be administered, without disgusting the patient, to the extent of three, or even four ounces a day.'

'This preparation is free from the cortical and fibrous parts of the herb. It possesses, in perfection, both the medicinal and dietetic properties; and to form the jelly, does not require that long coction which proves destructive to its bitter quality. It may be exhibited in the quantity of three drachms for a dose, boiled with half an-ounce of chocolate or cocoa in a morning for breakfast. The true Spanish cocoa I have found to answer best; it approaches nearly to the flavour of the chocolate of this country, and being free from sugar, is less liable to disagree with the patient, than the manufactured chocolate which, from the milk, butter, and sugar used in its composition, is generally found more or less acid or rancid.

'This powder may likewise conveniently be made into a kind of pottage, (a form much recommended by Bergius) either in milk, water, or broth, as may appear most suitable to the case of the patient, in the following manner:——To a dessert spoonful of the Farina, add as much cold water as will make it into a soft paste; then pour on by degrees half a pint of boiling water, broth, or warm milk, stirring it briskly the whole time: after boiling for about ten minutes, it will become a smooth thin jelly—A little sugar, currant jelly, liquorice, raisins, cinnamon, butter, wine, or any aromatic may be added, to render it palatable.'

Art. 32. *The Rules of the Medical Institution, for the Sick and Drooping Poor;* with an Explanation of its peculiar Design, and various necessary Instructions. Small 8vo. pp. 145. Printed at Bristol.

The design of this establishment is thus announced by the author of this pamphlet, whom we suppose to be Dr. Beddoes:

'*To check the canker of disease as soon as it fastens on the frame, and to root it out:—the moment any one seems, before his season, inclining to-*

wards the grave, to stretch out a helping hand, raise him upright, and set him firmly upon his footing again; and, as numbers fancy themselves but a trifle out of sorts, though really pining under some deadly disorder, *to undeceive and rescue them—to fill the feeble with strength to discharge the duties of their station—when a weakly childhood marks any one out as likely to be cut off in youth, to give him a fair chance for a long and healthy life—in fine, not only to stop short the fatal course of some maladies, but to render the constitution less accessible to them, and to stir up in fathers and mothers an universal spirit of watchfulness over the condition of their tender offspring.*'

The necessity for such an institution, in addition to the various means of relief which before existed, the author endeavours to evince by some popular and judicious remarks on Consumption, Scrophula, and a few other serious maladies.—How far the benevolent hopes of Dr. Beddoes are likely to be realized, we have at present no opportunity of judging; nor are we informed by what means the very desirable objects which he has in view are to be effected. He promises us, however, a report at the close of the current year, to shew the benefit produced by this institution; and he engages to lay open an account of the cases, with the whole process of treatment employed.

It would appear that this Charity is a popular one, since 3533 invalids applied to it for relief in the course of the last year.—It was first begun at Bristol Hot Wells: but, as the distance was found to be extremely inconvenient, it was afterward removed to Bristol. Our best wishes attend its progress.

Art. 33. *Medical Ethics;* or a Code of Institutes and Precepts, adapted to the professional Conduct of Physicians and Surgeons; 1. In Hospital Practice. 2. In private or general Practice. 3. In relation to Apothecaries. 4. In Cases which may require a Knowledge of Law. To which is added an Appendix, containing a Discourse on Hospital Duties; also Notes and Illustrations. By Thomas Percival, M. D. F.R.S &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 246. 5s. Boards. Johnson.

We admire the feelings with which the present performance was written. At an advanced period of life, the author was induced to employ his thoughts in framing a set of medical precepts, which might tend to preserve or advance the respectability of a profession in which he had long been an ornament, and to make the intercourse between practitioners more advantageous to their patients and more agreeable to themselves. His inclinations on this subject were also strengthened by a wish to impress a son, who is educated for his own profession, with a high sense of its dignity and importance, and to enable him to prosecute his medical career with honour and utility.

The title page sufficiently designates the objects which the work embraces.—In the treatment of its different divisions, the author shews a judicious and ardent regard to the respectability of his profession, an honourable zeal in the cause of humanity, and a dignified attachment to the duties of religion. The conduct which he inculcates, in the different situations of the medical professor, is not, as may be readily imagined, different from that which custom has

has already established; and therefore the liberal-minded physician or surgeon will only find in the institutes and precepts of Dr. Percival, a compendium of that behaviour laid down which their own experience has demonstrated to be most congenial to the nature of their habits and office: but the student or young practitioner will receive a lesson of propriety and decorum, which cannot fail to have a permanently good effect on his future conduct.

The author is fully impressed with the importance of the duties which a medical man is called to perform, and he gives it as his decided opinion that, following the example of the late learned and amiable Dr. Heberden, he should always retire from the engagements of business as soon as he feels any of those faculties impaired, on which depends the proper exercise of his profession. To determine this period is a delicate and difficult task, and one which he admits must, in a great measure, be left to the moral discretion of the individual.

The chapter which treats of the cases requiring a knowlege of law claims attention, both from the information which it communicates, and from the necessity for some degree of attention, on the part of physicians and surgeons, to legal medicine. An appendix contains a judicious discourse on hospital duties, preached by one of the sons of the author, for the benefit of the Infirmary at Liverpool; also numerous notes and illustrations which will be perused with interest and advantage.

POETRY *and the* DRAMA.

Art. 34. *Poesie Liriche di Leucippo Egineo, P. A. Socio della R. A. di Napoli, e di Cortona,* &c. 8vo. pp. 100. 10s. 6d Boards. White. 1804.

These lyrical poems consist of an ode to peace, two sonnets, a rural canzonet, and an ode on the origin and decay of nations; the two odes and the canzonet being accompanied by notes and illustrations, in the present modish style of making up a handsome pocket volume. The author's poetical merit is little elevated above that of an Italian school-boy, before he enters the university. In the ode to peace, we find an unhappy mixture of Christian and Pagan machinery; and the country ditty is greatly inferior to the parallel passages from Baldi and Guarini, quoted in the notes. Let us not forget, however, that Signor Egineo has detailed the *sentimental* process of preparing polenta with the minuteness of an Apicius:

'Or la polenta appresta.
Vediam come la fà.
L' umore bolle già;
La fiamma e' soffia, e desta.
Ecco vi pon del sale
Con man liberale.'

A single dish of this batter (or hasty) pudding provides the muse with exactly thirty more lines, which become very animated as the *plot thickens.*

The

The political verses possess more truth than poetry. The following stanza, however, is worthy of selection:

'De l'ampio mondo abbracciò sola Roma,
Con l'aquila rapace,
Il vasto impero, e sol bramò le stelle.
La Terra festi doma,
Città superba, con desir fallace!
Chi fè soffrire altrui dura catena,
Suffrir la de.—Se tu le traccie belle
Di Numa, di Camillo,
Di Cincinnato la vita serena
Seguite avessi, or non saresti oppressa,
Sì misera, e dimessa!
Libero, in sè tranquillo
Fora, e temuto ancora, il bel paese,
Ch' or soffre gravi offese,
Ed onta, e scorno fra' due mari, e l'Alpi.
Da' due be' lidi salpi
Barbara gente, e tante arpie con essa;
Ch' a l' Italici cori
Virtù ritorna a riparar gl'errori.'

Tasso, Petrarch, Milton, Rollin, &c. contribute largely to the annotations. The author informs us, in a small appendix, that his collection is destined for the young; and this intimation, though rather late, disarms our criticism. Yet really, for the sum of half a guinea, the young are intitled to a more liberal allowance of pretty passages, even from Bulmer's press.—In his enumeration of the *comforts* of the poor, our poet has overlooked one, which strikes us very forcibly; namely, their inability to procure the Poesie Liriche of Signor Leucippo Eginèo.

Art. 35. *Poems from the Arabic and Persian;* with Notes, by the Author of Gebir. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

Though the characteristic features of the Eastern muse are prominent in these effusions, the English Translator does not venture to assert their authenticity. Being himself ignorant of both the Arabic and the Persian languages, he has been indebted to some French versions of these poems, which are said to have arrived in Europe from India; and these translations of translations are left to speak for themselves. As far as oriental imagery, glowing fancy, wild combinations, rapid transitions, and bold personifications, are evidences of originality, there is little reason to doubt that these poems are of Arabic and Persian origin: but if they should be only imitations, their excellence in this view reflects considerable credit on the European imitator. The titles of these poems, which are all short, are —Address to the Vine—To Ilbra—To the Nightingale—Praises of Abu-Said. (These from the Persian.)—The Son of Sheik Daher on leaving Syria after the murder of his Father—Against Jezzar—On the Affliction of his Wife—On the Death of his Wife—Addressed to Rahdi. (These from the Arabic.)

As

As a specimen of the translations from the Persian, we shall give the lines

'TO THE NIGHTINGALE.

'Candid with thy modesty, grateful with thy shyness,
Sweet nightingale, soon may thy passion prosper.
I heard thee repeatedly call the Fairies,
And saw them array with pearls the eye-lashes of Ilbra.
For she pitied thy plaint from the shadiness of our loves.
I said to Ilbra, "*these are my pearls;*"
She smiled, and showered them into my bosom.
The dove was over her, the rainbow on her cheek.
The pearls of Ilbra are now *my* pearls.
Sweet nightingale, may also thy passion prosper.'

Of the versions from the Arabic, we select the poem intitled

'ON THE DEATH OF HIS WIFE.

'Her voice was sweeter than the sound of waters!
Than waters afar from cataracts
Sweeter was the voice of my beloved.

'The storm descends, and the tent flutters,
* The tent so dark by day, so musical by star-light,
The tent where my bosom hath ever found repose.

'† Bed of bright yellow, had I left thee at Damascus,
Thou needst not have adopted cares and disquiet,
Surrounded with dreams of gain and vows of suspended silk.

'Dyed in the gall of serpents, in the wine of unbelievers,
Thou writhest with pain or creakest with restlessness,
‡ More tiresome than birds, more incessant than jackals.

'* The exclusion of day-light, in Arabia, is, in some degree, the exclusion of heat. The old, the wealthy, and the women, are, for the most part, inactive by day, as we may naturally suppose from the intensity of the climate; but they amuse themselves in the evening with songs and music.'

'† "Bed of bright yellow, &c." I am more pleased with this stanza, which will be despised by the generality of readers, perhaps by the generality of critics, than with any other in the poem. Had the bed of *bright yellow* still belonged to the mercantile citizen of Damascus, it would have *witnessed*, if a note may be poetical, vows of silk, to be suspended in the mosch, if his prayers for gain were granted.'

'‡ "More tiresome than birds." It must be observed, that the birds which pass over, and the few which inhabit, the desert, are all of them destitute of song. The borders of the Red Sea abound with water fowl; which, of every description, are unpleasant in their note. The jackals make an incessant cry by night.'

'Fed

'Fed on the milky neck of my beloved,
And dizzy with the fragrance of her flowering lips,
I beheld, and I resembled, the light impassive sky.

'Was it thou, unfortunate? was thine this happiness?
O hug not the remembrance, O beat it from thy bosom,
It may be thy enemy's, it is no longer thine.

'God is great! repine not, O child and mourner of dust!
The Prophet, who could summon the future to his presence,
Could the Prophet himself make the past return?'

It would not have occurred to an European poet to represent the sound of birds as tiresome; and 'the vows of suspended silk' bespeak an Asiatic, or a person who is well acquainted with oriental customs.

Art. 36. *Narrative Poems.* By J. D'Israeli. 4to. pp. 65. Boards. Murray.

If we are not now prepared to compliment Mr. D'Israeli with a repetition of that praise which we have rendered him on former occasions *, this difference will be found to arise, not from any change in the critic, but from a failing in the poet. Though poems be narrative, they should be poetry; and he who, *sectantem levia nervi deficiunt animique*, must have forgotten the distinguishing properties of his art. So palpable are Mr. D'Israeli's deficiencies in this respect, that the notice of them can 'yield us no victory;' and we should be blameable if we subjected our readers to 'a yawn,' by 'a long drawn critique' on such verses as these:

'With constant hearts that never know caprice
The price of pleasure—is the wish to please.'

'Their flushing eyes unspeaking rapture wakes,
Quick into pairs the amorous party breaks.'

'Here bade COMINGE the world for ever close,
Soothing his spirit with the dread repose.'

'Hark! to that solemn sound!—the passing bell
Tolls, the still Friery catch the awful knell.'

'I hail the desert which Religion chose,
Severe, to build the Wanderer's last sad House.'

'Tears dropt his stony eyes, and murmurs stole
From his mute tongue—ah, poor distraction's child!
He held *with her who was*, a converse wild.

We leave these specimens of negligence to speak for themselves. Mr. D'Israeli's muse might truly say *Non sum qualis eram*, though she probably will not feel inclined to make the confession.

Art. 37. *Henry and Almeria;* a Tragedy. In Five Acts. By Andrew Birrell. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

* M. R. Vol. iv. p. 312. Vol. xxix. p. 121. N. S. &c.

When

When Swift shewed some of his first verses to Dryden, the old Bard observed, "Cousin Swift, you will never be a Poet." We must, in like manner, gently hint to Mr. Andrew Birrell, that his talents are not exactly adapted to tragedy. He will have the goodness to consider that a tragedy ought to be written in blank verse, which his play does not contain, since most of his lines have a foot too much, or too little; and that a tragic writer should have some knowlege of geography, which he possesses not; for he sends the son of the Viceroy of Mexico to fight the North-American Indians, whom he supposes to live in Peru, and he brings two of their chieftains, *Ontario* and *Oswega*, prisoners, on the stage, where they talk of killing a black bear, in the woods of Peru!

The writer claims the merit of originality for his North-American Chief, though Gay had already introduced that character in the second part of the Beggar's Opera: but Mr. B.'s management of the circumstances is truly original. Nothing resembles it, but Shakspeare's scene of a shipwreck *on the coast of Bohemia.*

Some originality, too, might be claimed for the catastrophe of the heroine, who breaks her neck: but we have dwelt long enough on the beauties of Mr. Birrell's piece, which we shall now dismiss *in vicum vendentem thus et odores*; that is, to the snuff-shop.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 38. *An Account of Louisiana.* Being an Abstract of Documents delivered in or transmitted to Mr. Jefferson, President of the United States of America; and by him laid before Congress, and published by their Order. Printed at Washington, at Philadelphia, &c. London, reprinted for Hatchard. 8vo. 1s. 6d.

The plan of this publication is 'to consolidate [in a narrow compass] the information respecting the present state of Louisiana, furnished to the Executive by several Individuals among the best informed upon that subject.' The heads of information are, Boundaries; Divisions of the Province; Short, General, and Particular Descriptions of the Country; Inhabitants, their Origin and Number, Militia, and Fortifications; Indian Nations; Lands and Titles; Cultivation of Sugar; Laws; the Church; Officers of Government; Taxes; Expences and Debt; Imports, Exports, Manufactures, and Shipping employed; and a Census taken in the year 1785, with a Statement of the Population, including the Births, Marriages, Deaths, Stock and Productions of the Year 1799.

Of this aggregate of information, (which is comprised in 43 octavo pages) we shall here only transcribe the remarks concerning the Boundaries and Cession.

'No general map of the Province of Louisiana, sufficiently correct to be depended upon, has been published, nor has any been yet promised from a private source.'——'The precise boundaries of Louisiana, westwardly of the Mississippi, though very extensive, are at present involved in some obscurity. Data are equally wanting to assign with precision its northern extent. From the source of the Mississippi, it is bounded eastwardly by the middle of the channel of that river to the thirty-first degree of latitude: thence,

it is asserted upon very strong grounds, that according to its limits, when formerly possessed by France, it stretches to the east, as far, at least, as the river Perdigo, which runs into the bay of Mexico eastward of the river Mobille.

'It may be consistent with the view of these notes to remark, that Louisiana, including the Mobille settlements, was discovered and peopled by the French, whose monarchs made several grants of its trade, in particular to Mr. Crosat in 1712, and some years afterwards, with his acquiescence, to the well-known company projected by Mr. Law. This company was relinquished in the year 1731. By a secret convention on the 3d November 1762, the French government ceded so much of the province as lies beyond the Mississippi, as well as the island of New Orleans, to Spain; and, by the treaty of peace which followed in 1763, the whole territory of France and Spain eastward of the middle of the Mississippi to the Iberville, thence through the middle of that river, and the Lakes Maurepas and Ponchartrain to the sea, was ceded to Great Britain. Spain having conquered the Floridas from Great Britain during our revolutionary war, they were confirmed to her by the treaty of peace of 1783. By the treaty of St. Ildefonso, of the 1st of October 1800, his Catholic Majesty promises and engages on his part to cede back to the French Republic, sixth months after the full and entire execution of the conditions and stipulations therein contained, relative to the Duke of Parma, "the colony or province of Louisiana, with the same extent that it actually has in the hands of Spain, that it had when France possessed it, and such as it ought to be after the treaties subsequently entered into between Spain and other states." This treaty was confirmed and enforced by that of Madrid, of the 21st March 1801.—From France, it passed to us by the treaty of the 30th of April last, with a reference to the above clause, as descriptive of the limits ceded.'

The contents of this pamphlet are interesting to politicians, but principally to those of America.

Art. 39. *The Flowers of Persian Literature:* containing Extracts from the most celebrated Authors in Prose and Verse, with a Translation into English: being a Companion to Sir William Jones's Persian Grammar. To which is prefixed an Essay on the Language and Literature of Persia. By S. Rousseau, Teacher of the Persian Language. 4to. pp. 222. 18s. Boards. Murray and Co.

This work will supply a want that has been long the subject of complaint. The selections are interesting in their nature, are taken from standard authors, and speak highly in favour of the taste and judgment of the compiler. Our connection with the East, which grows daily more and more extensive, enhances the value of publications like the present; since the surest road to preferment in the civil department in India is said to be an acquaintance with the languages current in the country. The student, who is stimulated by his interest as well as by his own desire to attain a knowlege of the pages of Furdoosee, Hafiz, and Sadee, which this writer so highly and justly extols, will here find the attainment of his object made easy, and his path strewed with the choicest flowers.

Art.

Art. 40. *Kearsley's Traveller's entertaining Guide through Great Britain*; or a Description of the great Roads and principal Cross Roads; marking the Distances of Places to and from London, and from each other, &c. &c. 2d Edit. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Kearsley.

We recommended this work to the traveller on its first appearance, in Rev. Vol. xxvi. N. S. p. 221. It has now received various additions and improvements; and among others, an account of the *great roads of Ireland*, the different *routes to Paris*, a table of the times of high water, &c.

Art. 41. *The Polyanthea*: or a Collection of interesting Fragments in Prose and Verse: consisting of original Anecdotes, Biographical Sketches, Dialogues, Letters, Characters, &c. &c. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s Boards. Budd. 1804.

If this species of composition,—the collection, from different sources, of materials for a *Farrago libelli*—be considered as indicating little genius in regard to authorship, yet it will be admitted, that it is fully as meritorious and amusing a mode of levying a *literary tax* on the public, as that of numerous novel writers and authors of romance. These two volumes present a fund of *light summer reading*, and will become a welcome addition to the furniture of many public libraries, or watering place reading-rooms.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are requested to announce that the *New Vitruvius Britannicus*, mentioned in our last Number, *is* actually in a state of continuation, that two parts of a second volume have been published, that a third is in preparation, and that five will complete the volume.

Delia reminds us that the object of Mr. Strickland's paper in the American Philosophical Transactions, as reported in our Review for April last, p. 343, was not then suggested for the first time, but was introduced in the Memoirs of the same body for the year 1793. Our Correspondent, however, mistakes in supposing that we were not aware of this circumstance, and will find an account of Mr. Williams's paper in our 15th Vol. p. 574, together with some objections to the theory: but, very contrary to our usual custom, we accidentally omitted, in reviewing Mr. S.'s Memoir, to refer to the similar remarks of his predecessor.

The second letter of *Doctrinæ Fautor* is received; and we have to inform the writer that the publications to which he alludes will be noticed as soon as circumstances permit: but we cannot promise uniform attention to *new editions*, even of the restricted class in question, because our duty would thus be too much enlarged.

We have not heard of *Zoega*'s work. Can our 'Constant Reader' give us farther particulars respecting it?

Cantianus is intitled to our thanks. We have availed ourselves of his information, and propose shortly to discharge our debt.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1804.

ART. I. *The Life of George Washington*, Commander in Chief of the American Forces, during the War which established the Independence of his Country, and First President of the United States: compiled under the Inspection of the Honourable Bushrod Washington, from original Papers bequeathed to him by his deceased Relative. To which is prefixed, an Introduction, containing a compendious View of the Colonies planted by the English on the Continent of North America. By John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States, &c. &c. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 403. 1l. 11s. 6d. (8vo. 10s. 6d.) Boards. London, R. Phillips. 1804.

THE curiosity, which is usually excited by new biographical publications, is in general regulated by the interest that has been attached to the individual whose life is recorded: yet, such is the inquisitiveness of the human mind, that much attention is often paid to the details of very trifling actions, and the memoirs of very insignificant persons. Far indeed from meriting such epithets, were the character and the pursuits of GEORGE WASHINGTON; in comparison with whom, few among the human race, at least in modern times, have so conspicuously merited the honors of biography, and so eminently contributed to fill and dignify the page of the historian. If, in this instance, the attention of the public should be adequate to the real interest and importance of the subject, the production before us will be received into the most extensive circulation: but the present volume has created in us some temporary disappointments, and must cause a little suspension of general gratification, since it contains no memoirs of that great man to whom it is professedly devoted, but is wholly occupied by the historical introduction mentioned in the title.

Whether preliminary matter of such extent would not more properly have preceded a history of the United States, than the life of the hero to whom they owe in so eminent a degree their independence, it might have been worth the author's while to have considered: but, whether the details be or be not properly placed, of their importance no doubt

can be entertained. With regard to the manner in which they are presented to us, we may observe that the writer possesses most of the requisites for such an undertaking. He does not appear to be wanting in diligence, fidelity, and judgment; nor does he neglect a comprehensive view of the objects of this part of his work. We could have wished, indeed, that he had sometimes entered more into particulars; and sometimes researches suggested themselves to our minds which are here omitted, and which would have essentially elucidated his relations. We are inclined to think that he did not fully appreciate the importance of the matter of this introductory volume. The pen of history, we conceive, is never more worthily and arduously employed, than when it exhibits the infancy of a great empire, when it holds up to view its first elements, and traces the course by which it rises to wealth, influence, and consideration. Our patience would not have been wearied, if the accounts had been more minute which describe the hardships of the first settlers, and the struggles which they maintained with an inhospitable climate, with a soil which the hand of cultivation had never touched, with the dangers which arose from disease and famine, from the attacks both of savage and of civilized foes. Mr. Marshall seems not to have been aware of the eager curiosity with which the philosophical reader surveys the occupations of the forlorn emigrants, who roved comfortless in those lonely tracks which were to become the seat of manners, arts, and science; and who dismally toiled to earn necessaries in the future abode of comfort, luxury, and refinement.

It is in a degree true, as remarked by the author, that, 'accustomed to look in the page of history for incidents in themselves of great magnitude; to find immense exertions attended with inconsiderable effects, and vast means employed in producing unimportant ends, we are in the habit of bestowing on the recital of military actions, a degree of consideration proportioned to the numbers engaged in them.' It must also be conceded to him that, 'when the struggle has terminated, and the agitations felt during its suspence have subsided, it is difficult to attach to enterprizes in which small numbers have been concerned, that admiration which is often merited by the talents displayed in their execution, or that interest which belongs to the consequences that have arisen from them.' These observations, however, are principally applicable to minds of a grosser kind, and chiefly perhaps to them when poring over the performances of inferior artists. We possess numerous histories which do not owe their effect to this vast apparatus; those of Greece and Rome in their best days, with those of Florence, Swisserland, and even of Geneva, excite far more interest than

the bloody narratives of the wars which followed the death of Louis le Debonnaire, or of Aurungzebe, and evince that the author's propositions require to be very considerably qualified.

The following sketch, drawn with a not less faithful than able hand, shews how well the author has appreciated his hero:

'The long and distressing contest between Great Britain and these States did not abound in those great battles which are so frequent in the wars of Europe. Those who expect a continued succession of victories and defeats; who can only feel engaged in the movements of vast armies, and who believe that a hero must be perpetually in action, will be disappointed in almost every page of the following history. Seldom was the American Chief in a condition to indulge his native courage in those brilliant achievements to which he was stimulated by his own feelings, and a detail of which interests, enraptures, and astonishes the reader. Had he not often checked his natural disposition, had he not tempered his ardour with caution, the war he conducted would probably have been of short duration, and the United States would still have been colonies. At the head of troops, most of whom were perpetually raw, because they were perpetually changing; who were neither well fed, paid, clothed, nor armed; and who were generally inferior, even in numbers, to the enemy; he derives no small title to glory from the consideration that he never despaired of the public safety, that he was able at all times to preserve the appearance of an army, and that, in the most desperate situation of American affairs, he did not, for an instant, cease to be formidable. To estimate rightly his worth, we must contemplate his difficulties. We must examine the means placed in his hands, and the use he made of those means. To preserve an army when conquest was impossible, to avoid defeat and ruin when victory was unattainable, to keep his forces embodied, and suppress the discontents of his soldiers, exasperated by a long course of the most cruel privations, to seize with unerring discrimination the critical moment when vigorous offensive operations might be advantageously carried on, are actions not less valuable in themselves, nor do they require less capacity in the Chief who performs them, than a continued succession of battles. But they spread less splendor over the page which recounts them, and excite weaker emotions in the bosom of the reader.'

We must now, however, turn from the contemplation of this great character, in order to grope our way during a long, dismal, and stormy night, till we behold the day-light which commences with the attainment of social comfort, which grows brighter under the more secure liberty imparted to the colonies by the revolution of 1688, and which shone still more brilliantly when, under the auspices of that distinguished person, independence was added to freedom, and the colonies became states acknowleging no superior.

The author justly observes that Henry VII. did not avail himself of the discovery of North America by Cabot, because he was unwilling to embroil himself with the Pope, who had divided the new world between the crowns of Spain and Portugal; that he also wished to stand on good terms with Ferdinand; and that his mind was averse from speculations of which the expected benefit was not immediate. From this period, no attempts were made to colonize North America, until those which were concerted under Elizabeth, and all of which miscarried. We are not to ascribe the rage for colonization, which prevailed in her time, to any enlarged or philanthropic views, nor to any just foresight of the real advantages which would result from it; since the zeal and exertions of its patrons were called forth by the chimerical hopes of discovering gold mines, and a passage to the Pacific Ocean which would shorten the distance to the enriching markets of the East.

The charters of Elizabeth and James, properly considered, seem to us to throw light on the much agitated question, whether the Stuarts imported arbitrary principles into this kingdom, or found them established by their predecessors. The charter of the queen concedes to the grantees the whole of the executive and legislative power, the judicial supremacy both civil and criminal, and the entire administration of the colony; with the sole provisoes that the laws shall be conformable to those of England, and that the supremacy of the queen shall be acknowleged. James, on the contrary, in the charter which he grants, lodges both the executive and the legislative powers in a council named by him, frames the laws himself, has the power of sanctioning those which may be introduced by the council, and may abrogate them at his pleasure. These two instruments shew the opposite notions entertained by the two sovereigns, and the different systems on which they acted.

The disastrous events of the several expeditions to the new world had damped the spirit of adventure, till it was revived in consequence of a successful voyage of Bartholomew Gonald, and by the favourable accounts of the country brought home by him. The same spirit was also much promoted by the exertions of the learned and intelligent prebendary of Westminster, the indefatigable Richard Hackluyt. A company, consisting of very considerable persons, was formed, the charter already mentioned was granted, and an expedition was fitted out.

' Under this charter and these laws, which manifest, at the same time, a total disregard of all political liberty, and a total ignorance of the real advantages which may be drawn from colonies by a parent state; which vest the higher powers of legislation in persons residing out

out of the country, unchosen by the people, and unaffected by the laws they make, while commerce remains unconfined; the patentees proceeded to execute the arduous, and almost untried task, of peopling a strange, distant, and uncultivated land, covered with woods and marshes, and inhabited only by a few savages, easily irritated; and, when irritated, more fierce than the beasts they hunted.'

This expedition, consisting of a vessel of one hundred tons, and of two barks, having on board 105 persons, set sail from Gravesend on the 19th of December 1606, and landed in James's river on the 13th of May of the next year, near to the spot where James town now stands, 110 years after Cabot had discovered the country, and 22 after Sir Richard Grenville had settled a colony on the Roanoke. This small number of men, occupying a few thousand acres of a dreary waste, dependent on the mother-country for their subsistence, and living in constant dread of the wild natives, formed the settlement of the vast empire now existing, though two centuries have not been completed since its origin. Nothing can be more inauspicious than the early history of this establishment. Dissensions among its members, in subordination, mismanagement of its means, and the hostility of the Indians, threatened to render its existence of short duration. The adventurers landed in May, and before September fifty of them died; and during the winter season, want and unwholesome provisions still farther reduced their number. In the next year (1608), they discovered a yellow earth which they mistook for gold dust, and shipped it along with cedar in two vessels, which bore the first exports from North America to England. In 1609, the company received a new charter, granted to the Noblemen, Gentry, Merchants, Tradesmen, and others incorporated by the name of the Treasurer and Company of Adventurers of the city of London for the first colony of Virginia; and this new Company fitted out nine ships, transporting five hundred emigrants to the colony: of whom, and of the state of the colony at the same period, an American author gives the following account:

'A great part of them consisted of unruly sparks, packed off by their friends, to escape worse destinies at home; and the rest were chiefly made up of poor gentlemen, broken tradesmen, rakes and libertines, footmen and such others, as were much fitter to spoil and ruin a commonwealth, than to help to raise or maintain one. This lewd company, therefore, were led by their seditious captains into many mischiefs and extravagances. They assumed to themselves the power of disposing of the government, and it sometimes devolved on one and sometimes on another. To-day the old commission must rule; to-morrow the new; and next day neither; so that all was anarchy and distraction.'—

'It consisted of about five hundred inhabitants. They were furnished with three ships, seven boats, commodities ready for trade, ten weeks provision in the public stores, six mares and a horse, a large stock of hogs and poultry, with some sheep and goats, utensils for agriculture, nets for fishing, one hundred trained and expert soldiers well acquainted with the Indians, their language and habitations, twenty-four pieces of ordnance and three hundred muskets, with a sufficient quantity of other arms and ammunition.'

In the course of the next year, they were visited by famine, and were brought to extremities exceeded by none which are recorded in history. They were reduced in six months to sixty persons, and would have all perished had not a ship arrived in time to save that number. They then all embarked on board this vessel, intending to return to England, when they met in the river with Lord Delaware, the new governor, accompanied by three ships, and a supply of new settlers and provisions; who prevailed on them to return, and again re-settled them at James town. The first lottery known in England was established in order to defray the expences of this colony; and when it was censured in Parliament at a later period, it was said "to have supplied the food that nourished Virginia." A few years later, we find the colonists receiving the agreeable supply of one hundred and fifty young women, pure and incorrupt, each of whom was to be purchased at the price of a hundred pounds of tobacco. About the same epoch, the colonists were allowed to elect a General Assembly; and there being no counties, they chose by boroughs, whence the representatives were called burgesses, a name which they retained till the late revolution. The king, about the same time, confirmed to them the exclusive privilege of supplying England with tobacco, and ordered the first convicts, to the amount of a hundred, to be transported to this settlement. They began at this period also to purchase negroes. Subsequently to these events, the colony made rapid advances, and extended its settlements as far as the Potowmac: but this prosperity met with a very fatal check in consequence of a massacre perpetrated by the Indians, and of the war which arose out of that horrid conspiracy. At the end of this contest, the colony, which had cost 150,000l. and to which above 9000 persons had emigrated, did not export more than to the amount of 20,000l. annually, while its population did not exceed 800.

The colony, towards the end of James's reign, shewed a laudable jealousy with regard to its rights; but this watchfulness did not prevent the seizure of its charter by that monarch, and the formation of a government without a general assembly, which continued till near the breaking out of the civil wars in England

England, when the colony was restored to its antient privileges. So grateful were the people for this favour, that they remained inflexibly faithful to the king, and adhered to the exiled family, till constrained by force to submit to the existing order of things. An insurrection established the authority of Charles II. in the colony, before the Restoration took place in England. The facility with which land was acquired, and the hardships to which the zealous Cavaliers were exposed in the northern country, highly favoured the advancement of Virginia; so that its population, which in 1640 amounted to no more than 3000, was raised to ten times that number in 1660.

When the settlement was first formed, Powhatan was the most powerful chief in its neighbourhood; and his daughter, the amiable Pocahontas, having first by her intercession with her father saved the life of a British hero, and next given her hand to a respectable English colonist, became the instrument of conciliating him with the colony. It is rather surprizing that the Transatlantic muse has never celebrated this Rowena of the American woods. When Powhatan died, and Pocahontas also was no more, Opechancanaugh, who had succeeded the former, gave way to the dark insidious policy which his fears dictated; and he planned that massacre which, in one hour, (some say almost in one minute,) proved fatal to 370 of the English. The horrible scheme would have completely succeeded, had not one friendly Indian betrayed the dread secret to his benefactors; by which circumstance, time was allowed to warn the people of James town and those of the nearest settlements. The secresy, dissimulation, and deliberate coolness which accompanied this work of destruction, fall short of nothing which we read in history, and furnish an instructive lesson to the dupes on whom the sophistries in favour of natural society have imposed. It is presumed that the advocates of that state will not seek for examples to corroborate their system, among the North American Indians.

In the account of the very formation of this colony, and in the course of its earliest stages, we meet with one of those characters in the person of Captain Smith which claim the notice of history, and on whose merits it loves to dwell. Possessed of those qualities which, while they adapt a man for command, often subject him to the tax so frequently paid by superior merit, in consequence of the envy and vile intrigues of inferior minds; we behold him at one time burthened with the latter, and at another exercising the former; he is imprisoned before he lands, he demands a trial, and is honourably acquitted; but he is refused his place in council, till the

distress and danger to which the colonists are reduced oblige them to be just.

'He (we are told) preserved his health unimpaired, his spirits unbroken, and his judgment unclouded amidst the general misery and dejection. In him, by common consent, all actual authority was placed; and he, by his own example, soon gave energy and efficiency to others, in the execution of his commands.

'He immediately erected at James town such rude fortifications as were necessary to resist the sudden attacks of the savages; and with great labour, in which he always took the lead himself, completed the construction of such dwellings, as, by sheltering the people from the weather, contributed to restore and preserve their health, while his own accommodation gave place to that of all others. In the season of gathering corn, which with the Indians is the season of plenty, putting himself at the head of small parties, he penetrated into the country, and by presents and caresses to those who were well disposed, and attacking with open force and defeating those who were hostile, he obtained for his countrymen the most abundant supplies.'

This distinguished man proved not only in several instances the saviour of the colony, but was indefatigable in his attempts to explore the country that surrounded the district which it occupied.

'He had advanced as far as the river Susquehanah, and visited all the countries on both shores of the bay. He entered most of the large creeks, and sailed up many of the great rivers to their falls. He made accurate observations on the extensive territories through which he passed, and on the various tribes inhabiting them, with whom he alternately fought, negociated, and traded. In the various situations in which he found himself, he always displayed judgment, courage, and that presence of mind which is so essential to the character of a commander; and he never failed finally to inspire the savages he encountered, with the most exalted opinion of himself and his nation. When we consider that he sailed above three thousand miles in an open boat; when we contemplate the dangers and the hardships he encountered, and the fortitude, courage and patience with which he met them; when we reflect on the useful and important additions which he made to the stock of knowledge respecting America, then possessed by his countrymen; we shall not hesitate to say that few voyages of discovery, undertaken at any time, reflect more honour on those engaged in them, than this does on Captain Smith. "So full and exact," says Mr. Robinson, "are his accounts of that large portion of the American continent comprehended in the two provinces of Virginia and Maryland, that after the progress of information and research for a century and a half, his map exhibits no inaccurate view of both countries, and is the original, on which all subsequent delineations and descriptions have been formed."

In the list of the governors of this parent settlement, we at times find some who display all the odious vices of a Tiberius and a Domitian, while at others we are relieved by the contemplation of those who exhibit virtues which remind us of a Trajan and of the

the Antonines: of the former description are an Argal and a Harvey, while a Smith and a Berkeley belong to the latter.

This history furnishes a practical comment on a doctrine which has often been eloquently promulgated, and which mischievous tenet a writer of our own times has inculcated with much ill-employed zeal, and with all the seriousness of a sincere convert *. Referring to the year 1613, the author observes:

'Heretofore no separate property in lands had been acquired, and no individual laboured for himself. The lands had been held in common, cleared in common, cultivated in common, and their produce carried into a common granary, from which it was distributed to all. This system, which might in some degree be justified by the peculiarities of their situation, was chiefly occasioned by the unwise injunction contained in the royal instructions, which directed the colonists for five years, to trade together in one common stock. Its effect was such as ought to have been foreseen. Industry itself, deprived of its due reward, exclusive property in the produce of its toil, felt no sufficient stimulus to exertion; and each individual, believing that his efforts could add but little to the general fund, and that he must be fed, although idle, sought to withdraw himself as much as possible from the labours assigned him. It was computed that less work was accomplished in a week, than might have been performed in a day, had each individual laboured on his own account. To remove this cause of perpetual scarcity, Sir Thomas Dale divided a considerable portion of the land into lots of three acres, and granted one of these to each individual, in full property. Although they were still required to devote a large portion of their labour to the public, yet a sudden change was made in the appearance and habits of the colony. Industry, having from this moment the certain prospect of recompence, advanced with rapid strides, and the colonists were no longer in fear of wanting bread, either for themselves, or for the emigrants who came annually from England.'

Mr. M. farther informs us that the superior animation of private industry induced the government, two years afterward, to abandon altogether the system of obliging the people to work in common to fill the public stores. The same policy, even in the settlements, where political and religious enthusiasm were carried to the highest pitch, was attended with the same effects, and led to a similar result, namely a very early abandonment.—A few years since, schemes like these, which had been tried and had failed two centuries ago, were very much discussed in this country, and associations were proposed for the institution of colonies in order to realize them.

The state of Virginia is most worthy of the reader's notice, as being the first permanent British colony in America; and as being almost the sole one, in the formation of which religion

* Mr. Godwin.

had

had no concern. That which theological zeal accomplished for the others, the monopoly of tobacco, the importation of negroes, and the persecution of the cavaliers in the interregnum, effected for this province. It derived, however, considerable indirect benefits from religious enthusiasm; which principle, by surrounding it with colonies, very much assisted its advances towards prosperity.—It is not a little remarkable that this state, which remained so loyal during the whole of the civil wars, was the foremost to make a common cause with that of Massachussets, in the unhappy disputes which led to the separation of the colonies from the mother-country.

Persecution in the parent state gave rise to many of the settlements in North America; and intolerance converted Englishmen into American refugees. These refugees established their own tenets in the states which they formed, and visited dissenters with usage similar to that which had caused their own emigration; they banished Episcopalians and Antinomians, and hanged Quakers. Thus the New England States were peopled by those who disapproved of the liturgy and discipline of the church of England: Maryland offered an asylum to British catholics; Pennsylvania became a refuge for Quakers; and Rhode Island received the advocates of the covenant of grace whom Massachussets cast out of its bosom. Secular views appear to have given rise to and directed the settlements of Carolina and Georgia, though the peace of the former was much disturbed by attempts to establish in it a particular kind of worship.

The reader of history, who delights to trace events to their remote causes, will particularly notice the confederacy instituted by the New England States during the troubles in this country; and he will find it nearly an exact model of that which was formed at the commencement of the quarrel which separated them from Great Britain. The union continued till the charters were abolished by James II.—Not less worthy of attentive consideration are the resolutions of the people of Massachussets, on learning that Charles II. was restored, and before they proclaimed him.

'It was resolved that the patent (under God) is the first and main foundation of the civil policy of the colony.

'That the governor and company are, by the patent, a body politic, invested with the powers to make freemen.

'That the freemen have authority to choose annually a governor, deputy governor, assistants, representatives, and all other officers.

'That the government thus constituted hath full power, both legislative and executive, for the government of all the people, whether inhabitants or strangers, without appeals; save only in the case of laws repugnant to those of England.

'That

'That the government is privileged by all means, even by force of arms, to defend itself both by land and sea, against all who should attempt injury to the plantation, or its inhabitants; and that in their opinion, any imposition prejudicial to the country, contrary to any just law of theirs (not repugnant to the laws of England), would be an infringement of their rights.'

The king confirmed their charter, but it was taken from them in the latter end of his reign; and William refused to renew it as it stood before, reserving to himself the appointment of the governor, of the deputy governor, and of the other officers of the colony. The genius of this state is also singularly displayed in its obstinate and successful resistance to the demand of allowing the governor a fixed salary, in the room of an annual grant; and the English administration, after repeated attempts to carry this point, thought it proper at last to desist from their proposal. The reader, who carefully perules the volume before us, will not wonder that Mr. Burke founded his opposition to the American war on its ill policy,—on reasons deduced from the particular genius of the colonists, from their habits and practices, from their several polities, and from the spirit and temper of the several communities which the questions then in agitation affected. It was like a statesman to take this ground; and historical information and ingenuousness were alone needed to insure a good reception to his conclusions. We do not mean to assert that the higher positions assumed by others were not valid, but they were more disputable, and the inferences drawn from them weighed less with practical politicians.

Mr. Marshall places in a very clear light the grounds of the contest between Great Britain and France with respect to America, which broke out in the latter country as early as 1755, and which soon afterward extended itself to all the dominions of those two countries.

'The French colony of Louisiana (we are told) began to flourish about 1731, and to extend itself by detached settlements up the Mississippi and its waters, towards the great lakes. As it progressed towards the north, the vast and interesting plan was formed of connecting it with Canada by a chain of forts.

'The fine climate and fertile country of Upper Louisiana, its capacity to produce and maintain an immense population, rendered it an object which promised complete gratification to the views of France; while the extent given to it by that nation excited the most serious alarm among the colonies of Britain.

'The English had originally taken possession of the sea coast, but the charters granted by the crown to the first adventurers extended from the Atlantic to the Southern Ocean. Their settlements had regularly encreased westward; and it had been supposed that their

their title to the country in that direction could only be controverted by the Indians. The settlements of the French, stretching from north to south, necessarily interfered with those of the English, extending from east to west. Their plan, if executed, would completely have environed the English. Canada and Louisiana united would, as has been very aptly said, have formed a bow, of which the English colonies would have constituted the string.

'While Great Britain claimed an indefinite extent to the west, in consequence of her possession of the sea coast, and as appertaining thereto, France insisted on confining her to the eastern side of the Apalachian, or Alleghany mountains, and claimed the whole country, whose waters run into the Mississippi, in virtue of her right, as the first discoverer of that river. The delightful region between the summit of those mountains and the Mississippi was the object for which those two powerful nations contended; and it soon became apparent that the sword alone could decide the contest.

'The white population of the English colonies was supposed to amount to upwards of one million of souls, while that of the French was not computed to exceed fifty-two thousand.

'This disparity of numbers did not intimidate the governor of New France, under which title were included both Canada and Louisiana; nor deter him from proceeding in the execution of a plan he had embraced with ardour. Advantages were possessed by the French, which, he persuaded himself, would counterbalance the superior numbers of the English. The whole power of France in America was united under one governor, who could give it such direction as his judgment should dictate. The genius of the people and of the government was military, and they could very readily be called out when their service in the field should be required. Great reliance too was placed on the Indians. The savages, with the exception of the Six Nations, were generally attached to them: they were well trained to war, and the efficiency of their aid had been already experienced. To these advantages was added a perfect knowledge of the country which was to become the theatre of action.

'The British colonies, on the other hand, were divided into distinct governments, unaccustomed, except those of New England, to act in concert; were jealous of the powers of the crown; and were spread over a very large extent of territory, the soil of which, in all the middle colonies, was cultivated by men whose peace had been of late years seldom disturbed, and who were consequently almost entirely unused to arms.

'The governors of Canada, who were generally military men, had, for several preceding years, judiciously selected and fortified such situations as would give their nation most influence with the Indians, and best facilitate incursions into the northern provinces. The command of Lake Champlain had been acquired by erecting a strong fort at Crown point; and a connected chain of posts was maintained from Quebec up the St. Lawrence and along the great lakes. It was now intended to unite these posts with the Mississippi, by taking positions which should enable them to circumscribe, and at the same time to annoy, the frontier settlements of the English.'

The

The formation of the Ohio company, which consisted of persons of great influence both in England and Virginia, and the grant made to them of a part of the land in dispute, accelerated the issue which both nations were resolved to try. Of these matters, however, and indeed of all the latter part of this volume, we enter into no detailed notice, because the statements do not differ materially from those which are given in other histories, and are principally derived from well-known sources.

We shall attend with sollicitude to the progress of this work. The second volume, it is said, will shortly appear, and the third will be published before the commencement of winter. The present is decorated by a portrait of Gen. Washington, and two maps, one representing the northern and the other delineating the Southern Provinces of the United States.

ART. II. *Mr.* Repton's *Observations on the Theory and Practice of Landscape Gardening.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 240.]

IN continuing our observations on this work, we may remark that Mr. Repton has not merely evinced the difficulties which occur in the art of landscape gardening, but acknowleges that, in the practice of it, he occasionally meets with obstacles which baffle his utmost efforts for combining the different objects according to his wishes. He feels more confident, however, in his claim to the character of an architect; and his disquisition on this subject commences by drawing a line of distinction between ornament and decoration; including under the former term every enrichment that has the 'semblance of utility;' such as columns, pilasters, entablatures, pediments, domes, &c. &c. He directs that a column should never be *usefully* applied at a door-way: but that, for the sake of ornament, it may be elevated to the whole height of the building, in the nature of an *appliqué!!!* Thus will those, who are ignorant of the real uses of the essential parts of architecture, ever pervert them to objects of mere ornament! We had long been puzzled to attain the precise meaning of ornamental architecture, a term not uncommon in the mouths of some people, though not readily explained by them. We now find that it is the *semblance* of something, without being any thing: in short 'an auxiliary to landscape gardening!'—In his observations on landscape gardening, however, we could follow Mr. R. with satisfaction; because he enforces, with much sense, the necessary attention to the fitness of things, and urges that each should be found in its due order and place.—It is surely a strange assertion 'that every species of enrichment or decoration ought to be costly either in its materials, or in its workmanship.'

It

It would be almost endless to follow Mr. R. through all the branches which he undertakes. In a note, p. 165, he informs the world that he gives designs to the upholsterer for furniture; to the goldsmith for plate; to the statuary for monuments; and, to crown all, here is a proposition for gilding the outside of the dome of St. Paul's! So that we find that from the sofa to the sideboard, from the tomb to the temple, nothing is beyond the reach of those who forget or who know not that, in the infancy of art, whatever could not be performed by skill was left to be effected by costly materials.

Mr. Repton is not the only man of genius who has fancied himself superior in a line with the difficulties of which he is less acquainted, than with those of that department in which his talents have been matured by a long course of study; and indeed it is one among the number of human frailties, to imagine ourselves most competent where we know the least. We are induced to take the more notice of the auhtor's tenets and arguments on the subject of architecture, because the celebrity which he has obtained in his own peculiar profession might, without carefully adverting to the distinction, procure a like admission of respect for his opinion on other topics. Indeed, nothing that comes from the pen of a man of reputation, purporting to be a branch of his art, should pass unnoticed; for "the name of Cassius sanctions the corruption."

In applying our remarks, we shall endeavour to refrain, according to our usual practice, from entering into any strictures on Mr. R.'s productions in the way of art; confining our observations to general opinions advanced, and given to the world as implied principles.

We had ever considered that the *excellence* of architecture consisted in the union of all that is essential both for convenience and construction: that the *beauty* of architecture resulted from disposing the parts in good forms; and that the latter must be almost unavoidably the effect, when the former requisites were attained. Ornaments, whether accessary to architecture, or constituting isolated subjects, should be confided to a distinct class of artists, whose labours are either imitative, or soar to ideal representations. The province of the architect, on the contrary, is to produce,—to create a reality suited to its destined office. Unite the two characters in one person, and his production becomes an heterogeneous mass. If his disposition tends to delight in ornament, then convenience and strength, in short the fitness of things, are all subservient to the predominant inclination; and a bauble is obtained—an object of fancy, pleasing to-day, but despised to-morrow,—instead of that scientific composition which reason demands.

The

The Greeks, in their best times, when the finest works were produced, seem to have been very attentive to this distinction; since we constantly read that one man was the architect of the building, and that another was employed to ornament it.

In chapter 12, Mr. R. proceeds to state the claim of a landscape gardener to the title of architect, and brings forwards many vouchers of Mr. Brown's Palladian abilities; observing that 'he had not early studied those necessary, but inferior branches of architecture, better known perhaps to the practical carpenter than to Palladio himself.' We cannot think that Mr. Repton is well acquainted with Palladio's history, nor that he is aware that the most celebrated architects have been good practical builders and sound mathematicians: yet it is scarcely possible for them to be the former without being the latter. Where these qualifications do not exist, the efforts of artists meet with perpetual obstacles; and they must have recourse to false expedients to divert the attention: such as *fillagree* ornaments in plaister, coloured to imitate Gothic stone and wood-work where they could not exist, and totally devoid of the proportion and character of those antient constructions. Instead of the chaste display of solid and void, indicative of that strength and economy in a building which are so satisfactory and pleasing to the eye *, protrusions are made, apparently for no other purpose than to carry figures and extraneous decorations. From the same want of understanding the subject, at one time a notion will prevail of not shewing any roof, in a climate which of all others demands the presentation of a satisfactory shelter from the inclemencies of the weather:—while at another time, the overwhelming *Mansard roof* shall be recommended, in the fit of running from one extreme to the other; where roof is piled on roof, and projecting garret lights oppose the free escape of water, bringing together the double *advantage* of wind and wet to these airy apartments.

External apertures for doors and windows are liable to equal misconception from the same cause. The *fancy-builder*, not aware of the advantage of the stone borders denominated architraves, which surrounded the openings in former works of celebrity,—of the opportunity thus afforded for maintaining those parts in correct adjustment with the inclosing mechanism, without marring the general walls,—imagines them to be placed there only for ornament; and, proceeding on ideal conceptions, he thinks, with Mr. Repton, that pediments

* A striking instance in illustration of this remark occurs in the circular colonnade beneath the dome of St. Paul's church, noticed in our Review for July 1803, p. 303.

should

should appear only at the top of an edifice; forgetting the singular advantage which they produce in directing the water from the centre of an aperture, instead of being *cascaded* on the head which may unfortunately be beneath. In addition to the superior benefit and beauty arising from the adoption of these forms, the best authorities are to be found among the works of the Greeks and Romans for this useful application of the pediment: it being a leading principle among them to cast the water to each side of an opening.

Many of the absurdities to which we have alluded must be the consequence of not being fully conversant with the rules of construction; particularly in attempts to imitate the noble edifices of the antients. The essential principles will be overlooked, while the trifling and subordinate parts will be copied and misapplied; no attention being paid to that most useful axiom in architectural works, that every thing is good or bad according to the application:—a principle forcibly illustrated by Mr. Burke in this remarkable passage, "wherever the best taste differs from the worst, I am convinced that the understanding operates, and nothing else."

We shall leave the followers of the several avocations to settle which is the most competent to direct a building; imagining that the professors of architecture will deem it incumbent on themselves to vindicate their department, from the supposition that a practical knowlege is not necessary in their character. It would strike us as very extraordinary, if, in the case of a building being dangerously erected, in which the safety of the public was concerned, three architects of Mr. R.'s qualification were appointed to survey its stability;—three men totally unacquainted with the principles of construction! putting us in mind of the officer who was no soldier, and of the physician who knew nothing of medicine. If such sentiments of the required qualifications, as those which Mr. Repton entertains, are encouraged among students, it is high time for those who intend to build to make some inquiry into the knowlege of the person to whom they confide the undertaking: otherwise, not only their purses but their lives may be in danger. They will not find any security in the pretended competency of the artificer; for he is really and legally acquitted of responsibility when he executes the work according to his directions; which some late decisions have evinced to the employer's cost:—nor can we forget, on this head, that our old classical acquaintance, Vitruvius, has taught us that more knowlege is required in construction than usually falls to the lot of that class of men. As Mr. Repton is fond of quotations in the learned languages, we shall furnish him with one from this Roman author: "*Cum*

" *Cum ergo tanta hæc disciplina sit condecorata, et abundans eruditionibus variis ac pluribus, non puto posse justè repentè se profiteri architectos, nisi qui ab ætate puerili his gradibus disciplinarum scandendo, scientia plurium literarum et artium nutriti, pervenerint ad summum templum architecturæ.*" Vitruvius, c. 1. l. 1.

It is the office of the architect, 1st, to furnish the general designs: 2dly, to supply the drawings of the construction, for executing every part: 3dly, to direct the works, and inspect them as they proceed: 4thly, to measure them, and make out the accounts: for which he receives a regular and established commission. If he charges that commission for doing only the first part of the business, or any portion short of the whole that has been mentioned, a deception is practised on the employer; and it may be useful information to those who are but little acquainted with these particulars, to state that each of these four divisions is esteemed to be worth an equal proportion of the whole commission, when ably and completely performed by a competent person, but *not otherwise.* If the architect has not a knowlege of construction, the building is at the will of the mercenary and ignorant; and the pretended architect must connive at and submit to impositions and blunders, in order that his own incompetency may not be exposed. An artificer of credit will always perform his work at a more reasonable price if the architect understands and arranges it for him: since he can execute it more advantageously by its being previously adjusted, and by having nothing more to do than to get it manufactured and fixed in its place. The loss is thus avoided which is always incurred by each artificer having the disposal of his owh work, which, when brought to be combined with that of another, is found not to correspond; and this inconvenience can only be prevented by a competent director laying out the whole together. The tradesman takes an additional measure and price, to compensate for that loss which the want of proper directions perpetually occasions, when the superintendant is inadequate to the task; and it is fortunate for the proprietor, if a tottering fabric be not the result.

It may answer the purpose of an unscientific adventurer, to reduce the attainments of architects to his own standard, in order to advance his pretensions with the better success: but when a man of genius and talents attempts to inculcate an opinion that varied and deep acquirements are unnecessary, we feel ourselves seriously disposed to exert our endeavours to check such pernicious doctrines.

That branch of the art which regards distribution for the convenience of life, according to Mr. R.'s conception of the subject, we are to suppose is easily obtained 'without much

early practice.' If only that object required attention, the art would undoubtedly be more readily attainable: but the difficulties consist in combining many other requisites which are not noticed by the less informed; and when these considerations do not enter the mind of an artist, he may truly compose with facility, and depict his fancies with the expedition of a "running hand." Where 'suggestions and sketches for improvements' are produced in this way, the employer will act wisely in consulting some person better acquainted with the subject, before he ventures to drain his treasury on such schemes and as Mr. R. himself says (preface, p. 10.) 'the public taste is endangered by the circulation of such crude productions as are curious only from the youth or ignorance of their authors.'

In that department in which a man's reputation is established by long experience and proofs of skill, we may confidently rely on the validity of his propositions. On the subject of position, Mr. R. is evidently within his own pale; and we transcribe some passages relating to this point, which we cannot too strongly recommend to the notice of those who are meditating on the site of a new house, or on altering the parts of an old one.

'There is no circumstance connected with my profession, in which I find more error of judgment, than in selecting the situation for a house; yet it is a subject every one fancies easy to determine. Not only visitors and men of taste fall into this error, but the carpenter, the land-steward, or the nurseryman, feels himself equally competent to pronounce on this subject. No sooner has he discovered a spot commanding an extensive prospect, than he immediately pronounces that spot the true situation for a house; as if the only use of a mansion, like that of a prospect-tower, was to look out of the windows.

'After long experiencing the many inconveniencies to which lofty situations are exposed; after frequently witnessing the repentance and vexation of those who have hastily made choice of such situations, under the flattering circumstances of a clear atmosphere and brilliant sky; after observing how willingly they would exchange prospect for shade and shelter; and after vainly looking forward to the effect of future groves, I am convinced that it is better to decide the situation of a house when the weather is unfavourable to distant prospects, and when the judgment may be able to give its due weight to every circumstance which ought to be considered in so material an object: that the comforts of habitation may not be sacrificed to the fascinating glare of a summer's day.'—

'I would place the *house* with its principal front towards the south or south-east.

'I would build the *offices* behind the house, but, as they occupy much more space, they will of course spread wider than the front.

'I would place the *stables* near the offices.

'I would place the *kitchen garden* near the stables.

'I would

'I would put the *home farm buildings* at rather a greater distance from the house; but these several objects should be so connected by *back roads* as to be easily accessible.

'I would bring the *park* to the very front of the house.

'I would keep the farm, *or land in tillage*, whether for use or for experiment, behind the house.

'I would make the dressed *pleasure ground* to the right and left of the house, in plantations, which would skreen the unsightly appendages, and form the natural division between the park and the farm, with walks communicating to the garden and the farm.'—

'1. The *aspect* of a house requires the first consideration, since no beauty of prospect can compensate for the cold exposure to the north, the glaring blaze of a setting sun, or the frequent boisterous winds and rains from the west and southwest; while in a southern aspect, the sun is too high to be troublesome in summer, and during the winter, it is seldom an unwelcome visitant in the climate of England.

'2, 3. It can hardly be necessary to enumerate the advantages of placing the offices near, and stables at no great distance from the house.

'4. The many interesting circumstances that lead us into a *kitchen garden*, the many inconveniencies which I have witnessed from the removal of old gardens to a distance, and the many instances in which I have been desired to bring them back to their original situations, have led me to conclude that a kitchen garden cannot be too near, if it be not seen from the house.

'So much of the comfort of a country residence depends on the produce of its *home farm*, that even if the proprietor of the mansion should have no pleasure in the fashionable experiments in husbandry, yet a farm, with all its appendages, is indispensable: but when this is considered as an object of *profit*, the gentleman-farmer commonly mistakes his aim; and as an object of *ornament*, I hope the good taste of the country will never confound the character of a park with that of a farm.

'To every dwelling there must belong certain unsightly premises, which can never be properly ornamental; such as yards for coal, wood, linen, &c. and these are more than doubled when the farm house is contiguous; for this reason I am of opinion, that the farming premises should be at a greater distance than the kitchen garden or the stables, which have a more natural connexion with each other.'

In the advertisement to this volume, Mr. R. says, 'It neither supersedes nor *contradicts* my former work.' If he had not made this assertion, we might have taken less notice of some irreconcileable passages in the two, or might have regarded them as the natural effect of seven more years of experience. We must remind him, however, of the authorities adduced in his prior work (Sketches and Hints on Landscape Gardening, p. 45. and 46.) respecting symmetry in a building. Now, so much is Mr. R. an advocate for *patch-work*, that we find him dignifying it as 'magnificent irregularity and splendid intricacy,'

p. 211. and condemning Grecian and every other kind of architecture that requires any degree of uniformity. The subsequent passage exhibits a specimen of his mode of reasoning on the subject:

'When we look back a few centuries, and compare the habits of former times with those of the present, we shall be apt to wonder at the presumption of any person who shall propose to build a house that may suit the next generation. Who, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, would have planned a library, a music-room, a billiard-room, or a conservatory? Yet these are now deemed essential to comfort and magnificence: perhaps, in future ages, new rooms for new purposes will be deemed equally necessary. But to a house of perfect symmetry these can never be added.'

Where does Mr. Repton begin his so much extolled irregularity? for a beginning it must have. Is it a small slip; or is it a corner of the building, taking in several windows each way? and by what rule does he determine the quantity of this regular beginning of his irregular design?

With regard to the inefficacy of forming the dwelling to the character of the grounds and plantations, we request Mr. R. to recollect the unsuccessful attempts in his former publication respecting particular kinds of trees as adapted to harmonize with the house. Commendable pains have been taken to investigate the beauties of nature in land scenes: but contracted minds have thus been led to confound them with objects of a distinct kind, in not discriminating between the operations of nature and the productions of art; and in consequence of this inattention, they have lost sight of the great beauty resulting from variety and contrast, which arises from each maintaining its proper character. The importance of an edifice is lost in assimilating its forms with those of the productions of another kind; and the whole is thus involved in one confused mass. When the subject of a dwelling has been admitted into these essays on landscape gardening, we find it almost invariably adapted to the introduction of some imaginary picturesque building, conveying very little idea of any useful application of it. The purpose of a house is of the first consideration, which should not be sacrificed to any ideal fancies; and whatever does not bespeak this design cannot be right, but is an affectation of taste which offends as soon as the falsity is discovered. Nothing has been more productive of absurdities, than some late ideas of constructing the exterior of the building in conformity, as it has been thought, with the nature of the place; as, in the instance of a building near the termination of a valley somewhat like a dell, it has been judged necessary, for picturesque beauty, to erect for a dwelling a round tower with battlement roofs, an open porch, and

and an *outside cloister*. Here the internal conveniences are completely sacrificed to external appearances; which, besides their incongruity, produce an absurdity in a tower with a top which is open to be pelted from the almost contiguous hills. This must ever be the result where an imitation, instead of the intended application of the building, is the object in view.—We cannot view the remains of antient magnificent edifices, without associating some idea of the purpose for which they were erected; and we are thus led to a train of thought which pleasingly employs the mind in tracing the habits and customs of our venerated ancestors. All this pleasure, however, is annihilated when a building does not accord with the manners and customs of the time of its construction. It soon becomes an object of ridicule on account of the great waste of expence and labour, and is strongly characterized by the vulgar epithet of such-an-one's Folly.

The forms of buildings for use cannot be assimilated with those of wild nature, to produce the same picturesque appearance; since there is a wide distance between the unbounded maze of nature's productions, and the confined operations of art. The beauty resulting from each depends on their different conformations. Many of the bold features of nature are occasioned by convulsive eruptions; and the sublime masses, which ponderously overhang their bases, cannot be imitated, because we are not able to produce the necessary, and to us inexplicable, force of adhesion. These effects, as if intended for only a temporary exhibition, are continually wearing down, seeking one general level. The pyramidal shapes, so produced, with their extensive bases, are but ill suited for the imitation of man in the short period of his existence; since they require the employment of so much labour, in the accumulation of a great pile of materials disproportionate to the contracted space afforded within. The vegetable kingdom also displays an endless variety in its pendant forms, which cannot be imitated without a like provision of fibrous continuations. The corporeal powers of man being thus limited, his intellectual faculties are called into action; and raising the edifice on principles deduced from the laws of statics *, he is enabled to obtain the proposed convenience without an extravagant waste of labour and materials. The character and beauty attached to buildings depend

* For the benefit of those who discuss the subject of architectural construction without having duly studied it, statics, or the laws of the equilibrium of matter when at rest, may be described to be a knowlege of those circumstances by which the parts of a building will remain in their place.

on the arrangement of the materials, on the forms produced for the purpose of giving due strength, and on their being placed in economical order. It is of a distinctive kind so long as it can be viewed as a creation of art and as an object of utility. After continued neglect of artificial objects, nature seems to claim them for her own, and clothes them in her mantle; and by giving them her sportive forms, she unfits them for the original destination. The characteristic of a building therefore depends not only on the constructive principles, but also on the attention to its preservation. An old building, part of which has fallen and left an irregular line, low at one end and high like a steeple at the other, may be picturesque and pleasing from its curious and romantic forms, as a ruin; and the interest is increased by the expected fall of some of the remains which surprizingly retain their situation from day to day:—but can the same pleasure be derived from the same source in a building destined to protect all that shall be within it? Can a person repose, and be pleased, because an interest is excited in the expected fall of a mass which may crush him to atoms? Nothing but ignorance of the danger can render him contented in such a situation. The beauty of architecture must be of a different kind to be pleasing; and from it results uniformity and order: that is, parts supporting and ballancing each other, and satisfying the spectator or the occupier by an apparent as well as a real security.

Is it reasonable that a mansion should form part of a wild scene, as if neglected, or consigned to the accommodation of paupers, for whose reception some additions have been charitably made to the building? Is it not more consonant to sound sense, that it should correspond with the wealth of its proprietor, by all the parts appearing to be strictly appropriate to the destined purpose; and by the grounds, as they approach the house, being worked up to a regularity that may add to its consequence, testifying the owner's ability, marking his attention to convenience and order, and exhibiting a due gradation from art to nature?

Chapters 13 and 14 detail some examples, with the author's observations on them.

Chapter 15, which concludes the book, contains some curious remarks on colours and shadows, furnished by Dr. Milner; and which, though not altogether new, may be usefully consulted in painting. The harmonic triangle, there exhibited, has been adopted some years in practice: but a satisfactory account of quantity in colours is still wanting.

Our readers will have perceived that we regard this work as of considerable importance; and however we may differ with

with Mr. Repton on other subjects, that part of it which treats of landscape gardening, and which is the main object of public attention in it, obtains our decided approbation. A great portion is occupied in the display of ingenious contrivances to overcome local defects, which cannot be satisfactorily described without referring to the plates. In the management of landscape scenery and the situation of objects, Mr. R. has been particularly successful; and if he has not established fixed principles on landscape gardening, he has at least furnished materials from which the diligent inquirer may collect ample store, and turn them to good account.

The volume is elegantly printed, and enriched with numerous plates, beautifully coloured, and ingeniously contrived to illustrate, by slides, the original state and proposed improvements of the different places in which the author's abilities have been most fortunately employed.

ART. III. *Observations made at Paris during the Peace;* and Remarks in a Tour from London to Paris through Picardy, and to England by the Route of Normandy; containing a full Description of every Object of Curiosity in the French Metropolis and its Environs; a Critical Review of the Theatres, Actors, &c. and every interesting particular that may serve as a useful Companion to the Stranger, and amuse the Mind of the Curious and Scientific. By Edmund John Eyre, formerly of Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, now of the Theatres-Royal, Bath and Bristol. 8vo. pp. 393. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1803.

ACTUATED by a curiosity which was very general, Mr. Eyre availed himself of the interval of peace to visit the French metropolis, and, like other travellers to the same spot at the same period, has presented the public with the result of his observations. Having, however, been *prevented* (to use the word in its old acceptation) in his undertaking, the journal before us will be found to possess little novelty: yet, as he professes to give 'the most accurate account of his tour into France,' and as a comparison of different statements may be coveted by the attentive reader, this volume may win its way together with its several compeers. Mr. Eyre classes himself among inquisitive travellers: but, as all tourists claim this character, the designation is not sufficiently discriminating. He might have termed himself the *cheap traveller;* for his object seems to have been (and we applaud his good sense in this respect) not to squander away money with idle profusion, but to obtain gratification at a moderate expence; and to shew to his countrymen for how small a sum, with prudent management, the journey to and

from Paris, with a month's residence there, might be accomplished. A common vehicle was his conveyance; the journey in which, with his passport and every expence on the road, cost him from London to Paris, by way of Calais, 12*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.* and the return from Paris to London, by Rouen, Dieppe, and Brighton, 7*l.* 3*s.*; so that the whole *tour* was performed for 17*l.* 7*s.* 10*d.*; and as Mr. Eyre's 'expences at Paris, including board, lodging, washing, coach-hire, and all public and private exhibitions, spectacles, &c. were *four guineas* per week,' for which he had 'every pleasure and comfort that reason and moderation could possibly desire,' and he remained there a whole month, the whole charge of the excursion amounted to no more than 34*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* Unfortunately choosing for this tour the months of July and August, during which the heat at Paris is very intense and oppressive, Mr. Eyre's pleasure and amusement were considerably abated: he agrees, therefore, with other travellers, in cautioning his countrymen, who may hereafter visit this city, to avoid these months; and he offers it as his opinion that three weeks are sufficient for a person to visit and examine every place worthy of notice,—adding that, 'when curiosity is satisfied, Paris has but few comforts for a stranger.'

As this traveller did not quit his native soil with any view of being introduced to Parisian society, but for the sole purpose of seeing the *Paris lions*, the reader will do him the justice to expect from him merely an account of objects of ordinary attraction; and, as he appears to have made the most of his time, few things of this kind have escaped his attention. The stages from Calais to Paris are regularly marked, the fruit of every day's ramble is noted down, and the prices of admission to every theatre and spectacle at Paris are carefully inserted. After Mr. Eyre's profession of reverence for truth, and his marked aversion for the character of the lying traveller, we cannot suspect him of fiction and imaginary adventure; yet the story of 'the poor blind soldier,' belonging to the *Hopital des Invalides*, is very improbable in some of its parts; and, if it were actually related, it must have been for the purpose of exercising the Englishman's credulity.

An objection, however, must certainly lie against this journal, on account of the incorrectness of its composition and typography; of which we have met with more instances than it would be convenient for us to specify. We have *species* for specie; Ionic, Corinthian, Composite and *Attic*, for the enumeration of the orders of architecture; *Ruben* for Rubens; 'in which *was* inserted our names;'—'the people are doomed to grasp at what is beyond their reach and *never can possess*;'—'the

'the audiences of Paris are not prejudiced *either*;'—'why endeavour to *shaken* faith?'—'*Iconoclates*' for Iconoclastes;—'*Dant*' for Dante;—'Leonardo *de* Vinci' for Leonardo da Vinci;—'tormentor of innumerable vexations;' '*Aux Grands Hommes la Patrie connoissante*' for *reconnaissante*;—'the principal arch of Pont Neuilly is formed by a radius of 150 feet;'—'fires *alighted* at certain distances?'—'a plentiful crop of *coal* seed,' &c. &c.

Allowance being made for these defects, the journal may serve the purpose of superficial and economical tourists; since a tolerable list is given of the objects which are most worthy of notice in and about Paris, and no attempt is made at exaggeration. So little, indeed, was the author smitten with Paris as a place of residence, that he plainly tells us that 'there is not the smallest market town in England, but has a decided superiority over the boasted metropolis of France.'

Though we do not consider ourselves required on the present occasion to recite the names of the palaces, churches, museums, theatres, hospitals, prisons, &c. &c. visited by Mr. Eyre, and to make copious extracts, we shall adduce some passages to display his mode of writing and turn of sentiment.

On the naked Statues in the Garden of the Thuilleries, it is remarked that—'the public exhibition of such indecent statues, and the praises lavished on their beauties, have probably prompted modern ladies to strip off the dress of modesty, and appear like senseless statues, to rival the Grecian forms.' English ladies cannot justify the present taste in dress, or rather undress, by the prevalence of statues in English gardens; and we apprehend that the French ladies would tell Mr. Eyre that they require no such apology, and can take a hint from a Grecian artist without 'appearing like *senseless* statues.'

The Boulevards, considered as forming a beautiful girdle to the metropolis of France, 'remind this traveller of the cestus of Venus, in which all kinds of pleasure, delight, and voluptuous gratification were inclosed.'

From a writer connected with the stage, some remarks may be expected on the state of the French theatre, and Mr. E. gives various particulars on this head: but we must content ourselves with a general observation:

'The capital of France alone encloses as many theatres within its walls, as the other seven principal cities of Europe, viz. London, Vienna, Berlin, Petersburgh, Madrid, Naples, and Amsterdam together. A spectacle is the delight of the French nation, the playhouses are nightly crowded. But how do they find the means to purchase these pleasures? The admission to the best of their theatres,

theatres, is very low, and as the custom of drinking after dinner is not a prevailing fashion amongst this sober people, the money spent for liquid fire to burn out the brains of an Englishman is more rationally expended by a Frenchman on the drama; which is, and ever was designed to improve, and not destroy the senses. There is a wonderful difference to be observed in the regular theatres of Paris, and those of London. In the latter, talking, noise, and bacchanalian-riot, disturb the attentive spectator, and embarrass the performer, which is one reason perhaps that the actor is frequently obliged to raise his voice beyond a natural tone. In Paris, the most profound silence is required and enforced throughout the house during the performance; for a simple question of curiosity delivered in a whisper would subject the innocent inquirer to the vengeance of the audience, and he would be expelled the theatre immediately.'

We transcribe the section on the place of Execution in Paris, *Place de Grêve*, as it may serve to account for the cruelties of the Revolution:

'Here ends the career of all those criminals, who have violated the laws of their country, and who once thought to elude the hand of justice. Since the revolution, to the honour and humanity of the republican legislators, criminal justice is distinguished by mildness; for the torture, which in the time of Monarchy, rendered an execution a bloody murder, or an atrocious revenge, is wholly abandoned. The malefactor was formerly placed upon St. Andrew's cross, and the hardened executioner, with a strong iron bar, deliberately broke the limbs of the poor victim with eleven strokes, then turned him on the wheel, with his head hanging down, whilst the broken bones pierced through his flesh. Writhing in anguish, he distilled a bloody sweat, and during these prolonged torments, the sufferer counted the hours on the city clock, which seemed to toll his funeral knell, whilst he alternately shrieked out for water or for death.

'The regicide *Damiens* had his painful sufferings prolonged for four and twenty hours, and his execution was accompanied with every torment that malice could devise, or vengeance could inflict. Boiling oil, melted lead, red hot pincers, and four horses to tear the criminal asunder, were the horrible punishments of that assassin. Even women, whose sensibility is so refined, and whose nerves are so delicately formed, were spectators of the final scene of a tortured fellow-creature.

'The national assembly of France, influenced by principles of humanity, consulted several persons in 1791, if in a case where the law pronounced the sentence of death against a criminal, it would be possible to find the means of rendering the sufferer in some sort insensible to pain. The academy of surgery was consulted; many experiments were made on corpses, to verify if the division of the neck was instantaneous, and it was unanimously agreed, that when the head was separated from the trunk in an indivisible moment, life was extinguished in the shortest time possible. The instrument known by the name of THE GUILLOTINE was proposed, and has since that time been used in all capital punishments. The common people call it the *national razor*.'

Many

Many writers have contended that the atrocity and ferociousness exercised at the period of the French Revolution were suddenly produced or generated by that event: but this supposition is contrary to every moral principle. The unfeeling and cruel temper of the French must have been formed previously to the revolution; and the anarchy which this event created only afforded an opportunity for its unbounded display. The cruel executions under the monarchy had an undoubted effect on the public mind; and if we reflect on them, can we be surprized at the subsequent horrid crimes of the revolution?

To the history of the demolition of the Bastile, Mr. Eyre subjoins an anecdote respecting the escape of the governor's wife, which he repeats with confidence:

'On the rumour that a mob was marching to attack the castle, the wife and daughter of De Launay, the governor, left the Bastile early in the morning, and drove to a Restaurateur's on the North Boulevards; where, as they had previously concerted, they were to receive the earliest intelligence of the repulse of the besiegers, an event they did not doubt, as the fortress was considered as impregnable. They waited the whole day in anxious expectation of the arrival of the messenger, and were lost in thought, when a horrid shout assailed their ears: eager to inquire the cause, they both hastened to the door, when the first object they beheld was a trunkless head upon a pole. "Whose head is it?" they both vociferated in a breath. "De Launay's," replied a savage looking fellow, "and could we have found his wife and daughter, our vengeance had been satisfied; but we shall get them, and stick their heads also on a pike." At these words the daughter gave a shriek, and fainted in her mother's arms. The wretches who surrounded them, supposing the fit to be the effect of the sight of a ghastly head, still streaming with blood, laughed at her delicacy, and left them.

'On the recovery of her daughter, Madame De Launay summoned up all her fortitude, and perceiving that nothing but a speedy, and well-managed flight could preserve their lives, addressed her trembling child in the following words—"We have but one expedient which affords an opportunity to escape—I must leave you—should we be seen together, suspicion may be awakened, and one, or both may perish. Take this ring—keep it till a person, whom I will send to fetch you, desires you to produce it. If you hear not from me in four and twenty hours, conclude"—She could say no more; but throwing her arms round the neck of her daughter, took an affectionate leave, and, half distracted, hurried from the house.

'The poor girl, remained alone, in a state of torturing suspense, for two whole days and nights, and had begun to mourn the death of both her parents, when, on the third morning, a man entered her apartment, and demanded a sight of the ring. She complied. He bade her follow him in silence. She obeyed. He conducted her to a coach in waiting, and in ten minutes she found herself in the Convent of

of——, and the moment following in the arms of an affectionate mother. Shortly after they left their native country, never to return!'

Occasionally, the author attempts to relieve the monotony of the narrative by a little wit: but from the following specimen the reader will not regard it as of the *first water*. On the Swimming Academy, he observes, 'If such a school was established in *our* country, it might eventually benefit society, as *bankruptcies* would become less frequent when man had practised the art of keeping his *head above water*.'

Mr. Eyre pleads his professional duties as an apology for any faults that are discoverable in the present volume. *Valeat quantum valere potest.*

ART. IV. *A general View of the Agriculture of Shropshire*, with Observations. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By Joseph Plymley, M.A. Archdeacon of Salop, in the Diocese of Hereford, and Honorary Member of the Board. 8vo. pp. 366. 7s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1803.

So far are we from deeming any apology to be necessary from a clergyman, who appears before the public in the character of an author or compiler of an Agricultural Report, that we are rather inclined to compliment him on the acquisition of that knowlege which is essential to the undertaking. Few parish priests are entirely occupied with their spiritual avocations; and it always affords us pleasure to observe them filling up their time, and seeking their amusement, in a way which is at once honourable to their profession and beneficial to mankind. Most clergymen, to a certain extent, are required to attend to Agriculture; and, as men of education, they may be expected to combine this employment with scientific views, with researches into Natural History, and with historical and topographical knowlege. Mr. Plymley appears to have availed himself of his situation as a clergyman, and of his province as an archdeacon, for studying rural affairs, and rendering himself acquainted with the civil as well as the ecclesiastical state of the county to which his cure was in part extended; and being in the habit of superadding reflection to inquiry, he has so interwoven a variety of useful and moral observations with the dry details of a territorial survey, that the reader is taught to think, as well as to measure and calculate.

The county-reports being all composed according to one model, which we have formerly specified, it is unnecessary for us now to state the titles of the chapters and sections into

into which this volume is divided; and we shall at once proceed to give some specimens of its contents, especially of those which relate to the prominent facts respecting the geographical state, rural circumstances, and political economy, of the county to which it refers.

Shropshire is stated to be in form an irregular parallelogram, containing about 890,000 acres, (it seems never to have been accurately measured,) between 52° and 53° north latitude, and 2° and 3° west longitude from London. It has fifteen hundreds, or districts answering that denomination; and, according to Mr. Plymley, (who by this report will be found to have bestowed great attention to its ecclesiastical divisions,) it contains 262 churches, of which about 229 are parochial. The enumeration here given should be consulted in order to correct the errors in Bacon's edition of the *Liber Regis:* a book which is quoted as "one having authority."

It appears from the return made under the act of the 41st Geo. III. that this county 'contains 31,182 inhabited and 929 empty houses, 34,501 families, 82,563 males, 85,076 females, 45,046 persons employed in agriculture, 35,535 mechanics, and 70,504 persons not comprized in either of these two classes. The total number of persons is 167,639.'

Owing to the circumstance of townships and parishes not being always co-extensive, the reporter suggests the possibility of some districts having been omitted in the above enumeration, and some counted twice. Other inaccuracies may also arise from the different modes of making the returns. In noticing the population of the parish of Madeley, in which Coalbrook-dale is situated, Mr. P. observes with pleasure the increase of population, which he attributes to the abundance of comfortable houses in proportion to the number of persons; observing that 'a large number per house does not generally indicate a large population.'

'I was led (says he) to this suspicion by observing, that in proportion as there were few or many cottages to the farm houses of a parish, the proportion of persons per house rose or fell. Thus the numbers per house rose in districts of improved cultivation; but where small farms had been added together, and many of the houses taken down; in these small farms, the farmer's family, perhaps did all the business: in large farms there must be many persons employed besides the farmer's family; and if there are not day-labourers near enough to be hired, servants must be kept in the house. But if each of these servants had a cottage, he would also have a family, increasing the population of the district, but diminishing the numbers per house. Farmers keeping many servants, instead of hiring day-labourers, certainly checks population, though not exactly in proportion to the persons that are thereby kept unmarried; be-

cause the numbers of illegitimate children are increased from that circumstance.'

The landed income of this county is about 600,000*l.*

Under the head of *Minerals*, Coal occupies the first place; and respecting this valuable commodity, the author has collected much curious information. A particular account is given of the different strata of four pits, besides those of the Clee-hill, and of the depths to which the miner penetrates in order to supply us with fuel. The general result is that

'In the first coal-pit, no coal was found within much less than 30 yards of the surface, and that then three small layers of bad coal only were gotten; and after sinking near 24 yards deeper, three other layers of the same coal were procured, but that the first vein of good coal lay 92 yards beneath the surface; that this vein was 4 feet thick; that none of the veins appear to have been more than 5 feet thick; and that in 154 yards, and more, regularly worked, or above 254, taking in the whole experiment, 13 yards 2 feet of coal were found. In the second pit specified, the coal appears to have been met with in little more than 21 yards from the surface. One of the veins proved 6 feet thick; and in sinking somewhat less than 44 yards, above 7 yards thickness of coal was discovered. In the third pit specified, the sulphureous, or bad coal, was met with in 16 yards from the surface, and good coal in less than 28 yards; no vein exceeded 3 feet; and the aggregate in almost 68 yards, was not quite 9 yards of coal. In the fourth pit specified, the first unmixed coal was 50 yards from the surface; and in sinking above 116 yards, it does not appear that here was any vein thicker than 2 feet; and the aggregate of unmixed coal measured only 5 feet 2 inches in thickness.'

The enumeration of the rivers and brooks, with which Shropshire is watered, is followed by expressions of regret that they are not employed in grinding corn, to the total exclusion of windmills; which are unsafe, and which the author (perhaps singularly) considers as a nuisance to the eye in most prospects. Wind-mills are often injudiciously placed by the side of public roads, where they ought never to be tolerated: but we have known country-gentlemen who have regarded them as chearful objects, and have erected them in certain points of view to enliven the distant prospect from their grounds.

The chapter on the State of Property contains these observations:

'Landed property is considerably divided in Shropshire, more so, perhaps, than is generally imagined. In the parochial visitations of my archdeaconry, I have inquired the number of proprietors in a parish, and generally found them more numerous, than I had expected. If I asked who were the proprietors of the next parish, a few of the most opulent were named; but when I arrived there, I again found the number far exceeding the general estimation. Manufactures and commerce, the professions of arms and of the law, raise men

of small fortune to affluence; and their riches enable them to concentre the estates of others. But again, men of hereditary fortune become forced to alienate their domains, and these, perhaps are parcelled out among purchasers of inferior wealth. The thrifty farmer, or mechanic, supplies the place of those proprietors who have sold their lands for the sake of increasing their stock, or of trying their fortune in manufactures; and some of these may, in the first or second generation, again become purchasers of real estates. The number of gentlemen of small fortune living on their estates, has decreased: their descendants have been clergymen or attornies, either in the country, or shopkeepers in the towns of their own county; or more probably in this county, emigrated to Birmingham, to Liverpool, to Manchester, or to London: but then the opulent farmer, who has purchased the farm he lives upon, or some smaller estate, which he lets or holds, with the large one he before rented, is a character that has increased. Whether the proprietors of land in this county are more or fewer than heretofore, I have no practicable means of knowing.'

After having noticed the different customs appertaining to copyhold tenures, the author subjoins this judicious reflection:

'It appears beautiful in theory, that there should be one rule of descent in a kingdom only, one tenure of property, and one scale of political rights; but it may be doubted whether so much uniformity is suitable to an imperfect state; or at least to our present degree of improvement. At all events, irregularities that are not attended with much practical inconvenience, should not be pointed out as obnoxious, in a scheme that has produced so much positive happiness, and so much comparative good, as the constitution of these kingdoms has afforded. The best apology for the unequal distribution which has accidentally obtained in the political right of voting for representatives in Parliament, strikes me to be this—that if an uniform designation of this right were attempted, wherever the scale stopped, all of the class below it would have a common interest in wishing to oppose the settlement that may have been made with a view to general good; but where the political privilege that is desired in one district is enjoyed in the next, and the privileges themselves various and intermingled, and generally attainable, unpleasant distinctions of classes in a state are avoided, and combinations for power checked.'

Perhaps the spirit of this remark may with equal truth be extended to the subject of cultivation. Commons and waste lands have their particular advantages, which, in the rage for inclosure, are not always sufficiently regarded. It is possible to inclose and appropriate faster than the state of population will justify. Mr. P., however, is of opinion that the existence of Clun forest is the cause of the uncultivated state of many farms surrounding it; because, says he, 'while the common continues, the adjoining farmers will, in general, consider their inclosed lands, principally, as affording winter meat for their sheep, and that without care and culture; and their time will be

be taken up in looking after their flocks.' If, however, this forest were inclosed, without a very considerable addition having been made to the population of the district, the old inclosed lands must have still less attention paid to them. As a sheep-walk, it is useful without either expence or trouble.

The evils which flow from the custom prevalent with persons of fortune, of abandoning their country residences in order to live in the metropolis and at watering-places, are here enumerated. Even allowing vice to be out of the question, and that gentlemen adopt a London-life for the sake of the society of learned and scientific men, with whom they may agitate schemes of public or private benefit; yet Mr. Plymley very sensibly observes that 'their life is a life of mere theory, and very near a blank to any other purpose than the filling up of their own time.'

When this reporter adverts to the state of the Poor, he very humanely studies their comfort, and recommends the erection of decent cottages; at the same time he is an advocate, under certain circumstances, for Houses of Industry. Indeed, the laudable exertions of the late Mr. Wood, in favour of the Shrewsbury Institution of this kind, shew what may be accomplished with unremitting care and perseverance: but without this care they will not be Houses either of Industry or of Virtue. 'When properly conducted, some labour is procured in them from the indolent who are within, and an additional incitement given to the industry of those who are without; and the education of children is uniformly better than they probably would have had, even from better parents, out of the house:' but, continues the Reporter, 'these considerations should not slacken our endeavours to prevent the necessity of such receptacles.'

The chapter intitled *Grass* includes a long botanical communication, by Dr. Babington of Ludlow, containing a catalogue, with remarks, of the grasses and plants to be found in the county. To the notice of *Valeriana officinalis*, great wild Valerian, this anecdote is subjoined:

'A gentleman informed me lately, that he one day, when walking in the fields, gathered a piece of this plant when in flower, and carried it in his hand on account of its beauty. In a little time he became very faint, with great difficulty of breathing. This sensation increasing rapidly, it occurred to him that the valerian might be the cause of what he felt; and, having thrown it away, in a few minutes every unpleasant symptom left him, and he felt no further inconvenience.'

As a physician, Dr. Babington should not have given this relation on such slight authority. Since the plant grows abundantly

abundantly every where, it would have been easy to have made several experiments *.

Under the head of *Woods and Plantations*, the raising and sustaining of hedge-row timber is condemned; as well as a custom prevalent in Shropshire, on account of the useless consumption of oak-timber which it occasions; viz. the custom of having oak-coffins, which is so universal, that few persons will consent to bury their relations in any other wood.

'If (adds Mr. P) the legislature thought it once necessary to enact a law to oblige the use of woollen in funerals, to encourage a *manufacture*, there can be no doubt of the propriety of prohibiting the use of oak upon such occasions, when the bulwark of the nation is in want of it.'

The section on *Cattle* includes some observations and experiments by Mr. Du Gard, of the Shrewsbury Infirmary, on pithing cattle, or killing them by puncturing the *medulla spinalis*. This practice has been recommended under the idea of its being singularly humane, by taking away the life of the animal with as little pain as possible; a notion which is here strongly combated. We think, however, that the argument is erroneously conducted; since Mr. Du Gard takes no notice of the *failure* which often occurs in knocking down the animal, and which occasions the painful repetition of blows; and the reasoning that an animal *may* live a long time after the separation of the spine is inapplicable, when it is considered that his throat is in all cases immediately cut, as Mr. Du G. himself remarks. The object is to bring him to the ground, and to deprive him of the power of resistance, with as little violence as may be; which is certainly accomplished better by *pithing*, or *laying*, than by *felling*.

Moreover, subjoined is the copy of a letter from Mr. Everard Home to Lord Carrington; who, though he admits the accuracy of Mr. Du Gard's report, contends that the want of success arose from the imperfect manner in which the operation of *pithing* was performed. By dividing the *medulla spinalis* in the lower part of the neck, instant death is not produced: but if the medullary substance be punctured above the origin of the nerves which supply the diaphragm, the operation will cause instantaneous death, without the smallest convulsion.

In the comparative estimate of the value and utility of Oxen and Horses in Husbandry, the Reporter decides in favour of Oxen. He humanely protects against the cruel custom of *set-*

* Is this anecdote in favour of Valerian being a nervous medicine?

ting their horns, recommends a method of shoeing them without casting them, and thus appeals to the feelings of the farmer on the score of interest:

'I wish farmers would calculate more nearly than they appear to do, the advantages of ox teams above horses. They consume provender of less value, which would be a benefit to the individual as well as the community. The money laid out in a horse is a capital that is generally sunk; that laid out in an ox is as generally an improving capital: and in proportion as ox teams are used, they do certainly diminish animal suffering, for no man will work his ox team so hard, or feed it so inadequately, as horse teams are sometimes worked and supported.'

Roads in this county, both turnpike and private, are represented as generally bad; and hints for their improvement are suggested, which, if regarded, would increase the comfort of the inhabitant and the pleasure of the traveller. Mr. P. recommends the propriety of felling the trees by the road-side, keeping the hedges low, erecting finger-posts, and painting the name of every village on the wall of the house at each extremity. This practice is adopted on the Bath-road, and it is a very cheap method of gratifying the laudable curiosity of strangers. Most ladies and gentlemen now travel with an itinerary, or book of roads, in their carriage: but if each village would generously bestow three-penny-worth of paint for the above-mentioned purpose, the road would explain itself to them, with more complete satisfaction.

The section on the *Inland Navigation* of the County of Salop is occupied by an ingenious communication from Mr. Telford, the engineer and architect. The state of the Severn Navigation is described, and the modes of obviating the difficulties attending Canal Navigation, by locks, inclined planes, and aqueducts, are fully explained. Speaking of the Shrewsbury canal, he observes:

'There are several circumstances which are peculiar to this canal—one is, that the communication between the higher and lower levels is partly by means of an inclined plane, and partly by locks: a second is, that as small boats are used upon this canal, the locks are so formed as to admit of either one, three, or four boats passing at a time, without the loss of any more water than what is just necessary to regulate the ascent or descent of the boat or boats that are then in the locks. This is accomplished by having gates that are drawn up and let down perpendicularly, instead of being worked horizontally; and each lock has three gates, one of which divides the body of the lock, so as to admit of one, three, or four boats at a time. A third, and perhaps the most striking circumstance, is, that the canal passes over the valley of the Tern at Long, for a distance of 62 yards, upon an aqueduct made all of cast-iron, excepting only the nuts and

screws, which are of wrought-iron; and I believe this to be the first aqueduct, for the purposes of a navigable canal, which has ever been composed with this metal. It has completely answered the intention, although it was foretold by some, that the effects of the different degrees of heat and cold would be such, as to cause expansion and contraction of the metal, which not being equal to extend or draw back the whole mass of the aqueduct, would operate upon the separate plates of iron, so as to tear off the flanches which connect the plates lengthwise, and break the joints. Others said, that the expansion of freezing water would burst the sides, and so break off the flanches which connect the sides with the bottom plates: but after the trial of a summer's heat, and the very severe frost of the winter of 1796, no visible alteration has taken place, and no water passes through any of the side or bottom joints. After the frost had continued very severe for three our four days, and the water had not been drawn off, (although there is the means of doing so,) but it had stood in the aqueduct about the height of two feet six inches, the ice had then frozen to the thickness of an inch and a half, but instead of having forced out the sides, it was melted away from them, and quite loose upon the surface of the water.'

The advantages of rail-ways, and the possibility of their construction in situations in which canals are impracticable, are also stated. The paper is illustrated by plans and elevations of the Inclined Planes on the Shropshire and Shrewsbury canals, with the application of the Fire Engine; and by a Perspective View of the Iron Aqueduct, and a Plan and Elevation of the Iron Bridge built over the Severn at Buildwas, in the county of Salop, in the years 1795 and 1796.

This Report terminates, as usual, with suggesting *Means of Improvement;* in which conclusion, Mr. Plymley, as a clergyman and philosopher, endeavours to raise the character of the *country gentleman*, and to excite a general attention to the duties which belong to it:

'Nothing low, or idle, or flippant, or profligate, belongs to this character. Like every other post in human life, it is a post of duty. Independent of the assistance required from him in administering the justice of the country, he should be the adviser and peace-maker of his district; he should co-operate in the improvement of rural arts; he should be the pattern of improved husbandry; he should set an example of scrupulous obedience to the laws in his own person, and endeavour to sustain the tone of Christian morality throughout his neighbourhood. And in what situation of a country will the possessors of large fortunes, so acting, be deemed useless or inconvenient? Or can any country be endangered, that is cemented by a middle order, whose powers and services are so happily mingled?'

No fact is more indisputable than that the improvement of a country is very intimately connected with the state of its morals. Under this conviction, the reporter before us has, throughout his Survey, adverted to moral considerations; and he is

intitled to praise not only for the ability with which he has executed his task as a scientific agriculturist, but for his solicitude to ameliorate the manners, together with the soil, of the County.

The Map of Shropshire, accompanying this report, is not worthy of the place which it occupies.

ART. V. *The Use of Sacred History*; especially as illustrating and confirming the great Doctrines of Revelation. To which are prefixed Two Dissertations; the first, on the Authenticity of the History contained in the Pentateuch, and in the Book of Joshua; the second proving that the Books ascribed to Moses were actually written by him, and that he wrote them by Divine Inspiration. By John Jamieson, D.D. F.A.S.S., Minister of the Gospel, Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. about 450 in each Vol. 12s. Boards. Ogle, Edinburgh, Glasgow, and London.

AUTHORS who devote themselves to the composition of voluminous treatises on specific subjects are generally observed to grow enamoured of their theme, and, in consequence of this enthusiasm, to find more in it than the calm reasoner can ever discover. Whether it be owing to the habits of their clerical profession, as being occupied in searching after many meanings in a text in which one only is apparent, and in promulgating speculations from the pulpit without the fear of contradiction; or whether it arises from a superstitious contemplation of the Sacred Scriptures; the fact itself is manifest, that Divines are of all men most prone to carry interpretation to the wildest extremes, and to allow a fanciful zeal to overpower and becloud the understanding. Hence men, in other respects sensible, exhibit all the symptoms of imbecility; and the good purpose which they have in view is materially frustrated.

We are concerned to find this observation illustrated in the case of Dr. Jamieson; who, instead of a temperate and guarded discussion of an important yet difficult subject, has not been solicitous to keep a mean, and to occupy only strong ground, but has endeavoured sometimes to defend what is absolutely untenable, and at others to apply Sacred Scripture to uses for which many will think it could never be intended. As we are required by Christ and his Apostles rationally to examine, and to employ a sound judgment in the province of religion, we should be very careful how we surrender the Scriptures into the hands of mystical, typifying, and allegorizing interpreters. We should guard against the dogmas of the systematic divine, and the far-fetched glosses of the elaborate commentator. Let us read Sacred History with a view to facts, rather than to creeds;

creeds; let us not be desirous of proving more than it requires; let us consider the difficulties with which it is necessarily embarrassed, as well as the information which it clearly conveys; and respecting the Jewish records especially, let us judiciously employ ourselves in deducing those general truths which form the basis of Revealed Religion, and not unnecessarily volunteer a vindication of every individual passage, as if the existence of Christianity depended on the absolute integrity of the Hebrew text. Since this latter point has been conceded by the most learned critics, and since interpolations are allowed to have crept into the N. T., why might they not be suspected to have insinuated themselves into the O. T.? Is it not a preferable mode of conduct in removing difficulties, and in quashing certain objections to the Scriptures altogether, freely to own the existence of interpolations, than to attempt, by weak and doubtful arguments, to maintain their purity? If we wish to silence the infidel, to satisfy the critic, and to strengthen the faith of the rational believer, we must be ingenuous and manly. No doubt it was Dr. Jamieson's wish to accomplish each of those purposes: but we apprehend that his success will not be very complete. He seems to us to have imbibed too much of the superstitious reverence of the Jews for the Pentateuch; and in consequence to have undertaken a defence of it against all objectors. In maintaining the authenticity of it and of the book of Joshua, and the perfect accuracy of every relation which they contain, he rests his assertion on the faith of the Jews in them, and maintains that this people (who were credulous to a proverb,—*Credat Judæus*—) 'were less subject to imposition than any nation we are acquainted with.'

Sufficient evidence of the leading facts of the Jewish history unquestionably exists; and it would be the extreme of scepticism to suppose the whole to be a fiction. On the other hand, however, it is not unreasonable to conjecture that the narrative, in some places, has been a little heightened by Eastern figure and exaggeration, assisted by national vanity. When we consider the incredible tales and traditions to be found in the Talmud and other writings esteemed by this people, we cannot compliment them with being less subject to imposition than other nations.

Dr. J. observes;

'That all the five books ascribed to Moses, were really written by him, under divine inspiration, has been acknowledged by the Jews in every age. This is indeed one of the articles of their creed, the denial of which would subject any Jew to the character of an apostate. It is thus expressed: "The whole law, from the very first word, *Bereschit*, (that is, *In the beginning*,) to the last words, *In the sight of all*

Israel, were written by Moses from the mouth of God." This is not merely the faith of the modern Jews. We have satisfying evidence, that their ancestors, for some thousands of years, were of the same sentiments.'

The position, however, here maintained,—viz. that every part of the Pentateuch, from the first words of Genesis to the last words of Deuteronomy, was written by Moses,—though it may constitute an article of an orthodox Jew's creed, cannot possibly be admitted by the rational and considerate Christian. Moses could not record his own death and burial, with an account of which the book of Deuteronomy concludes. Indeed, it is afterward admitted as probable that the last chapter of Deuteronomy was added by Joshua: but if he or any other person took the liberty of adding in one place, may it not be presumed that additions have been made in other places; and would it not be more satisfactory candidly to admit the fact, and to consider certain passages as having all the marks of subsequent insertions, or as having been marginal notes which have crept into the text from the inadvertence of transcribers, than to contend for their having been penned originally by the Jewish Lawgiver?

The inspiration of the Pentateuch is maintained by Dr. J.; and he is moreover of opinion that 'the supposition that Moses was employed by the Spirit of God, before he went up to Mount Pisgah, to write an account of his own death, will not appear incredible to one who believes in the truth of inspiration:' but we can perceive no discretion in such a surmise; and we wish, for the credit of the author, that it had been erased from his dissertation. The period which immediately follows displays more good sense; and had it governed him in his inquiry into this difficult subject, it would have saved him much trouble. 'It is no wise necessary,' he says, 'to the truth of Revelation, that every word of a book should have been written by the person whose name it bears; this is no where affirmed in Scripture.' This concession being made, much of the argument employed in the two preliminary Dissertations falls to the ground; and we may spare ourselves the trouble of distinctly examining it.

The body of the work is divided into three parts. Part I, inquires into the general Uses of Sacred History, its beauties, and the advantages arising from the historical mode of writing. Part II. treats of the History of Israel; and Part III. of the Use of Sacred History, as illustrating and confirming the great doctrines of Revelation.

It is utterly impossible for us minutely to follow this theological writer through the whole of his long discussion; or to find

find room for those strictures which his positions often require: but we shall endeavour to render as much justice to the author, and to the public, as our limits will permit.

Fully impressed with a notion of the typical character of the Israelites, Dr. Jamieson sees in every part of their history some reference to the New Testament Church. We shall adduce one specimen of his mode of explanation. After having stated the circumstances attending the departure of the Israelites from Egypt, this comment is subjoined:

'What Christian perceives not, in this interesting history, many striking features of our spiritual redemption? Often the LORD, when he means graciously to visit the "vessels of mercy," pours out his plagues on their lusts. Their way is hedged up with thorns. They seek their lovers, but they cannot find them. He takes away their corn, and their wine. He destroys their vines and their fig-trees; the things that ministered to corruption. After all, sin retains its hold of the heart. He perhaps inflicts still more severe strokes. They tremble under awful apprehensions of eternal destruction. As the Egyptians *thrust out* the Israelites, sin as it were contributes to its own destruction. When the conscience is awakened by means of the word, sin raises such a tumult in the soul, as more fully to unfold its true character, and display its desperate wickedness, than it had done before. "Sin," as in the experience of Paul, "works all manner of concupiscence." The very attempts which it makes for retaining its dominion, are overruled for hastening its destruction. For by means of them, the sinner is made to perceive both its atrocity, and its astonishing power in the heart. He is perhaps in the same situation with the Israelites on the borders of the Red Sea. He is brought to the brink of despair, having no prospect but that of being eternally a prey to sin, and to its dreadful consequences. Sin not only wrought in Paul "all manner of concupiscence," but "deceived him, and slew him:—that it might appear sin, it wrought death in him by that which is good." But in the time of greatest extremity, the LORD works deliverance. His people are "shut up unto the faith." They see no way of escaping from destruction, but by an immediate obedience to "the command of God," in "believing on the name of his Son Jesus Christ." They have indeed been formerly redeemed by the price of Christ's blood, by the blood of that spotless Lamb, who is "our Passover sacrificed for us." But their enemies retain the dominion over them till they be also redeemed by the power of his Spirit. Christ saves them not by *blood* only, but also by *water*. Of this salvation we have an illustrious type in the deliverance of Israel at the Red Sea. This deliverance, indeed, may be viewed as at once prefiguring the merit of Christ's death, and the power of his Spirit; the deliverance of his people both from their guilt, and from the dominion of their spiritual enemies.

'We learn from an inspired writer, that all the Israelites were baptized unto Moses "in the cloud, and in the sea." This may literally refer to the drops of water which might fall upon them, from the

over shadowing cloud, and from the sea which stood in heaps on both sides, as they passed through. The language signifies, that they were baptized unto Moses as a typical mediator; and thus bound to submit to that covenant, which God was afterwards to reveal to them by his ministry. But it also plainly denotes, that in the passage of the literal Israel through the Red Sea, we have a figure of the same kind with the initiating seal of the covenant of grace; a type of "the washing of regeneration," and sprinkling of the blood of Jesus, of which baptism is only the sign.

'As baptism respects the removal both of the guilt, and of the power and pollution of sin, it is natural to think, that the baptism of Israel in the sea respected both. Was the Red Sea dried up by means of the rod of Moses? By the cross of the antitypical Moses, a way is opened for his spiritual Israel to the land of promise. Did the waters form walls for the defence of Israel? It is by the blood of Jesus that they are delivered from eternal destruction. Did the same rod which divided the waters for the salvation of Israel, bring them back for the destruction of the Egyptians? The cross of Christ is "to them who are called, the power of God;" although to others "a stumbling block." That very gospel, which to some is the savour of life unto life, is to others the savour of death unto death. Was the Red Sea dried up, not only by the stretching out of the rod of Moses, but by the blowing of a strong *wind?* The Lord Christ sends forth his word, which is "the rod of his mouth;" "the rod of his strength;" he accompanies it by the operation of his Spirit, that wind which "bloweth where it listeth;" and his chosen people "pass from death unto life." They who before saw insuperable difficulties in the way of their coming to Christ, now find them all removed.'

This species of commentary on the Bible cannot boast of any novelty, since many old divines have preceded Dr. J. in his typical course; and, because St. Paul, in the Ep. to the Galatians, has converted a portion of the Mosaical history into an allegory; observing of the story of Sarah and Hagar that *it may be allegorized* (Ατινα εστιν αλληγορουμενα, Gal. iv. 24.); they have supposed that, in every minute circumstance recorded of the Israelites, some analogy may be traced to the state of the Church, or spiritual Israel. How much soever, in some cases, resemblances may be discovered, the comparison, unless conducted with judgment, may be carried to a ridiculous excess; and it would not be using but abusing history, to discover in the Israelites "*spoiling the Egyptians*" a type of the church of Christ.

In the second volume, the doctrines of the Unity of God, of the Trinity, of a particular Providence, of the Divine Sovereignty, Holiness, and Justice, of the Incarnation, Miraculous Conception, Atonement, and Imputation, are considered as established by the relations of Sacred History.

The destruction of the nations of the Canaanites is not merely vindicated as a measure consistent with Divine Justice, but

but Dr. J. exerts his ingenuity in attempting to shew that it exhibited a signal display of wisdom and even of goodness. What cannot ingenious divines prove when "they set themselves doggedly to work?" or what may not be expected from a writer who styles Calvin, 'that man of God?' Calvin, indeed, who could believe that the Deity created rational beings with a full determination from all eternity to damn them to all eternity, might easily refer the destruction of the Canaanites to a divine order or commission, and perceive in it an exuberance of goodness. We hesitate not to say that we should even adopt Dr. Geddes's solution of the difficulty, rather than attribute the ferocious cruelties of the Jews towards the men, women, children, and cattle of the Canaanites, to an express injunction from Jehovah.

In the historical illustration of the Incarnation, *the smoaking f...e and lamp* in Abraham's vision, *the burning bush* seen by Moses, Jacob's *ladder*, the *cloud* of glory, and even the right of *primogeniture*, the law of the *Levirate* (by which, 'if a man died without leaving children, his brother next in age, or the nearest of kin, was bound to marry the widow of the deceased and raise up a successor to him,') and even the custom of the Jews, of not eating of the *sinew* that *shrank*, are supposed to contain symbols, emblems, or references to the Incarnation of the Son of God.

The sinew which shrank respected the hollow in Jacob's thigh after his struggle with the angel. On this subject, Dr. J. observes:

'Various have been the opinions entertained, as to the reason of Jacob's receiving the mark of weakness in this part of his body. I shall venture a conjecture, which seems to arise from what has been already observed, in regard to the singular mode of swearing used by him, as well as by his grandfather. As the Messiah, the promised seed, was to spring from his *thigh*, might not the all-wise God set this signal mark of human imbecility here, still to remind Jacob and his posterity, that, although he had received the promise of this peculiar *blessing*, and a renewed confirmation of it on this occasion, it was not his natural birth-right, nor procured by his own merit or power, but wholly of grace? According to this view, it might be the will of God, that Jacob should bear a mark of weakness, as to that very point in which he was to be honoured above all other men; and have a perpetual lesson of humility, in regard to what would be most apt to excite his natural pride.'

We purposed to have made other extracts from this converter of sacred history to doctrinal uses: but our limits restrain us, as well as a conviction that we have said enough to give the reader an insight into the character and merit of this undertaking.

ART.

ART. VI. *An Historical Account of the Discovery and Education of a Savage Man*; or of the first Developements, Physical and Moral, of the Young Savage caught in the Woods near Aveyron in the Year 1798. By E. M. Itard, Physician to the National Institution of Deaf and Dumb, Member of the Medical Society of Paris, &c. Crown 8vo. pp. 148. 3s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips. 1802.

SINCE the first appearance of this little volume, which has accidentally lain thus long unnoticed, we have not heard that any farther communication has been made on the subject of which it treats. We therefore fear that the hopes and wishes of the ingenious and persevering author, with regard to the progressive improvement of the boy intrusted to his care, have not been completely realized: indeed there does not appear to have been much encouragement to expect a very brilliant result to his labours: but his zeal in the pursuit of a [illegible]urite object was not to be damped by difficulties. He foresaw the obstacles which must attend the instruction of a youth who had hitherto lived in a state of nature; and, unlike many of his too sanguine countrymen, he was determined at first to be satisfied with very slender advances. The public curiosity in Paris was much excited by the first accounts of this young savage; and the most unreasonable expectations were formed of him before he arrived.

'Many curious people anticipated great pleasure in beholding what would be his astonishment at the sight of all the fine things in the capital. On the other hand, many persons eminent for their superior understanding, forgetting that our organs are less flexible, and imitation more difficult, in proportion as man is removed from society, and the period of his infancy, thought that the education of this individual would be the business of only a few months, and that they should very soon hear him make the most striking observations concerning his past manner of life. Instead of this, what did they see? —a disgusting, slovenly boy, affected with spasmodic, and frequently with convulsive motions, continually balancing himself like some of the animals in the menagerie, biting and scratching those who contradicted him, expressing no kind of affection for those who attended upon him; and, in short, indifferent to every body, and paying no regard to any thing.'

The following relation is given of the manner in which he was taken:

'A child, about eleven or twelve years of age, who had been seen some time before in the woods of Caune, in France, looking after acorns and roots, upon which he subsisted, was met in the same place, towards the close of the year 1798, by three sportsmen, who seized upon him at the instant he was climbing a tree to evade their pursuit. They conducted him to a neighbouring village, and put

 him

him under the care of an aged matron; from whom, however, before the end of a week, he contrived to escape, and fled to the mountains, where he wandered about during the severity of a most rigorous winter, clad only in a tattered shirt. At night he retired into solitary places, approaching, as the day advanced, the neighbouring villages; and in this manner he passed a vagrant kind of life, till the time in which, of his own accord, he sought refuge in a dwelling-house in the Canton of St. Sernin. Here he was retained and taken care of for two or three days, and from thence was sent to the hospital of St. Afrique, afterwards to Rhodez, where he was kept for several months. During his abode in these different places, he appeared to be always equally wild, impatient of restraint, and capricious in his temper, continually endeavouring to get away, affording materials for the most interesting observations, which were collected by a person worthy of the utmost credit, and which I shall not fail to relate in those parts of the following Essay where they may be most advantageously introduced *. A clergyman, distinguished as a patron of science and general literature, conceiving that, from this event, some new light might be thrown on the moral science of man, obtained permission for the child to be brought to Paris. He arrived there about the end of the year 1799, under the care of a poor but respectable old man, who, being obliged to leave him soon after, promised to return, and be a father to him, if, at any time, he should be abandoned by society.'

A report which was made by M. Pinel, on the subject of this youth, represented him as not differing, in the state of his sensorial functions and intellectual faculties, in any respect, from an idiot:—but M. Itard was disposed to conceive that he possessed as much understanding as might reasonably be expected in a youth, who was deprived from his infancy of all education, entirely separated from individuals of his own species, and possessing only a small number of wants. He was therefore induced with confidence to undertake his education, and for the prosecution of it laid down this plan of moral treatment:

'1st. To attach him to social life, by rendering it more pleasant to him than that which he was then leading, and, above all, more analogous to the mode of existence that he was about to quit.

'2d. To awaken the nervous sensibility by the most energetic stimulants, and sometimes by lively affections of the mind.

'* All that I shall hereafter say respecting the history of this child before his abode in the capital, is authenticated by the official communications of Citizens Guirauld and Constant of St. Festève, commissaries of government; the former in the Canton of St. Afrique, the latter in that of St. Sernin; and from the observations of Citizen Bonaterre, Professor of Natural History in the central school of the Department of Aveyron.'

'3d. To

'3d. To extend the sphere of his ideas, by giving him new wants, and by increasing the number of his relations to the objects surrounding him.

'4th. To lead him to the use of speech by subjecting him to the necessity of imitation.

'5th. To exercise frequently the most simple operations of the mind upon the objects of his physical wants; and, at length, by inducing the application of them to objects of instruction.'

The first point, we are informed, was in some degree obtained; since his excursions into the fields, when under the author's care, became less frequent, 'his meals less copious, and repeated after longer intervals, the time he spent in bed much shorter, and his exercise more subservient to his instruction.' Still, however, he seems to have possessed a considerable hankering after his former mode of life, and occasionally displayed a great impatience of restraint. His joy was easily excited, and was always expressed by immoderate and continued peals of laughter. He seemed in general to be inattentive to surrounding objects, but sometimes would fix his eyes for hours together on the same, with (as the author terms it) the well defined character of sorrow or melancholy reverie. 2dly, The necessity of awakening nervous sensibility was indicated by the powers of sensation being remarkably feeble in almost all his organs, particularly the ear; and by his being almost insensible to the impressions of heat and cold. The proper application of heat, principally as a bath, produced a material change in the youth's habits. He became fonder of clothes, and seemed to acquire the power of judging of degrees of heat. His touch gradually shewed itself sensible to the impression of all bodies, whether warm or cold, smooth or rough, soft or hard. The least irritation applied to the nose produced sneezing, which was not previously the case; and from relishing the most disgusting food, he became particularly nice.

The author has been unable to effect much towards the third object, since he could scarcely inspire the youth with a liking for any amusement: but that which pleased him most was a dinner composed of his favourite dishes.

'The first time that he was at such a feast, he expressed transports of joy, which rose almost to frenzy: no doubt he thought he should not sup so well as he had dined; for he did not scruple to carry away, in the evening, on his leaving the house, a plate of lentiles which he had stolen from the kitchen.—I felt great satisfaction at the result of this first excursion. I had found out a *pleasure* for him; I had only to repeat it a certain number of times in order to convert it into a *want*; this is what I actually effected. I did more; I took care that these excursions should always be preceded by certain preliminaries which might be remarked by

by him: this I did, by going into his room about four o'clock, with my hat on my head, and his shirt held in my hand. Very soon these preparations were considered as the signal of departure. At the moment I appeared, I was understood; he dressed himself in great haste, and followed me, with expressions of uncommon satisfaction and delight.'

In fulfilling the 4th indication, the persevering author met with less success than in the other parts of his pursuit.—The words *Lait* and *Oh Dieu* are the only expressions which the young savage seems to have been capable of uttering; and to them he does not appear to have attached any meaning, though great pains were taken to produce an association between the former and his favourite article of food. M. Itard does not think that there is any defect in the *organ* of speech.

The means of accomplishing the fifth object 'consisted simply in placing between him and his wants, obstacles that are continually increasing, and continually changing in their nature, and which he could not surmount without perpetually exercising his attention, his memory, his judgment, and all the functions of his senses.' The progress in this part of the labour was in danger of being completely impeded by an unforeseen circumstance: the multiplicity and numberless complications of the little exertions, to which the youth was urged, altogether exhausted his attention and docility; and the same emotions of rage, which often burst out so violently soon after he was first taken, re-appeared, and brought on convulsions similar to epilepsy: but the sudden impression of terror, on being held out of a high window, just before the accession of a paroxysm, prevented the recurrence of those alarming symptoms, and allowed the author to re-assume the plan which he wished to pursue. He seems to have at last commanded a considerable degree of attention to the prescribed exercises, and an obedience which, though constrained, was yet uninterrupted by the violent sallies of rage which were before so remarkable.

From the effects of an education of only nine months, the author is inclined to augur well of his future progress; and in the mean time he considers himself as being warranted in concluding, that the child 'known under the name of the *Savage of Aveyron* is endowed with the free exercise of all his senses; that he gives continual proofs of attention, reflection, and memory; that he is able to compare, discern, and judge, and apply in short all the faculties of his understanding to the objects which are connected with his instruction.'

Art.

ART. VII. *The Poetical Works of Charles Churchill*, with explanatory Notes, and an authentic Account of his Life: now first published. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1804.

WE entirely concur with the editor of these volumes, in the opinion that no author of modern times requires illustration in a greater degree than Churchill; and we also think that few productions are more deserving, on account of their original merits, of the labours of a commentator. Unfortunately for himself and for posterity, Churchill exerted the powers of his fertile and extraordinary genius on temporary subjects, in reviling characters of worth and eminence, and in vindicating the conduct of the profligate and licentious. Whether he disgraced himself most in ridiculing Dr. Johnson, in calumniating Dr. Pearce, or in supporting Mr. Wilkes, is, we believe, a difficult question to determine. With the prejudices and partialities of the poet, however, we have now little concern; our sentiments in regard to his productions, and the subjects of them, were given at the time of their appearance, with plainness and impartiality. We praised, voluntarily and liberally, his uncommon abilities; and, with equal sincerity, we regretted their sad misapplication. It remains for us now to state to our readers the particulars of the present edition.

As the editor informs us, we are here furnished with an authentic account of Churchill's life, with six letters addressed by the poet to Mr. Wilkes, which reflect sufficient discredit on both parties, and with a copy of his will.—In the memoirs, we discover few particulars that were not previously known and detailed. It is remarkable in the instance of Churchill, that the period of a man's life which is most beset by danger, and is found most to yield to temptation, was passed by him in virtuous and industrious privacy; in the laudable attempt to provide for a family, and in a constant endeavour faithfully to discharge the duties of his sacred function. Till he attained the mature age of twenty-seven, his conduct appears to have been blameless, and his character irreproachable; indeed so good that he was unanimously chosen to succeed to a lectureship rendered vacant by the death of his father. After this time, he started forth a poet and a man of the town; he neglected not only the duties of his office, but despised and abandoned its decent and creditable appearance; he associated with the most dissolute; and at the period in which he was making his talents known and feared, he was rendering himself an object of general execration on account of his shameful disregard of every social duty. From such a life, which terminated

minated at the early age of thirty-four, we turn away with mixed sensations of regret and disgust.

After having given a chronological account of Churchill's writings, the editor observes:

'On a short review of Churchill's writings, we must pronounce them to be like his life, irregular, unequal, and inconsistent. In the same page may frequently be contrasted the strength, fire, and brilliancy of Dryden, to the roughness of Oldham and of Donne. In either case, however, a noble vein of moral satire pervades his poems, and he in them stands forth the undaunted bard of liberty, the scourge of tyranny, and the firm friend to the laws and constitution of his country. Led away by the enthusiasm of friendship, Churchill occasionally sullied and deserted these noble principles, by adopting the libellous and factious language of the profligate supporters of a good cause. Unfortunately we cannot assert the patriotism of our author, without impeaching his understanding, when we feel ourselves compelled to acknowledge him as the dupe of a designing demagogue. This, however, we believe to have been the fact, for while we cannot but regret the numerous errors and irregularities too apparent in the conduct of our author, we yet see no traces of systematic vice or deception in his disposition. This was frank and open in the extreme; to hypocrisy he was an utter stranger, his great failing, and the original source of his misconduct, was the paying an inconsiderate and implicit obedience to the dictates of a heart, which was naturally sound, but which, under the influence of his witty and dissolute companions, took a wrong bias, and from that period progressively diverged farther and farther from the path of virtue.'

The narrative is concluded by a character of Churchill given by Cowper in his Table-Talk, which we shall enable the reader of these volumes to contrast with one which is contained in the third volume of that poet's letters, lately published. (See our last Review.)

'Churchill, the great Churchill deserved the name of poet. I have read him twice, and some of his pieces three times over, and the last time with more pleasure than the first.

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Gotham is a noble and beautiful poem, and a poem with which I make no doubt the author took as much pains, as with any he ever wrote. Making allowance, and Dryden perhaps, in his Absalom and Achitophel, stands in need of the same indulgence, for an unwarrantable use of scripture, it appears to me to be a masterly performance. Independence is a most animated piece, full of strength and spirit, and marked with that bold masculine character, which I think is the great peculiarity of this writer; and the Times*, (except that the subject is disgusting to the last degree) stands equally high

* These poems are specified by Mr. Cowper because they had been represented by an editor as Catch-pennies.

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in my opinion. He is indeed a careless writer for the most part; but where shall we find in any of those authors, who finish their works with the exactness of a Flemish pencil, those bold and daring strokes of fancy, those numbers so hazardously ventured upon, and so happily finished, the matter so compressed, and yet so clear, and the colouring so sparingly laid on, and yet with such a beautiful effect? In short, it is not his least praise that he is never guilty of those faults as a writer, which he lays to the charge of others. A proof that he did not judge by a borrowed standard, or from rules laid down by critics, but that he was qualified to do it by his own native powers, and his great superiority of genius. For he that wrote so much, and so fast, would, through inadvertence and hurry, unavoidably have departed from rules, which he might have found in books; but his own truly poetical talent was a guide which could not suffer him to err. A race-horse is graceful in his swiftest pace, and never makes an awkward motion, though he is pushed to his utmost speed. A cart-horse might perhaps be taught to play tricks in the riding school and might prance and curvet like his betters; but at some unlucky time would be sure to betray the baseness of his original. It is an affair of very little consequence perhaps to the well-being of mankind, but I cannot help regretting that he died so soon. Those words of Virgil, upon the immature death of Marcellus, might serve for his epitaph:

> "*Ostendant terris hunc tantum fata, neque ultra*
> *Esse sinent*"

The sentiments of a poet, on the productions of a poet, are generally interesting, but not often in so high a degree as those which we have just transcribed.

The notes accompanying the present edition are in most instances full, satisfactory, and judicious; and when they are confined to the account of any particular obscure event mentioned in the text, they appear to us unobjectionable: but, when characters are introduced, the editor seems to have caught the scurrilous spirit of his original, and treats names of respectability with disdain and arrogance. Marks of illiberal conceit, offensive dogmatism, and hasty credulity, disfigure too many of these annotations *.—We shall copy a few of a different description:

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* We had marked many passages of this nature, with the design of particularizing them, but we refrain from the unpleasing task. It is incumbent on us, however, to observe that there is one note, relative to a venerated character connected with the Monthly Review, which is materially erroneous in respect to the facts which it pretends to state. Its general complexion we should not condescend to notice, but its deviation from the truth must not pass with the implied sanction which it might have derived from our silence. At present, we content ourselves with this brief impeachment of it.

'Thomas

'Thomas Davies, a bookseller, actor and author. He failed in the two former avocations, but has established a reputation for amusing biography, by his dramatic miscellanies and a gossiping life of Garrick, to which works we are indebted for several of our notes. He was a perfect *quidnunc* in politics, with which he has seasoned all his publications. He died in 1785. Mrs. Davies was sometimes called upon to perform Mrs. Cibber's parts, particularly Cordelia in Lear; and her figure, look and deportment were so correspondent with the idea of this amiable character, that she was received with no inconsiderable share of approbation. A report having once prevailed that Churchill intended speedily to publish a new theatrical satire, entitled *the Smithfield Rosciad*, wherein the merits of the inferior actors were to be considered; and Mr. Davies, of Covent-Garden theatre, having been informed, that he was made the hero of this intended publication, he thought proper to send the following letter to Churchill:

'Sir,

'Conscious of my inability, and ever desirous of attending to the reproof of those whose judgment in my profession must be deemed of a superior degree, from the just estimation they have acquired in the literary world; I humbly conceive myself entitled, at least, to an omission of such parts of your next intended publication, as may tend to expose some imperfections (perhaps natural ones) and thereby retard the progress I presume to hope in the esteem of the candid world, from an invariable assiduity and exertion of the poor talents with which I am invested. Nature and fortune are not equally liberal to all. Perfection in my profession is rarely attainable. Where the pursuit of science has its due effect, and the knowledge of ourselves improves with other attainments, it will dispose us to treat with lenity those who wait our reproof at humble distance, and to correct their errors in a manner not injurious to them in the very means of their existence, but by kind admonishing, conducive to excite a due attention, and produce reformation in all, who are conscious of defects, and willing to amend; amongst whom none is more sincerely so than, Sir, your humble Servant,

'T. Davies.

'*To this Letter* Churchill *made the following Reply:*

'Sir,

'From whom you have obtained your information concerning my next publication I know not, nor indeed am solicitous to know, neither can I think you intitled, as you express it, to an exemption from any severity, as you express it, which gentlemen of your profession, as you express it, are subject to.

'I am your humble Servant,

'Charles Churchill.

'P. S. Defects (perhaps natural, as you express it) are secure from my own feelings, without any application.'

We add the account of Mossop, because it had been reported that Garrick's harshness, excited by envy, had shortened his days:

'Henry Mossop; this unfortunate man, though ungraceful in deportment and undignified in action, awkward in his whole behaviour and hard in his expression, was yet in degree of stage excellence the third actor; a Garrick and a Barry only were his superiors; in parts of vehemence and rage he was almost unequalled; and in sentimental gravity, from the power of his voice and the justness of his elocution, he was a very commanding speaker. It is not to be wondered that Mossop wished to act the lover and the hero, but repeated unsuccessful trials could not convince him that he was utterly unfit for tenderness or joy, for gaiety and vivacity. Caled in the siege of Damascus, the wild, savage, and enthusiastic Arabian, he acted with that force, fury, and fire, which the character demanded; and yet so little did he know his own strength, or, rather, so apt was he to flatter his own vanity, that when complimented on his performance of this part, he frequently exclaimed, "I wish you could have seen my Phocyas." His Richard the Third would have likewise stood in the first line of excellence, was it not for Garrick's superiority in the love scene with Lady Anne, as well as in all the quick animated passages of the play; but to be second to such an actor as Garrick, was to stand in no inconsiderable line of praise; and that Mossop did so, was evident from his performing the part alternately with this great original, for some seasons. To the fine sentiments of the Duke, in Measure for Measure, he gave their full force and dignity, and would have been faultless if he had not dragged out his words to an immeasurable length: and in the Ambitious Stepmother of Rowe, his Memnon was venerable and intrepid; particularly his scene with the Priest of the Sun in the first act, which he spoke with such an honest glow of animation, as totally to overpower the subtleties and frauds of superstition and priestcraft. These were his principal parts—he had many more both in tragedy and the graver species of comedy, in which he acquired great reputation. He was censured by the critics for too much of mechanism in his action and delivery; and he was in some degree open to this censure—the frequent resting of his left hand on his hip, with his right extended, was ludicrously compared to the handle and spout of a tea-pot, whilst others called him, "The distiller of Syllables."—After having been several years in the service of Mr. Garrick, Mossop in 1760 left it to go to Dublin, where Barry and Woodward, the then managers, hired him at a considerable salary. He had scarcely finished one successful campaign with these new masters, when he was unhappily smitten with a strong inclination to become the manager of a theatre; he accordingly refused the large offer of 1000l. a year to relinquish his scheme, and under the patronage of some ladies of quality, he formed a company at the theatre in Smock Alley. After struggling in vain for seven or eight years, with a variety of difficulties, and being reduced at last to a state of absolute bankruptcy, he left Ireland, and arrived in London not a little impaired in health. He here endeavoured to be again engaged at Drury-Lane, but Mr. Garrick had been so offended by the injudicious conduct of Mossop and his friends, among whom Fitzpatrick rendered himself most conspicuous, in endeavouring to persuade the public of their equality as actors, that

that he met with a decided negative: He then applied to the managers of Covent-Garden, who returned for answer, that their arrangements were so made as to put it out of their power to employ him. This answer was supposed to be made in consequence of a very celebrated actress having refused to act in any play with this unhappy man. He died in a few days after of a broken heart, and in great poverty, Nov. 1773, in the 43d year of his age. Mr. Garrick proposed to bury him at his own expence, but Mr. Mossop's uncle prevented that offer from being carried into effect.'

The editor, we are informed, *is a very young man*; we would advise him in future to abstain from any attacks on the literary characters of such men as Bishop Hurd and Judge Blackstone; and let him be assured that the abilities of Horace Walpole and Arthur Murphy will ever be regarded by the public, as totally undeserving of the contempt with which he has so unjustifiably treated them.

ART. VIII. *Travels of Four Years and a Half in the United States of America;* during 1798, 1799, 1800, 1801, and 1802. Dedicated by Permission to Thomas Jefferson, Esq., President of the United States. By John Davis. 8vo. pp. 452. 8s. 6d. Boards. Ostell.

HAD not this author informed us that he was a zealous and steady admirer of the British constitution, we should have concluded, from the little ceremony with which he addresses the President of the United States, that he had been a republican both in manners and in principles. We ought probably, however, to ascribe this style to that coldness of manner which belongs to the American character, which few who reside among them for any time altogether escape, and which perhaps does not wholly arise from their institutions. Mr. Davis makes a boast of avoiding some of the faults and puerilities with which his predecessors are chargeable; we wish that we could compliment him on having replaced them with excellencies to which they cannot lay claim; or that we could, in favour of his work, negative his assertion with regard to their productions 'that they seldom relieve from the languor of indifference, or the satiety of disgust.'

The succeeding extract contains the author's modest estimate of his attainments, and his account of the education to which he owes them:

'Though my mode of life has not been favourable to the cultivation of an elegant style, yet in what relates to the structure of my sentences, I shall not fear competition with those who have reposed from their youth under the shade of Academic bowers. He who can have recourse to the critical prefaces of *Dryden*, the voluble periods

of *Addison*, the nervous sentences of *Johnson*, and the felicitous antitheses of *Goldsmith*, may spare himself the trouble of seeking that purity and decoration of language in a College, which may be found in his closet*.'

It is to be observed that the author makes no profession of his judgment in the choice of words, nor of his acquaintance with Grammar; indeed, he has *prudently* refrained from boasts on these heads, which would be so easily exposed. The very title of his volume, for example, is scarcely consistent with grammatical construction, and, short as it is, displays a clear instance of redundancy. If structure of sentences includes the use of words in their appropriate signification, the very paragraph which here states the pretension itself refutes it; if it be confined to the mere arrangement of words, so as to produce euphony, that is, we own, a matter extremely arbitrary; and we fear that neither our authority nor our reasons would have weight enough to convince Mr. Davis that the eulogy, which he so handsomely bestows on himself, proceeds less from a sound penetrating judgment, than from a failing of our nature which, if men who repose under academic bowers are less apt to indulge it, they are equally accustomed to feel with those who have been educated on board of ships; and engaged in distant voyages. With great deference to the opposite sentiments of the author, we apprehend that not only the title, but every other page of this volume, will prove that an academic education is more favourable to literary attainments, than the wandering course by which this writer's mind has been formed. If we are to understand Mr. Davis as intimating that he is a self-taught man, we allow his proficiency to be considerable, and such as does him great credit, though we think that he materially over-rates it.

We should be glad to corroborate the sanguine hope of the author, 'that his volume will regale curiosity while man continues to be influenced by his senses, and affections; that it will be recurred to with equal interest on the banks of the Thames, and those of the Ohio.' We confess however, that we want the penetration necessary for discovering the grounds

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'* While contemporary writers were wandering in imagination with *Ulysses* and *Æneas*, and growing giddy with the violence of poetical tempests, I was performing a sailor's duty in a ship of nine hundred tons, and encountering the gales of the promontory of *Africa*.

'I have visited many places in the eastern section of the globe. I have been twice to *India*. I am familar with *St. Helena*, and *Batavia*, and *Johanna*, and *Bombay*, and *Tillichery*, and *Goa*, and *Cochin*, and *Anjengo*. I was four months at *Canton*; and I have toiled up the *Table Mountain* at the Cape of *Good Hope*.'

of

of this fond expectation; and we can only explain it on the principle applied to the author's high opinion of his skill in composition. We are so far from thinking with Mr. Davis that the preceding American tours are all contemptible, that we regard many of them as possessing great merit, and as leaving far behind the production so highly estimated by him, —viz. his own. Its interesting parts are very thinly scattered: but two tales of superior interest occur near to the close of the work; we mean that which contains the adventures of Captain Smith, who was the founder of the first settlement on the Chesapeak; and an old negroe's account of his life, given in his own words. The long history of the captivity of Smith, and of the love of Pocahontas *, is sufficient to give value to the volume: and in the story of Old Dick, the hard lot of a slave is feelingly described, the negroe character well delineated, and the tyranny of the whites ably exposed.

At New York, the author had the good fortune to become acquainted with Mr. Burr †, of whom he gives the account here subjoined:

'To a genius of singular perspicacity, Mr. *Burr* joins the most bland and conciliating manners. With a versatility of powers, of which, perhaps, *America* furnishes no other example, he is capable of yielding an undivided attention to a single object of pursuit. Hence we find him at the close of the Revolutionary War, in which he took a very honorable part, and in the fatigues of which he bore no common share, practising the law with unrivalled brilliancy and success. Indeed his distinguished abilities attracted so decided a leaning of the Judges in his favour, a deference for his opinions so strongly marked, as to excite in no small degree the jealousy of the bar. So strong was the impression made by the general respect for his opinions, that exclamations of despair were frequently heard to escape the lips of the Counsel whose fortune it was to be opposed by the eloquence of Mr. *Burr*. I am aware that this language wears the colour of panegyric; but the recollections which the facts must excite in the breasts of his candid rivals, will corroborate its accuracy.

'For a short period Mr. *Burr* acted as Attorney-General to the State; but his professional reputation, already at the acmé of splendour, could derive no new lustre from the office. It however should be remembered, that in State prosecutions, a disposition to aggravate the enormities of the accused was never attributed to him.

'At length Mr. *Burr* was removed by the Legislature of the State to the Senate of the United States. The deliberations of that body being conducted in secret, the public possessed but slender means of knowing and appreciating the merits of individual members. But it is certain, from the lead he took in some of its most important trans-

* See page 343 of this Number of the Review.

† Survivor in the late unfortunate duel with General Hamilton.

actions, and from the deference shewn his opinions by his senatorial colleagues, that the character for ability which he had previously acquired, must have been there well sustained. It was, indeed, universally acknowledged, that no other State was so respectably represented as the State of *New-York*, in the combined talents of Mr. *Burr* and Mr *King*.

'His time of service expiring, Mr. *Burr* again returned to the exercise of his profession with a facility which would induce a belief that his legal pursuits had never been interrupted.'

It is impossible to read what follows without being struck with the pernicious and debasing influence of slavery, over the minds of those in whose hands the odious domination is lodged:

'In *Carolina*, the legislative and executive powers of the house belong to the mistress, the master has little or nothing to do with the administration; he is a monument of uxoriousness and passive endurrance. The negroes are not without the discernment to perceive this; and when the husband resolves to flog them, they often throw themselves at the feet of the wife, and supplicate her mediation. But the ladies of *Carolina*, and particularly those of *Charleston*, have little tenderness for their slaves; on the contrary, they send both their men-slaves and women slaves, for the most venial trespass, to a hellish mansion, called the Sugar-house: here a man employs inferior agents to scourge the poor negroes: a shilling for a dozen lashes is the charge: the man, or woman, is stripped naked to the waist; a redoubtable whip at every lash flays the back of the culprit, who, agonized at every pore, rends the air with his cries.

'Mrs. *D*—informed me that a *lady* of *Charleston*, once observed to her, that she thought it abominably dear to pay a shilling for a dozen lashes, and, that having many slaves, she would bargain with the man at the Sugar-house to flog them by the year!'

It may be interesting to many readers to peruse the dialogue between Mr. Davis and a friend on the subject of American authors, which certainly will not raise very high our opinion of the state of literature in the United States:

'Mr. George had a supreme contempt for *American* genius and *American* literature In a sportive mood, he would ask me whether I did not think that it was some physical cause in the air, which denied existence to a poet on *American* ground. No snake, said he, exists in *Ireland*, and no poet can be found in *America*.

'You are too severe, said I, in your strictures. This country, as a native author observes, can furnish her quota of poets.

'Name, will you, one?

'Is not *Dwight*, a candidate for the epic crown? Is he, Sir, not a poet?

'I think not. He wants imagination, and he also wants judgment; Sir, he makes the shield of *Joshua* to mock the rising sun.

'Is not *Barlow* a poet? Is not his Vision of *Columbus* a fine poem?

'The opening is elevated; the rest is read without emotion.

'What

'What think you of *Freneau?*

'*Freneau* has one good ode: *Happy the Man who safe on Shore!* But he is voluminous; and this ode may be likened to *the grain in the bushel of chaff.*

'What is your opinion of *Trumbull?*

'He can only claim the merit of being a skilful imitator.

'Well, what think you of *Humphreys?*

'Sir, his mind is neither ductile to sentiment, nor is his ear susceptible of harmony.

'What opinion do you entertain of *Honeywood?*

'I have read some of his wretched rhymes. The bees, as it is fabled of *Pindar*, never sucked honey from his lips.

'Of the existence of an *American* poet, I perceive, Sir, your mind is rather sceptical. But I hope, you will allow that *America* abounds with good prose.

'Yes, Sir; but, then, mind me, it is imported from the shores of *Great Britain.*

'Oh! monstrous! Is not *Dennie* a good prose writer?

'Sir, the pleasure that otherwise I should find in *Dennie*, is soon accompanied with satiety by his unexampled *quaintness.*

'Of *Brown*, Sir, what is your opinion?

'The style of *Brown*, Sir, is chastised, and he is scrupulously pure. But nature has utterly disqualified him for subjects of humour. Whenever he endeavours to bring forth humour, the offspring of his throes are weakness and deformity. Whenever he attempts humour, he inspires the benevolent with pity, and fills the morose with indignation.

'What think you of the style of *Johnson*, the Reviewer?

'It is not *English* that he writes, Sir; it is *American.* His periods are accompanied by a yell, that is scarcely less dismal than the warhoop of a *Mohawk.*'

Mr. Davis lived in the United States in the several characters of author, tutor, and schoolmaster; and he has interspersed, through his book, several pieces of poetry, some of which are not without traits of merit. Our chief complaint of this gentleman is not occasioned by a positive lack of ability, but by his want of attention to his own deficiences, and by pretensions which he is not able to support. It is really ludicrous to observe the superiority which he assumes over his trans-atlantic acquaintance, among whom he elevates his head as the well-bred and well-educated Englishman; and it is unfortunate that, in some of the dialogues between himself and his American associates, which he publishes in order to expose their vulgarity and conceit, the style and behaviour of the censor himself scarcely offend less than those on which he animadverts.

ART. IX. *The History of the Maroons*, from their Origin to the Establishment of their chief Tribe at Sierra Leone: including the Expedition to Cuba, for the Purpose of procuring Spanish Chasseurs; and the State of the Island of Jamaica for the last ten Years: with a Succinct History of the Island previous to that Period. By R. C. Dallas, Esq. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards, Longman and Co.

THE Maroon war derived peculiar distinction from the complexion of the times, from the critical state and vast importance of the colony in which it existed, from the inveteracy with which it was conducted, from the unusual means which at last were adopted in order to decide it, and from the singular fate of the conquered. Indeed, from the combination of all these circumstances, this was a contest which excited much interest even at the period in which it raged; a period teeming, beyond any other, with awful and portentous events. The subject, therefore, presented matter from the discussion of which an author might derive honourable distinction to himself, and draw important lessons for the benefit of future ages. It would belong to his undertaking to delineate the nature of colonial government; to depict the manners of a race of people but little advanced in civilization; to trace the culpable remissness of a government through all its stages, to that in which it ripens, and invites rebellion; to display the inconsiderateness, temerity, and hauteur that blew up the flame which pliancy and forbearance might have smothered; and to expose the errors that led to a system which cost so many lives, which filled the island with dismay and terror, and which shewed so much likelihood of terminating in incalculable misfortunes. Such, in fact, would most probably have been its issue, but for the expedient suggested by Mr. Quarrel; though, fortunately for the salvation of the colony and the honour of its government, it was not necessary to carry this suggesstion into actual effect:—we allude to the plan of employing the Spanish chasseurs of the island of Cuba, and their blood-hounds, against the Maroons. The historian of these events would also be required to portray, in the person of the commander in chief, an individual who, to great gallantry and address in the field, united eminent wisdom in council, a high sense of honour, and exemplary moderation and humanity. Finally, having detailed the events of a warfare as singular in its nature as any that ever desolated the world, it would remain for him to relate the particulars of a negotiation which was not less out of the ordinary course of human affairs; and to weigh, in an accurate ballance, the justice and the policy of the expulsion of the Maroons.

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In the volumes before us, Mr. Dallas has attempted to fulfil at least some of these objects, and he has done them considerable justice: but we have to regret that he too frequently suffers himself to be diverted from the exclusive pursuit of them; and that, easily drawn aside into devious paths, he too often forgets his main design, and too little regards the unity and symmetry of his production. Yet it should be allowed that to many persons, and particularly to those who are resident in the island of Jamaica, or are connected with it, these irregularities will rather recommend than disparage the work, since they present additional objects interesting to them.

The state of Jamaica is said to have been most flourishing at the commencement of the French Revolution. The subsequent expedition of the British against St. Domingo, which the author does not regard as in its origin favourable to the interests of our own colony, proved farther injurious by stripping it of its troops, and inducing the Convention to pass the decree proclaiming the abolition of slavery, which filled the island with so much alarm, and exposed it to so much danger.

When the Spaniards were driven from Jamaica by the forces of the Commonwealth, in 1655, several of their slaves fled to the mountains, in the impregnable fortresses of which they enjoyed security and independence. This isolated body was afterward frequently reinforced by the negroes belonging to the new inhabitants, who deserted from their masters; and from this mixture the Maroons derived their origin. Mr. Dallas endeavours to vindicate them from the charges of ferocity and brutality, which were brought against them by Mr. Bryan Edwards; he contends that the rugged surface of the district which they inhabited, its keen and wholesome air, and their athletic occupations as hunters of the wild boar, had given a remarkable beauty and symmetry to their form, as well as very superior strength and agility; and he says that they were open, brave, loyal, and attached to the whites. It seems that, from the earliest times, they had indulged in occasional predatory excursions against their white neighbours: but about the year 1730 they carried these to such lengths, as obliged the government to proceed to avowed warfare against them, the particulars of which are here sketched. They were headed by a leader called Cudjoe, a man who wanted none of the qualities requisite in his situation, and who knew how to avail himself of all its advantages. The prowess and skill displayed by the Maroons in this struggle sufficiently indicated how much it was the interest of the government to treat them well, and completely repelled the charge of inferiority of intellect. By the treaty which in 1738 terminated this contest, they were to

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be allowed fifteen hundred acres, and to assist in taking fugitive slaves, in suppressing rebellions, and in resisting invasions; and they are said to have been ever chearfully disposed to fulfil these engagements. Subsequently to this treaty, civilization was gaining ground among them; they possessed all the humble comforts of life; they had all its necessaries in abundance, and many of its delicacies; they had some agriculture; they bred cattle and horses; and they manufactured tobacco. They even hired themselves to the whites to clear the land, and a provident disposition was daily increasing among them: they were remarkable for the honesty, fidelity, and bravery which distinguish man in his natural state; and they were submissive to the government.

At the peace of 1738, Cudjoe had been acknowleged their captain, and exercised an absolute sway over them. The treaty had laid down the order of succession of their rulers, which was strictly followed; and justice was administered among them by a superintendant, assisted by two other whites, appointed by the government of Jamaica. During the authority of Cudjoe, and that of his immediate successors, the situation of the superintendant was comparatively easy: but their later captains, and particularly the last, called Montague, were without power, and the government lay solely in the hands of the superintendant. A man who was excellently adapted for the situation filled this department, till nearly the fatal period in which the insurrection commenced: but his avocations obliged him to be often absent from among them, and to violate the rules of residence which, by his office, he was bound to observe. The Maroons complained of this dereliction of duty to the government; who, to the extreme mortification of the complainants, dismissed the superintendant, instead of obliging him to residence, which had been their sole object in making the complaint; and the loss of this beloved magistrate, the refusal to restore him to them, and the harsh and unbending behaviour of the Governor, were the causes of the calamitous war which had so nearly proved fatal to the most valuable of the British colonies. The account of the conduct of this personage is well worth the perusal of statesmen; not for the purpose of imitation, but as a specimen of what has been humorously denominated the art of losing empires, or that of reducing a large state within more confined limits. This colonial chief regarded force as the only instrument which it became his dignity to employ; and to be lenient to error, to bend to circumstances, or to observe good faith towards these negroe mountainteers, he considered as derogatory to his consequence.

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The state of manners among the Maroons will be collected from the author's detail of the reception which they gave to their white visitors, and the fare with which they regaled them :

'When gentlemen through curiosity visited the town, which was very rarely the case, they were hospitably and respectfully entertained. The visitors could not expect to meet in the houses with such convenient articles of furniture as they were accustomed to at home. Some of the principal men furnished a table with a clean damask cloth, on which they placed the various dainties which they possessed. Several small articles of silver plate were used. Sometimes they produced malt liquors and wine, and always rum. While the company were at dinner, the Captain, or whoever might be the entertainer, appeared in his best cloaths : if a Chief, he wore a kind of regimentals, perhaps some old military coat finely laced, which had been given to him by a gentleman whose name he had assumed * : with this he wore a ruffled shirt, linen waistcoat and trowsers, and a laced hat. He did not presume to eat with his company, or to sit at the table with them, but took his seat at a respectful distance, and conversed occasionally on being addressed. The beds with which they provided their guests were not of feathers, but of wholesome, fine picked corn-trash, with clean sheets. There was seldom occasion for musquito nets, the houses being very rarely infested with those venomous gnats that prove such pests in the lowlands. The Maroons produced candles for the use of their visitors, but at other times a large fire at the door sufficed them for light. They are accused of a practice of prostituting their daughters by force to their guests, but the fact is, that compulsion was not necessary ; and if ever it was used, would their more civilized visitors be exempt from a share of the crime ?' —

'It is to be regretted that among them, as among other negroes, the young women had no scruples in offering themselves to white men in order to procure dress and finery, although they were naturally attached to lovers of their own complexion, who participated their favours, even when kept by the former in a state of ease and comparative splendour.'

Mr. D. thus speaks of the sort of contest, which it is the object of these volumes to narrate :

'Some may be inclined to think a Maroon insurrection a petty warfare of unskilful negroes ; but I believe that the officers who served in this campaign will allow that the events of it, and the tactics opposed to them, if not so grand as those that fill the Grecian and Roman pages of history, were at least as singular and embarrassing as any that were presented to the mind by the enormous armies that, about the same time, extended from one end of Europe to the other. A small body of negroes defied the choicest troops of one of the

'* The Maroon names would appear extraordinary to a reader ignorant of the Maroon custom of adopting the names of the gentlemen of the island. It was universally practised among them.'

greatest

greatest nations in the world, kept an extensive country in alarm, and were at length brought to surrender, only by means of a *subvention* still more extraordinary than their own mode of warfare.'

As the dismissal of a favourite superintendant occasioned the warfare related in these pages, we shall subjoin the account of the office as given by the author, and the sketch which he draws of the individual whose removal constituted the leading grievance of the insurgents:

'The duties of the Superintendant consisted in maintaining a friendly correspondence between the Maroons and the inhabitants of the island, preserving peace in their settlements, preventing the concourse of slaves in the towns, and sending parties out on duty. By his office he was empowered to hold a court with four Maroons, to try those who disobeyed orders, excited or joined in tumults, departed from the towns without leave, or staid out longer than permitted; and to award punishments not extending to life, limb, or transportation. He was bound to reside in his town, from which he was never to be absent longer than a fortnight, without the Governor's leave; and every three months he was to make a return, on oath, to the Governor, of the number residing in his town, how many were able to bear arms, how many unfit for duty, the number of women and children, their increase or decrease, the condition of the Superintendant's house, and the state of the roads. On failure of his duty, the Superintendant was subject to a court martial, and liable to be broke. There was a Superintendant in each town, having a salary of 200*l.*, and he had under him four white men at 60*l.* a-year each.'—

'About the year 1763, the Governor of Jamaica, the Hon. W. Henry Littleton, in consequence of a warm recommendation, appointed John James to be the Superintendant of Trelawney Town. He was the son of John James, who we may remember was, previous to the treaty with Cudjoe, Captain of the corps of Rangers; and their most formidable, active, and enterprising enemy: a man who, from the many dangers to which he had exposed himself in the first war, was by them considered as invulnerable by balls, and possessing an Obeah-protecting power against bullets. The father had also been Superintendant, and no man, his son excepted, ever possessed so great a degree of influence over the Maroons. The high opinion they entertained of the father's bravery and activity descended to the son, in whom they beheld all they so much respected and admired in their old enemy, and friendly Superintendant. As they supposed the former invulnerable, they deemed the latter invincible. Nature never produced a form more calculated for vigour and activity. Barefoot, he equalled the speed of the hardiest Maroons over rocks and precipices, darting on with an agility peculiar to himself. He was indefatigable in every pursuit to which the Maroons were accustomed, and nothing that he pursued escaped him. Hunting the wild boar had been his earliest amusement and employment. His constitution of course was vigorous, and his body hardened; and with these he possessed an intrepidity of mind that seemed to court danger. When dreadful disputes took place among the Maroons, their cutlasses brandished against

against one another, and serious mischief likely to ensue, he would run among the thickest of them, knock down the most refractory, put them into irons, and afterwards punish them. In these cases they would often themselves determine the punishments to be inflicted, which being too severe, he was obliged to exert his authority to mitigate. They loved, venerated, and feared him. He arranged and settled their accounts for their labour, adjusted differences, and neither suffered them to be imposed upon, nor to impose upon others. Had he been born a Maroon, he could not have been better acquainted with their character, disposition, and prejudices. If he could not boast of the greater refinements of education, he had sufficient to be fully competent to the business of his office, in which a knowledge of accounts was necessary; and if his talents were not those that might have been expected, had his mind been more cultivated, they were such as well suited his employment. Although at times seemingly ferocious, he possessed an excellent disposition and forbearing temper, particularly in the company of gentlemen with whom he frequently associated, being himself of one of the best families in the island, and a man of independent fortune. In the year 1791 he was appointed Superintendant-General over the whole of the Maroon Towns in the island, with the rank of Major, and his son appointed to act under him in Trelawney Town. Such was Major John James, of whom it was necessary to speak thus particularly.'

It is very evident that, if James had been restored to his situation among the Maroons, there never would have been a war; since his ascendancy would have kept them in subjection. The mind of the Governor, however, was a prey to alarm; he saw plots and insurrections ready to break out on all sides of him; the false depositions of a French fugitive from St. Domingo were believed; martial law was proclaimed, and the Governor was armed with its powers. He then determined on harsh measures, insisted on unqualified submission, and treated those who conformed to his mandates as captives taken in open war. The consequences were such as the world in general already knows, and which are in part summed up in the following short passage:

'When it is recollected that a handful of untrained negroes had, for near [nearly] five months, defied the whole force of the island, and some of the best troops in his Majesty's service; that many valuable lives had been lost in the contest, while scarcely a rebel had fallen; that many parts of the country had been laid waste; that the enemy who were to be reduced fought differently from every other enemy, could easily evade their assailants, and remove by ways, unknown and inaccessible to the troops from one part of the island to the other; and that they were the descendants of a race of people who had on a similar contest, and by similar warfare, gained their objects, it will not appear surprising that every man who had a stake in the country, every inhabitant of the colony, should feel an alarm, and be anxious for the termination of the war.'

The

The sketch here given of one of the victims who fell in this eventful contest is too interesting to allow of our passing it unnoticed. He had met his fate in consequence of venturing too far among the impregnable fastnesses within which the Maroons had sought their safety; and the author, having related the particulars of the catastrophe, adds:

'No man was ever more lamented than the gallant and amiable Colonel Fitch. In his person he was tall and graceful. The manly beauty of his face expressing the liberality of his mind, rendered his countenance extremely interesting and engaging. Easy and affable in his manners, he was never happier than when relieving the wants of his soldiers, or providing some comfort for the younger officers from his own stores. It was his custom to lay in a stock of things for his men, which he occasionally dealt out in presents or rewards. His social disposition enlivened the tropic summits that were the seat of the Maroon campaign: his table was crowded by his friends, and, by method in his establishment, he threw around his hut a certain elegance that bespoke the gentleman. His activity in the field equalled his modesty in company. He fell in the bloom of youth. He was brave, benevolent, and of a bewitching address. He had talents, and energy to make them useful; he was therefore a great loss to his country: and his private virtues endeared him to his friends, to whom his death was a deep wound.'

The Assembly, finding that the contest was not likely to have a speedy end, became dispirited, indulged in the most gloomy apprehensions, and proposed that terms should be offered to the insurgents: but General Walpole, judging very properly that, in a state of affairs in which the advantage had been wholly on the side of the enemy, such a measure would be unseasonable, successfully resisted it. This brave and judicious soldier, however, never lost a fit opportunity for holding out the olive branch to his mistaken foes: but his invitations were vain, and the war seemed likely to be protracted to an indefinite length; a prospect extremely dismal, when it is considered that apprehensions were entertained from discontent among the negroes within, and from attempts of the enemy without. It was at this period that it occurred to Mr. Quarrel, a member of the Assembly, to propose the introduction of Spanish chasseurs with their dogs, to be employed against the enemy, in order to drive them from places inaccessible to civilized man. Mr. Quarrel was in consequence dispatched to the Havannah; and by a happy combination of firmness, address, and good fortune, he secured the object of his mission, and returned with the allies which he had been sent to engage.

Of the Chasseurs and their dogs, we shall extract parts of the description furnished by Mr. Dallas:

'The dogs carried out by the Chasseurs del Rey are perfectly broken in, that is to say, they will not kill the object they pursue unless resisted. On coming up with a fugitive, they bark at him till he stops, they then couch near him, terrifying him with a ferocious growling if he stirs. In this position they continue barking to give notice to the chasseurs, who come up and secure their prisoner. Each chasseur, though he can hunt only with two dogs properly, is obliged to have three, which he maintains at his own cost, and that at no small expence. These people live with their dogs, from which they are inseparable. At home the dogs are kept chained, and when walking with their masters, are never unmuzzled, or let out of ropes, but for attack. They are constantly accompanied with one or two small dogs called finders, whose scent is very keen, and always sure of hitting off a track. Dogs and bitches hunt equally well, and the chasseurs rear no more than will supply the number required. This breed of dogs, indeed, is not so prolific as the common kinds, though infinitely stronger and hardier. The animal is the size of a very large hound, with ears erect, which are usually cropped at the points; the nose more pointed, but widening very much towards the after-part of the jaw. His coat, or skin, is much harder than that of most dogs, and so must be the whole structure of the body, as the severe beatings he undergoes in training would kill any other species of dog. There are some, but not many, of a more obtuse nose, and which are rather squarer set. These, it may be presumed, have been crossed by the mastiff, but if by this the bulk has been a little increased, it has added nothing to the strength, height, beauty, or agility, of the native breed.

'The chasseur has no other weapon than a long strait muschet, or couteau, longer than a dragoon's sword, and twice as thick, something like a flat iron bar sharpened at the lower end, of which about eighteen inches are as sharp as a razor. The point is not unlike the old Roman sword. The steel of them is excellent, and made at Guanabacoa, about three miles from the Havanna. The handle of the muschet is without a guard, but scolloped to admit the fingers and suit the grasp. These men are under an officer of high rank, the Alcade Provinciale, and receive a good pay from the Government, besides private rewards for particular and extraordinary services. They are a very hardy, brave, and desperate set of people, scrupulously honest, and remarkably faithful.'—

'The activity of the chasseurs no negro on earth can elude; and such is their temperance, that with a few ounces of salt for each, they can support themselves for whole months on the vegetable and farinacious food afforded by the woods. They drink nothing stronger than water, with which, when at a distance from springs, they are copiously supplied by the wild pine, by the black and grape withes, which are about two inches in diameter, and the roots of the cotton-tree. Of the last, six feet junked off the smaller part of the root, where it tapers to the thickness of a man's thigh, will yield several gallons of water. In the greatest drough. these resources seldom fail. For the wild pine they are obliged to climb trees; but that they do almost with the velocity of a monkey. This plant takes root on the body of a tree, and the leaves

leaves of it are so formed as to catch the rain and conduct it to a reservoir at the base, where being never exposed to the sun, it is found delightfully fresh and cool. But the easiest method of obtaining water in the woods, and with less delay on a march, is from the black and grape withes: it is done with greater expedition than drinking at a spring. The chasseur catches a pendent withe, which, with his muschet, he divides about two feet from the ground, and applies the end of the withe, as it hangs, to his mouth, or to his dog's, who indicates his thirst: he then cuts the withe off about six feet higher, keeping the upper end elevated, when the air being admitted above, he receives through the porous fibres of it near a quart of delightful cold water. With respect to animal food, if any of them happen to desire it, they find no difficulty in obtaining it. The little finder, if set on, but not otherwise, will soon bay one of the wild hogs with which the woods abound; the animal, retreating for shelter to the trunk of a tree, is immediately transfixed with a lance. The men cure as much of the flesh as they think they will have occasion for, by scoring it internally to the skin, sprinkling it with salt, and smoking it; over the smoke they throw some aromatic leaves, which not only add to its flavour, but assist in preserving it. The meat thus cured will keep for months, and is esteemed a very great dainty by the most refined Epicures. It is in fact the jirked hog, already mentioned in the account of the Maroon mode of life. The part of the hog not preserved is given to the dogs. The pursuit of the game is entirely the province of the finder; the larger dogs, from their training, would pass a hog without notice: were one of them to bark at a hog, he would be severely punished. The chasseurs beat their dogs most unmercifully, using the flat sides of their heavy muschets.'

As these strange confederates, by the very terror of their presence on the island, had the effect of inducing the Maroons to yield, it is unnecessary to descant on the lawfulness of the measure: but we know of no plans of *terrifying* an enemy to submission that are prohibited by the laws of war. General Walpole, whose conduct was always marked as much by humanity as ability, took every occasion of offering terms to the enemy, awed as they were by these new foes. The terms were received; and the Maroons promised to surrender themselves, on condition that they were not to be banished from the colony. This proposal was accepted by the General; and though the negroes, on account of their distrust of the whites, did not surrender on the very day stipulated, he still encouraged them to come-in, without ever intimating to them that they had forfeited the benefit originally granted as a return for their immediate submission. Certainly, nothing was more remote from the intentions of that honourable person, than to deprive them of this benefit; and they all at length surrendered, and all relied on the promise to which the General had bound himself, and the government for which he acted.

The Government, however, and the Assembly, taking into consideration the terms of the treaty, satisfied themselves that, as the Maroons did not come in at the time stipulated, the terms originally settled were not binding on them; and they decreed that the unhappy negroes should be transported. They were consequently conveyed, first to Canada, and finally to Sierra Leone.—General Walpole, as might be expected from a person of his loyalty and high sense of honour, resenting the measure, refused any longer to serve a government that had violated engagements which he deemed sacred.

If we review the conduct of the Council and Assembly of Jamaica, as it respects both the Maroons and their own servants, we perceive no solicitude on their part to gain the character either of magnanimous and generous foes, or of liberal patrons. While their affairs are adverse, they are willing to receive terms from their enemy: but no sooner does fortune place him in their hands, than nothing will satisfy them but his expulsion. Their obligations to General Walpole and to Mr. Quarrel stood acknowleged, yet they are deaf to the just remonstrances of the one, and insult the other by the cold and parsimonious returns which they make for his services.

We have now furnished the reader with an outline of this singular history; and we could fill it up with many interesting and amusing details, if we had adequate space. For these, however, for the subsequent particulars respecting the Maroons after their transportation, and for various additional materials relative to the island of Jamaica, we must advise the inquisitive to consult the volumes of Mr. Dallas; which certainly afford much of both information and entertainment. They are furnished with plates representing old Cudjoe making peace, and a Chasseur of the Island of Cuba with his dogs; a map of Jamaica; and the seat of the Maroon War.

ART. X. *Remarks on the Uses of the definitive Article in the Greek Text of the New Testament*, containing many new Proofs of the Divinity of Christ, from Passages which are wrongly translated in the common English Version. By Granville Sharp. To which is added an Appendix, containing 1. A Table of Evidences of Christ's Divinity, by Dr. Whitby. 2. A plain Argument from the Gospel History for the Divinity of Christ, by the former learned Editor (Dr. Burgess, now Bishop of St. David's). And two other Appendixes, added by the Author. Third Edition. 12mo. pp. 188. 3s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

ART. XI. *Six Letters to Granville Sharp*, Esq. respecting his Remarks on the Uses of the definitive Article in the Greek Text

of the New Testament. 8vo. pp. 155. 4s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons.

ART. XII. *Six more Letters to Granville Sharp*, Esq. on his Remarks upon the Uses of the Article in the Greek Testament. By Gregory Blunt, Esq. 8vo. pp. 220. 4s. Johnson.

IN these publications, the authors have attempted to revive a controversy which we had flattered ourselves had subsided, at least among learned men; and we enter on the examination of them with reluctance, having no desire of signalizing ourselves as combatants in this wordy warfare. It is impossible, however, for us to perform our duty, on this occasion, with an absolute concealment of our opinion. We cannot even express our surprise at the annunciation of *new* arguments for the Divinity of Christ, in the 19th century of the Christian Æra, without being suspected of entertaining doubts, at least, of the truth of the doctrine itself; and if we farther proceed to accuse those writers of an indiscreet zeal who seek for proofs of this system in the use of a grammatical article, we shall probably subject ourselves to the accusation of coming to the inquiry with a biassed judgment. Be this as it may, we shall observe that a mysterious dogma of faith, like a rite or ceremonial institution, as it cannot be inferred from the light of nature, but must entirely rest on Revelation, requires to be expressed and promulgated in terms the most full, direct, and unequivocal; and that, if such terms are employed in stating it, and in enjoining the duties immediately connected with it, the plain and prudent course would be to appeal at once to the broad letter of the divine statute, and never to aim at deducing it from weak or dubious premises. What must common Christians think of being now referred to the use of articles and copulatives for proofs of a fundamental doctrine? What must they think of the perspicuity of the N. T. and of all the learned men who have, from age to age, been employed in studying, translating, and commenting on it, if new evidences of the Divinity of that Person are still to be discovered, who is the great subject of its revelation? Had we been consulted in this business, we should have advised the parties to make no public ostentation of these new proofs, and to rest satisfied with the common mode of defence: but, since they are given to the world, we must endeavour to report their general substance, and enable our readers to ascertain their fair amount. We have not space for entering into the whole of this discussion, nor for displaying the argumentation in all the parts into which

which it is ramified; though we trust that we shall put our readers in possession of its force and general purport.

Mr. Granville Sharp, in the first of the three publications before us, is announced as the author of the discovery respecting the uses of the definitive article in the Greek Text of the N. T. for which he is complimented by his learned editor Dr. Burgess, now Bishop of St. David's; and he is supported in his remarks by a learned coadjutor, Mr. C. Wordsworth, of Trinity College, Cambridge, in the 'Six Letters to Granville Sharp, Esq.'—Against all the learning and ingenuity of these gentlemen, however, an individual, who has chosen to subscribe himself Gregory Blunt, [that there may be Blunt *versus* Sharp,] has ventured to stand forwards, and in the 'Six more Letters to G. S. Esq.' has endeavoured to subvert the groundwork of their reasoning and deductions. Conceiving that he is a complete match for his opponents, he amuses himself with capering and curveting, and makes his thrusts not only with dexterity, but with playfulness. He is *blunt* in his style, though not obtuse; and from the manner in which Mr. Sharp replies to him, in the preface to the third edition of his Remarks, we should suppose that, whatever Mr. S. may think of Gregory's faith, he has no mean opinion of his talents and acquisitions.

Mr. Sharp is desirous of correcting the translation of several important texts in the present English version of the N. T. in order that they may speak decidedly (as he supposes the original passages to do,) in favour of the Divinity of Christ, or assert Jesus Christ to be truly God. To prepare the way for this new translation, he lays down several *rules* respecting the use of the definitive article, subjoining various examples, and giving such exceptions and limitations as he deems necessary to complete accuracy and precision. Since the author allows that the first rule is of more consequence than any of the rest, we shall transcribe it, with the example with which it is illustrated, as a specimen of the whole.

'Rule I. *When the copulative* και *connects two nouns of the same case,* [*viz. nouns* (*either substantive or adjective, or participles*) *of personal description respecting office, dignity, affinity, or connection, and attributes, properties, or qualities, good or ill,*] *if the article* ὁ, *or any of its cases, precedes the first of the said nouns or participles, and is not repeated before the second noun or participle,* the latter always relates to the same person that is expressed or described by the first noun or participle: i. e. it denotes a farther description of the first-named person; as,—και εθεραπευσεν αυτον, ωστε ΤΟΝ τυφλον ΚΑΙ κωφον και λαλειν και βλεπειν. Matth. xii. 22. And, again, Ευλογητος Ὁ Θεος ΚΑΙ Πατηρ τε Κυριε ἡμων Ιησε Χριστε, Ὁ Πατηρ των οικτιρμων ΚΑΙ Θεος πασης παρακλησεως. 2 Cor. i. 3. This last sentence contains two examples of the first rule. See also in 2 Cor. xi. 31. Ὁ Θεος ΚΑΙ Πατηρ τε Κυριε ἡμων Ιησε Χριστου οιδεν, &c. Also in

Eph. vi. 21. Τυχικος ὁ αγαπητος αδελφος ΚΑΙ πιστος διακονος εν Κυριῳ. Also in Heb. iii. 1. κατανοησατε ΤΟΝ αποστολον ΚΑΙ αρχιερεα της ὁμολογιας ἡμων Ιησεν Χριστον, &c. See also in 2 Pet. ii. 20. εν επιγνωσει ΤΟΥ Κυριε ΚΑΙ Σωτηρος Ιησ Χριστ, &c. And again, in 2 Pet. iii. 2. και της των αποστολων ἡμων εντολης, ΤΟΥ Κυριε ΚΑΙ Σωτηρος. And again, in 2 Pet. iii. 18. Αυξανετε δε εν χαριτι και γνωσει ΤΟΥ Κυριε ἡμων ΚΑΙ Σωτηρος Ιησ Χριστ. αυτῳ ἡ δοξα και νυν και εις ἡμεραν αιωνος, αμην.'

The use which Mr. S. would make of this rule, (which, as a general one, will not be controverted,) in correcting the common translation, will be seen in his first example of sentences which fall under the first rule, and are improperly rendered, according to his judgment, in the English version.

'Example II. Eph. v. 5. ——ουκ εχει κληρονομιαν εν τῃ βασιλειᾳ ΤΟΥ ΧΡΙΣΤΟΥ ΚΑΙ ΘΕΟΥ.

'In the common English version the sentence is rendered, "*No whoremonger, &c. hath any inheritance in the kingdom of Christ, and of God.*" As if two persons had been mentioned in the original text; but as the part of the sentence above cited is the generally-approved reading of the printed *Greek copies*, and as this reading is confirmed by the Alexandrian MS. and by all other Greek MSS. of known authority, it affords an unquestionable proof against *the apostacy of the Socinians* in their *denial of divine honour to our Lord the Christ, or Messiah*, who, according to the idiom of the Greek tongue, is in this text expressly intitled Θεος, "GOD," though the proof does not appear in the English version. Let it be remarked that the two substantives of personal description Χριστ and Θεω, are joined by the copulative και, and that the article τ precedes the first, and that there is no article before the word Θεω, whereby, according to *the first rule*, both titles are *necessarily* to be applied to *one* and the same person, and (if literally rendered in English) should be,—"hath no inheritance in the kingdom of *the Christ and God.*" But this *literal* rendering does not sufficiently express the necessary doctrine of the Greek, that the *Christ* is *also God:* and therefore to help the English idiom, and to accommodate the rendering more strictly to the true meaning of the Greek, the name of *Jesus*, which is necessary to be *understood*, might very fairly be inserted in *italic*, or between hooks, as a parenthesis, to supply the necessary sense of the Greek; as, "in the kingdom of (Jesus) the Christ and God:" or else to be rendered, "*in the kingdom of Christ, (even) of God.*"

From the first of Mr. Sharp's correspondents, (Mr. Wordsworth,) he derives much encouragement to believe in the absolute truth of his principle of translation; for he is assured, in addition to a host of learned quotations from the later Fathers marshalled on his side, that, exclusively of the few passages in which he wishes to reform the common version, 'there is not one exception to his first rule in the whole New Testament.' Mr. W. declares, moreover, 'that the idiom is not "*anceps*," not "ambiguum;" and he adds that 'the Greek must be a *strange* language if such a thing were possible.'

Not

Not so complaisant and flattering is Mr. Sharp's second correspondent, Gregory Blunt. In the 'Six more Letters,' *more* is advanced against Mr. Sharp's rules, as universal grammatical positions, than the six preceding Letters produce in their favour. It is not allowed by this writer that the due distinction of persons is *peculiarly* maintained in the Greek tongue by the use of its article; and he reminds Mr. S. of a remark in Bishop Lowth's Grammar to an opposite effect; where the Bp. observes "on the near affinity between the Greek article and the English definite article, and the excellence of the English language in this respect, which, by means of its two articles, does most precisely determine the extent of signification of common names: whereas the Greek has only one article, and it has puzzled all the grammarians to reduce the use of that to any clear and certain rules."

As to the affinity between the two languages in the use of the article, Mr. Blunt first attempts to shake the universality of Mr. Sharp's rule, by appealing to modes of expression in the vernacular tongue:

'Some Goth, regardless of beauty and ingenuity, might take it into his head to ask you, if you had no faint idea of ever having in print, or in manuscript, such as you could read without any suspicion of its having been tampered with by Socinians, met with expressions like these:—*the* king *and* queen; *the* husband *and* wife; *the* father *and* son; *the* mother *and* daughter; *the* master *and* mistress, &c. &c.? And this question might tempt some daring despiser of *authority*, without having the fear of the Fathers before his eyes, and destitute of all proper veneration for the cobwebs of Duck lane, to put it to your correspondent, whether, in the many volumes of *sound* divinity, which a man of his immense reading must have 'waded through,' *he* too had never met with such a phrase as: *the* father, son, *and* holy ghost?"

Apprehensive that this mode of reply might be thought to be too playful, and not sufficiently learned and profound, Mr. B. advances to the charge in the panoply of Greek criticism; and while he contends that the true sense and meaning of an author's words will be better decided by the context than by any petty, minute, and verbal criticism on articles and conjunctions, he does not decline the contest even on the ground which Mr. Sharp and his coadjutor have chosen. He first shews that Mr. Wordsworth is unfortunate in his quotations from the Fathers, and then discusses the 1st example given in Mr. Sharp's Remarks.

'There is an example, which overturns your ingenious theory, and which is placed beyond the reach of your limitations, to be found in the following words, which your correspondent has quoted in

page 122 of his Letters, from Justin Martyr; τε σωτηρος ημων Ιησε Χριστε και πνευματος αγιε. Apolg. i. p. 131. § 79. Ashton's edit. As you yourself have used πνευμα αγιον, as a personal noun, in the second example of your second rule, taken from Luke ii. 26, you cannot but consider this passage of Justin as conforming to all your limitations, and as perfectly unobjectionable every way.'

On the example brought by Mr. S. himself to enforce his rule, Mr. B. says:

'Εν τη βασιλεια τε χριστε και θεε. Ephes. v. 5.

'Here we must observe, that χριστος is not a proper name, but an epithet *. This you allow, calling it (p. 30.) a 'substantive' (though, by the bye, it is an adjective) 'of personal description;' and this your limitations oblige you to allow, or you could not consistently here apply your rule. Though you have, notwithstanding, rendered it as a proper name in your corrected version, both in the table of contents, and in the last of your translations given in page 31.

'Now χριστος being an epithet, you render the expression quite harsh and intolerable, by making that word relate to the same person as θεος; and that, whether you understand this latter word as a substantive of personal description, which you affirm it to be in page 30, or as a proper name, in which way you translate it in all your versions of this passage, again contradicting yourself with regard to this word as you had before done with regard to the other. How very harsh the phrase becomes by referring the two nouns to one and the same person, cannot but be evident to every one who will but render them literally, as subjects of a proposition, or nominative cases to a verb.

'He must be a rude writer indeed, more rude I think than the most rude of the Galilean penmen, who should say: "The anointed and God" (meaning thereby one and the same person) "did so and so." Would any one ever think of expressing himself thus: "The eternal and God" (meaning the same being) "created the heavens?" This would be like a prophane writer's telling us, that "the great and Alexander conquered the world." And you do not at all mend the matter, if you do not make it worse, by translating και by *even*. For not to urge that, και so rendered, not being a copulative, the phrase, strictly speaking, would not come under your rule, we may observe that, according to this rendering, the particle becomes not merely an expletive, but a perfect incumbrance. To say, "In the kingdom of the anointed even God," if one and the same Being be

* 'From a passage in Tertullian, it seems as if it were not *familiarly* used as a proper name till about his time. Si tamen nomen est Christus et non appellatio potius; *unctus* enim significatur. Unctus autem non magis nomen est quam vestitus, quam calceatus, accidens nomini res. Tertull. advers. Prax. c. xxviii. Christus commune dignitatis est nomen, Jesus proprium vocabulum salvatoris. Hieronym. in Matt. xvi. 20. vol. iv.'

intended,

intended, is exactly like saying: "In the contemplation of the divine even Being." Every writer who had that meaning in view, would certainly omit καὶ, *even*, as a word that obscured, instead of elucidating, his meaning.'

Not satisfied with shewing that Mr. Sharp's proposed alterations of the common version would be no improvements, Mr. Blunt proceeds to suggest amendments of his own. 2 Thess. i. 12. he would render, '*By the blessing of the God of us and the Lord of Jesus Christ*,' and 1 Tim. v. 21. '*Before the God and Lord of Jesus Christ.*' We as little admire these alterations as those which Mr. S. has recommended. Jesus Christ is called the Lord of his disciples; in John, xiii. 13. our Saviour approves the appellation of Lord or κυριος as used towards him by his disciples; and in Phil. ii. 11. every tongue is required to confess οτι Κύριος Ἰησοῦς Χριστὸς: so that we see no reason for this pointed Unitarian gloss, nor any objection to the version as it stands at present. Still less can we subscribe to that which is given by Mr. Blunt as a literal version of 2 Peter i. 1. '*In the righteousness of the God of us and Saviour of Jesus Christ.*'

Instead of attempting to invalidate the accuracy of Mr. Blunt's general strictures and conclusions, Mr. Sharp, in the preface to the third edition of his Remarks, confines himself to lamentations over his antagonist for want of faith, to kindly reprobating his 'Socinian blasphemy' and 'jacobinical way,' and to intimating a connection between Papists and Socinians for the perversion of the true primitive doctrines. He might, however, as well have talked of a connection between Quakers and Gentoos; and as to the declamation spred through this preface, however serious its aspect, it is a poor substitute for argument.

We abstain from noticing the other contents of these publications.

ART. XIII. *A System of Theoretical and Practical Chemistry*; with Plates. By Frederic Accum, teacher of Practical Chemistry, Pharmacy, and Mineralogy, and Chemical Operator in the Royal Institution of Great Britain. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. about 350 in each. 18s. Boards. Kearsley.

ALTHOUGH this work be little more than an industrious compilation, it has indisputable claims to the attention of the public; and we have the greater pleasure in seeing elementary treatises of this kind multiplied in our own language, because our neighbours have long claimed a decided superiority in productions of this nature, and our eagerness in translating their works and adopting their innovations seemed a tacit ac-

knowlegement of this boasted pre-eminence. That there does not, however, even at this day, exist any elementary treatise of chemistry which can be said fully to answer the object of rendering this science both easy and popular, any one who is conversant with the subject will be ready to admit. Mr. Accum, therefore, (who professes to write for beginners,) was fully authorized to think that such an attempt, modest as its object appeared to be, might be productive of considerable utility; and we shall now proceed to inquire how far he has succeeded in his laudable views, and to what degree he has filled this vacuum in the elementary part of our philosophical studies.

The whole work is divided into parts or chapters, 32 of which are contained in the first volume, and 99 in the second. With regard to the arrangement and division of the subject, we do not remark any thing either new or systematical enough to require much comment or explanation: but our attention was unavoidably caught, at the first view, by the uncommon proportion of paper which is occupied by divisions and subdivisions, and by formal titles prefixed to every fact, experiment, or observation; as also with the exaggerated display, continually made, of unmeaning symmetry and method, which distresses the reader, and checks his progress by superfluous interruptions.

After having explained the objects and history of chemistry, the general nature of *Simple Bodies*, and the meaning of their denomination, the author presents us with an enumeration of those bodies, which he divides into such as are and such as are not producible by art. Instead, however, of proceeding according to the order of this enumeration, we are previously led through a large portion of theory and generalities, first to some preliminaries on the phænomena of attraction and repulsion in general, and afterward to the laws of attraction, and of cohesion in particular, which he constantly distinguishes by the name of *corpuscular* attraction, in preference to any more simple or more intelligible term. At length, we arrive at the beginning of our subject, and the laws of chemical affinity are stated and explained. Then follows the subject of heat and light; of which, in imitation of Mr. Davy, the present author forms a grand division, under the head of *imponderable* substances, in opposition to all the other objects of chemical knowlege which are termed *ponderable*. Oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, (considered not as gases but as radicals) sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon, are successively examined. We then find a chapter on the formation of gases; and immediately afterward, all the gases, whether simple or compound, whether

ther combustible or incombustible, acid or alkaline, are promiscuously treated. These, with a statement of the modern theories of combustion, conclude the first volume.

Above one half of Vol II. is devoted to the history and properties of metals; and next to these, the earths and alkalies are rapidly examined. The theory of the composition and decomposition of water is here, for the first time, introduced, as being one of the combinations of oxygen with combustible bodies; and this leads us at last to the acids and their principal combinations, through which we are immediately hurried to the end of the work. Before he concludes, however, and without any apology for this excessive haste, the author contents himself with giving what he calls a general view of the chemical phænomena belonging to the vegetable and animal creation, which is in reality little more than an index, and does not altogether occupy above twenty pages.

With regard to the arrangement adopted in this publication, the more we consider it, the less disposed we feel to coincide with the author's views in this respect. We cannot see on what ground he rests his division of simple bodies into those which are *producible* or *nonproducible by art*: for no simple substance, in our opinion, can, with strict propriety, be said to be produced by art, since art only extricates or disengages a body from its combinations, but does not *produce* it. Neither can we reconcile ourselves to a long and elaborate dissertation on the laws of chemical attraction, as an introduction to the elements of chemical science. We know that it has been customary with most writers, and most lecturers, to adopt this plan: but it is perhaps the very reason why we so often see intelligent beginners disgusted and discouraged at the first outset. How, for instance, allowing that a beginner should succeed in forming a conception of the laws of chemical attraction, as far as their abstract statement goes; how, we would ask, can it possibly be expected that those experiments and illustrations, which accompany each of these laws, should present any clear or satisfactory idea to his mind? These experiments and illustrations, we are ready to admit, Mr. Accum has often chosen with sagacity and judgment: yet we should have no difficulty in pointing out many instances in which they must be necessarily unintelligible to the beginner; and we can even venture to say that there is scarcely one of these experiments in which we could not find words, or facts, or allusions to facts, to which a novice in chemistry, who has advanced only thus far in the perusal of the work, must be a perfect stranger. When, therefore, the author tells us in his preface that he has 'proceeded from generals to particulars,'

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and yet adds that he 'writes for beginners' he forgets that this retrograde march of the human mind is an effort of philosophy which cannot reasonably be expected from those whom he professes to teach.

Passing to other divisions of his arrangement, we are glad to find the subject of Heat first introduced; since none can be better calculated, nor is any more indispensably required, for the elucidation of the subsequent portions of the work: but we cannot say that the author appears to us very successful in his view of this important agent. He has certainly laboured greatly to bring together a variety of facts and theories, but he might have effected this object with more clearness and simplicity. Altogether, indeed, we think that this subject is but indifferently arranged and digested. Instead, for instance, of drawing, once for all, a distinct line between the physical and the chemical properties of caloric, he passes from the expanding or dilating power of heat, and its laws of equilibrium and propagation, to the subject of latent and specific heat, and afterward returns to that of radiation.

Another part of Mr. Accum's system of arrangement appears to us very exceptionable. After having treated of oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon, instead of acquainting us immediately with the earths, the alkalies, and the formation of acids; and instead of taking the earliest opportunity of introducing us to the fundamental doctrines of combustion, and the composition of water, which are absolutely required in order to understand the subsequent parts of the work; we are laboriously led through a minute examination of all the gases:—among which we find acids and alkalies (with the nature of which we are totally unacquainted), and a great variety of illustrations and experiments, which the reader must be supposed to be as yet wholly unable to comprehend.

Of the style of this production, we cannot speak either with much praise or much censure. Simplicity is the quality in which it appears to us most deficient; and we have sometimes been induced to regret that, in attempting to elevate his expressions, the author has lost sight of that perspicuity of language which, in every subject, ought to be considered as the first requisite.

The plates are five in number, and well executed: but they are less intended to illustrate any particular part of the text, than to exhibit some improved chemical apparatus, at the head of which Mr. Accum has placed his *improved gazometers.*

In conclusion, notwithstanding the numerous imperfections which we have pointed out, we are extremely willing to admit that the present work places, in a very favourable light, the

industry of the author, and his qualifications as a practical Chemist; and that it contains a mass of facts and theoretical references which may not only assist the student, but also, in many instances, relieve the memory of the teacher, and suggest useful hints to the experimental Chemist.

ART. XIV. *Scripture illustrated*, by means of Natural Science. Parts VII. and VIII. * 4to. pp. 190. 5s. each Part. C. Taylor.

WE may now congratulate the editor, on having brought to its conclusion this laborious and scientific work. The time, the diligence, and the exertions in different ways, requisite to its accomplishment, must have been very considerable; and we can readily excuse the exclamation which, towards the end of one of the dissertations on serpents, flashes on us unawares;—'the reader will scarcely believe the labour it has cost us!'—The Dictionary of Calmet corrected, enlarged, and improved; Fragments, very numerous, Supplement in four parts (*only*), Scripture illustrated by means of Natural Science, &c. constitute altogether, a mass of information and instruction, which may justly excite the commendation of the reader, as affording full proof of the industry of the editor, and of some others who were united with him in preparing it for public notice.

The two parts at present before us furnish comments on several subjects, from which it would be easy to make selections that would be acceptable to the reader: but, as we have already introduced some speciments of this kind, we must be contented with offering very little addition.

Remarks on the book of Jonah supply one article. We have briefly adverted to the conjecture that, by the *fish* which is said to have swallowed the prophet, might be designed a boat or vessel in that form, (not unusual, we are told, in those days,) which was prepared to receive him:—it is now farther remarked, 'a whale does not feed on living flesh, as the shark does; it is by no means a voracious animal; and therefore if a *huge fish* is what is intended in this history, the shark bids fairest to answer the character required: but the same word may signify a *floater*, generally, vide Dagon, plate, 1 Sam. v.'—We mention this incidentally, and chiefly for the sake of the word *floater*.—We more particularly wish to insert

'Chapter iv. ver. 6, 7, 8.

'*The gourd* of Jonah should be no trivial lesson to theological disputants. So long ago as the days of *Jerome* and *Augustine*, those learned men and pious fathers differed as to what plant it was; and

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* See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 57.

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they not only differed in words, but from words they proceeded to blows; and *Jerome* was accused of heresy at Rome, by Augustine. Jerome thought this plant was an ivy, and pleaded the authority of *Aquila Symmachus, Theodotion*, and others: *Augustine* thought it was a gourd, and he was supported by the *Seventy*, the *Syriac*, the *Arabic*, &c. &c. Had either of them ever seen the plant? No—which of them then was right? Neither.—Let the errors of these pious and good men teach us to think more mildly, if not more meekly, respecting our own opinions; and not to exclaim heresy! or to enforce the exclamation, when the subject is of so little importance as —gourds *versus* ivy.'

In this work, it is supposed that the *Ricinus*, sometimes called the *Palma Christi*, was intended in this place: but it is to be remembered that there is a difference between plants of the same class, when they are natives of different countries.

Let us now attend to a dissimilar, yet appropriate subject:

Matthew, chap. ii. ver. 2. 9.

The star of the *Magi*.

After other pertinent reflections relative to the phænomenon of a *flying fire*, seen throughout a kingdom, and to a farther distance, though reckoned only 14 miles above the earth, it is remarked:

'We are not then to take the word *star strictly* for a celestial body, but for a meteor, not very high in the air:—we ourselves may see most evenings, in proper weather, falling *stars*, or lambent *flames*, or other meteors, which, in common language, are called *stars*, though very improperly. A meteor of a more stationary, tranquil kind, not rapid, not very high above the clouds, perhaps hardly so high as the clouds usually float, may describe the *star* of the *Magi*.—This meteor, then, appears to have been an *over ruled* phenomenon, according with the laws of nature, not a new star, properly speaking; but more effective to the purpose intended, than any star, properly celestial, could possibly be.'

We shall insert one more passage, merely as it is the last in the *Expository Index to the Bible*, and may indicate in what manner the expositor wishes to take leave of the reader:

'Revelation, chap. xxi. ver. 25.

There shall be no night there.

'This passage describes a residence very different from our own: once all was night, darkness, desolation, on *this* globe which we inhabit; and in its best estate, only half enjoys light, the other half being in darkness. Whether it revolve, or whether it rest, this is its lot; half only can enjoy the day. If this passage describe a different world, it also describes different inhabitants. Could mortals bear perpetual day? without night for repose, for recruiting strength, wasted and worn in the activities of life? No; this passage cannot refer to us in our present condition; flesh and blood cannot sustain

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the glory; we must stay till this mortal shall have put on immortality, till this corruptible shall have put on incorruption, till death be swallowed up of life:—then may we support incessant day—the brilliancy, the ardour, the penetration of light itself, we may then *enjoy*, in degrees now inconceivable; and then too, may the righteous themselves "shine as the sun in the kingdom of their Father." If any in the mean time is desirous of asking, *where* shall this be?—we must answer with modesty,—with conjecture.—it may be on the globe of our sun itself that our appointed new heaven (atmosphere) and new earth exist; it may be in some of those regions where the telescope of the astronomer sees vast expanses of light;—light diffused in one wide flood, in which all inhabitants are immersed. *There* glows no sun in which light is concentrated; *there* is no mass of light, specifically appointed to supply that important fluid: all is incessantly enlightened; all emits light, as well as receives it; all is light.

'The beginning of this department of our work was in *darkness*, in *gloom*, only partially dissipated, at best: but we close it with a subject, whose effulgence is beyond our conception, whose splendour and fervour exceed our imaginations;—and well it may,—"for eye hath not seen, nor ear heard, neither hath it entered into the heart of man to conceive,—the things which God hath prepared for those who love him!"

With such sentiments finishes a performance, which, we believe, has been, and will yet be, well received and respected by the public. While it displays the industry, ingenuity, and ability of the composers, it is calculated to contribute greatly to general entertainment, information, and solid utility. Imperfections and defects might, no doubt, be pointed out; and not unfrequently all that we can attain may be probable conjecture: but even this affords some benefit, and in other instances greater satisfaction is derived. Oriental antiquities, manners, customs, &c. may easily lead astray the inquisitive and diligent, although wise and cautious; and the present editor seems to be sensible of this danger.—In a dissertation which is found in the last part of this performance, designed 'to illustrate the history of *Melchizedek*,' whom he supposes to have been the patriarch *Shem*, after some learned and acute remarks, (though questionable, perhaps,) the editor thus proceeds:

'What we have said opens so many new appearances, that it is proper they should be examined before we proceed farther. If it be found, on candid inquiry, that these ideas are erroneous, they can have done no harm as yet; if, on the contrary, they be found agreeable to truth, they will, under the direction of Providence, be investigated, and their veracity acknowledged, till at length, that information which we have been labouring to communicate, has its proper influence, in relieving the *sacred oracles*, from that burden of human error, under which sundry parts of them have been long disgraced, if not mutilated, depressed, if not destroyed.'

In reference to this dissertation, it is added:

'The reader will consider the foregoing, as specimens of those statements which might form part of our intended "Connection of sacred and profane history:" it is, indeed, an abstract of two essays, composed for that work, but which we have taken this opportunity of submitting to the public, for various reasons; not the least of which is a desire of gathering those opinions on our principles, which their novelty at least may expect. We are aware that our suggestions are directly opposite to those which are current among the learned, and particularly to those of the very erudite Mr. Bryant: that gentleman supposes, to be *Shemite* kings, those whom we have taken for *Hamites*; he supposes the shepherd kings from India (our *Palli*) to have been expelled Egypt before the sons of Jacob entered it; but we presume to think that circumstances accord much better with our own principles than with his. It is not to be expected that in this abstract all our authorities, or all our observations, can be given on subjects like the present. Much remains to be done, and Providence will engage *somebody* to do it, whether or not that *somebody* be ourselves. In times so long antecedent to what regular histories are come down to us, we are necessitated to accept the services of the meanest assistants, tradition, allusion, hyperbole, and hieroglyphics: wherever a trace of truth appears, however faint, or its aspect however unpromising, there is our attention, and often, our anxiety, directed. Long, very long, is the true sense of such obscurities, before it can be seized or appreciated by the mind; that a truth is enveloped under such concealment, is often a persuasion or a perception of the mind, long before the nature of that truth is discovered, and when the nature of such a truth is fortunately brought forth to open day, the application of it remains for yet protracted consideration; and who can ensure his mind from viewing truth itself under an obliquity which may render it deceptive? Let then these difficulties engage us to accept with candour the labours of those, whose efforts are thus directed; being well aware, that, under the blessing of Providence, the honour of illustrating Holy Scripture is to be expected only from diligence and impartiality, from a talent given, not for concealment, but for employment; but which nevertheless, though exerted with the utmost care and sincerity, is not therefore infallible.'

We shall not comment much on the above account, which it seemed requisite for us to lay before the reader. We know well that there is a kind of knowlege, which, though regarded as deep and recondite, may serve to obscure rather than to elucidate, to weaken rather than to strengthen the evidence on any particular subject. Such is a great portion of Rabinical learning; and such, as it appears to us, is a great part of what is advanced by that respected scholar *Huetius*, when he comes to his etymologies. How much have some authors disfigured and injured the Scriptures by their unwarranted freedoms!—The present writers are not, apparently, inattentive to such considerations.

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In the last part of this work, we find, 'An arrangement of the *Natural History* of the Scriptures,' which appears to be carefully executed:—'Passages of Scripture illustrated by plates;—Index of texts referred to, or illustrated—together with an Index of the principal subjects;' all of which seem to have been regarded with commendable attention. Engravings and maps are continued throughout the whole.

ART. XV. *Considerations on the general Conditions of the Christian Covenant*, with a View to some important Controversies. By Joseph Holden Pott, A. M., Archdeacon of St. Alban's. 8vo. pp. 110. 3s. Rivingtons. 1803.

WE have certainly been much indebted to those men, who, within a few late centuries, have with penetration and intrepidity exerted themselves to rescue Christianity from the impositions and absurdities with which it had been so grievously loaded. Their names are truly eminent, and enrolled with just respect among the first benefactors of our race. Yet, greatly as we honour their memory, they were by no means free from prejudice or passion, and therefore they are not implicitly to be followed as guides on disputable topics. We were led, almost inadvertently, into this reflection, by recollecting, in connection with the pamphlet before us, the numerous formulæ, creeds, confessions, articles, homilies, &c. supposed to be framed on the principles of the Reformers, and sanctioned by their authority; which have been considered as fundamentals, requiring the consent of those who regard Christianity as having a celestial origin. Of what evils, dreadful evils, this idea has been productive, the page of history but too amply relates; and humanity has often perused the tale with grief mingled with honest indignation.

The pulpits of our established church, however, have not, for years past, resounded with words and phrases that fall under notice in the publication before us, such as justication by faith, election, assurance, &c. In the present day, doctrines and language which may be styled *evangelical*, or Calvinistical, appear to gain ground, and to occasion some anxiety and debate. Archdeacon Pott steps in with the friendly design of persuading Christians that,—whatever account may be given of *justification*,—repentance, faith, and obedience, are of essential necessity:

'If, (says he) we will only keep in mind the purpose and intent to which the Redeemer's sufferings and merits have their full avail, and compare that with the end for which the Christian's service under the general conditions of the gospel is required, we shall not fail to find

find a clear, easy, and obvious solution of the difficulties which have been raised on this subject; and it will be sufficient barely to state this difference, in order to shew that the conditions of the Christian covenant are perfectly compatible with the sole sufficiency of the Redeemer's merits in the work of justification here considered. Thus then, it is one thing to be the only valuable cause by which salvation is procured, and it is another thing to be the condition on which that gift is graciously bestowed. From the former of these, that is, from the meritorious cause, we exclude not only our own works of every kind, but repentance and faith also: under the latter, that is, under the condition, we find repentance, faith, and obedience constantly required.'—'The distinction here proposed is not a nice or subtle thing. The simplest man may understand the difference between the cause, and the *condition* of his hope.'

It may almost excite a smile among those who are conversant with the works of highly orthodox or Calvinistic authors, to observe how freely the well-disposed Mr. Pott employs that offensive word *conditions*; with many, the word *terms*, which may perhaps be regarded as more mild, is hardly admissible. His just, and, as we apprehend, rational and scriptural explication of *election* cannot, we conclude, perfectly accord with their views of the subject:—but whatever use he may make of the word *conditions*, we must remark that he rejects the notion of 'an availing power in man's inherent righteousness to justify in part, and to establish a proper claim or title by its own worth to the recompence of glory.'—To this observation is annexed the following:—'They, who shall ascribe the smallest particle of this gross error to any one member of the church of England, will do them great wrong.'—This passage occurs in the appendix, in which we meet with quotations from some works of the Reformers, intended to illustrate and strengthen the author's remarks on the subject.

It is with evident reluctance that the Archdeacon engages in any discussions of a controversial nature; and he wishes to convince those who dissent from him that they do this in appearance more than in reality; that the principal difference is in words and phrases; and 'that, to which-ever part men may incline, the great foundations of the Christian faith will not be the subject of dispute between them.' We may regard his publication as an *Irenicon*, intended to allay the heats which are too easily excited; and to promote that harmony and goodwill, without which men, whatever other name they may bear, are no longer *Christians*.—'Suffice it now to add,' says the author towards the close of these *Considerations*, 'that what has been here said has been advanced with a great wish to abstain from personal reflections; with a true regard and entire respect for many excellent persons who differ from the sentiments here chiefly

chiefly favoured; with an utter abhorrence of all persecuting measures, and let it be added, of all persecuting censures, which are of the same brood, and bear a near resemblance to the Parent-stock.'

We have thus supplied the reader with a brief description of this pamphlet, without entering much ourselves into its peculiar subject. The circumstances of the time seemed, at least in the view of the author, to call for some discussion of the kind. Controversy, or free inquiry, conducted with Christian candour, and solely directed to the elucidation or discovery of truth, might produce great benefit: but this mode, especially in theological disputes, seems, if not utterly impracticable, almost *wholly* improbable. It is good, therefore, to check in some instances its course, and to leave each person to judge for himself. A small spark has formerly lighted and still may light up an unextinguishable flame; and there are those who would pour oil into the rising fire, to extend and increase the desolation: but very different are the views of the respectable writer of this pamphlet.

ART. XVI. *Sketch of the early History of the Cymry, or Ancient Britons*, from the Year 700 before Christ, to A.D. 500. By the Rev. P. Roberts, A. M. 8vo. pp. 158. 5s. Boards. Williams. 1803.

IN our minds, the discussions which occupy this volume possess considerable interest, and in the conduct of them Mr. Roberts displays ability and learning. While, however, we discern in them abundance of plausible conjecture and ingenious etymology, the question—how much *truth* do they contain?—is far beyond our powers of solution; and we can only confess that we find much which it is easy to disbelieve, and little to which we can confidently yield our assent.

Relying on certain passages in Taliesin and the Triads, the author concludes that this island was first peopled by a tribe which came from Thrace about the seventh century before the Christian æra; and he thinks that the names of places in the latter country, the customs, religious rites, and doctrines of the two people, as recorded by antient writers, prove their identity of origin. In both nations, tattooing the body was deemed honourable; in both the women accompanied their husbands to battle; and both held the same notions with regard to transmigration, and the divine nature. By the help of Strabo and the Triads, he conducts the first settlers from the Thracian Chersonesus to Britain and Armorica; the Greek geographer traces their migration as

far as Jutland, where the Triads take them up, and bring them across the hazy sea (i. e. the German, the haze of which is well known to mariners) to Britanny, and to this country, then called sometimes the honey island, and sometimes the water-guarded island; and which was named Prydain some time later, after one of its kings who bore that appellation. The new settlers, under *Hu the mighty*, are supposed to have retained the traditions of their original country; among which

'The most important is that of the Deluge, which is supposed in the Triads to have happened in his time, or not long previous to it. It is described as having been caused by the bursting of a large lake called Llion, and he is said by the assistance of his Ychain bannog, *or Buffaloes*, to have drawn an Afanc, or *amphibious animal*, out of this lake, to have prevented its bursting in future. As this tradition is both curious in itself and important as to an historic fact, it is necessary to consider it with some attention. It cannot fail of striking every one who is acquainted with the Hindu Mythology; in which, Vishnou destroys the monster who had caused the Deluge, and recovers the Earth and the Veds. It is evidently of the same original, and a part of the general tradition of that aweful event, which every nation that has ancient records has retained, and applied to its earliest abode after the dispersion, when the memorial of the first dispersion was confounded with other emigrations.'

The ground-work of this account, as Mr. R. collects it from the Triads, is thus stated;

"The first of the three great calamities of Britain was the bursting of the Lake Llion, which overflowed all the country, and drowned all the inhabitants, except Dwyfan and Dwyfach; and of these was the Island re-peopled." Triad 12.

"The ship of Nefydd, Naf, Neifion (*Lord Supreme of the Waters*) carried in it a male and female of every animal, when the Lake Llion broke out." This ship is said to have been one of the three boasted works of Britain. Triad 97. The second is, that "the Ychain Banog of Hu the mighty drew the Afanc out of Lake Llion, so that it burst out no more." The reference to the real fact is here indubitable, and the latter, that is the third great work, connected with them, is also in concurrence with the tradition of the Hindus, and of Josephus, viz. "The stone of Ganhebon, on which were written *all the Arts and Sciences of the World*." One of the fourteen precious things, which Vishnou preserved out of the deluge, was *the book of the Veds*, that is, the principles of Hindu learning; and Josephus says, that the Science of the Antediluvian world, and that of astronomy in particular, was *written* on pillars, in order to preserve it. The singular conformity of the three traditions, in such distant parts of the earth, must certainly have been derived from one common tradition. Most assuredly from no other source; and it may without hesitation be inferred, that the nations, who have preserved it, were of the first emigrations after the flood.'

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That the Britons held in veneration a singular practice, in common with the Hindoos, is maintained in the subsequent extract;

'The custom of holding a Cow's tail when dying is known to be a sacred ceremony of the Hindus. That such a custom once prevailed among the Cymry appears from the following proverb, still retained by them, and applied to cases of distress or danger.

'Y sawl a biau yr henfon
Y mafled yn ei chynffon.

Let him who has a Cow, take fast hold of her tail.

Pawb wrth gynffon ei henfon.

Let each betake himself to the tail of his Cow.'

What became of Hu, (who is highly celebrated in the Triads for his virtues and his talents,) after he had settled his colony, does not appear: but the author supposes him to have been deified, and to have become the Esus or Hesus of the Cimbric or Celtic nations.

Britain having been peopled only in part by the Thracian colony, Tyssilio and the Triads speak of two other emigrations; the one consisting of the Lloegrians, who came from the banks of the Loire, and another whose original residence had been the country watered by the Garonne. Mr. R. thus states and comments on the account of these events which are given by the Triads:

"The three peaceable settlers of the Isle of Britain were 1st. The Cymry, who came with Hu the mighty, who sought for a settlement to be acquired, not by war or contest, but peaceably and justly. 2d. The race of Lloegrians, who came from Gascony, who were descended from the original stock of the Cymry; and 3d. The Brython (Britons) of a common descent with the Cymry." Triad 5th.

'The distinction between the Lloegrians and Brython is remarkable. The latter were of a common descent with the Cymry, and evidently descendants of those who went to Armorica when Hu and his followers came to Britain. The Lloegrians were not of the same immediate descent, though originally of the same stock. The latter were the Gauls of the Loire, whose territory from thence to the Pyrennees appears to have been denominated Gwasgwyn, that is Gascony, by the Welsh writers. In what part of the Island these Brython were stationed does not exactly appear; but the Gauls, according to the Triads, were settled, partly in Cornwall, and partly to the north of the Humber. Triad 7.

'These two colonies probably occupied the parts of the country as yet unpeopled; the Brython uniting with those who were nearly allied to them on the South East, and the Gauls taking the mountainous part of the country, as yet without inhabitants.'—

" There are three principal provinces in the Isle of Britain, Cymru, Lloegyr, and Alban*," (that is the provinces of the Cimbric, Lloegrian, and Albanian, or *of the hill tribe.*) Each of these is subject to the sovereignty, and it is governed according to the common law of each province under one sovereign, according to the limitation of Prydain the son of Aedd the great. Moreover, the sovereign power, according to the custom of province and nation, rests in the race of the Cymry, as to fealty and common obligation; and in right of this limitation, and of custom of country and province, is the sovereignty over each country held in the isle of Britain. Whence the proverb, " The country" (that is the custom of the country) " is more mighty than the lord." Triad 2.

The author thus elucidates the tale of the Trojan descent of the Britons. Ammianus Marcellinus, speaking of the Gauls, says, " *Aiunt quidem, paucos, post excidium Trojæ, fugitantes Græcos undique dispersos, loca hæc occupasse tunc vacua.*" Lib. 15. Nennius farther adds; *Brutus pervenit usque ad Gallos et ibi condidit civitatem, et vocabat eam à nomine cujusdam militis sui, cui nomen erat Turnus.* This the author concludes to have been the district of the Turones, the late Touraine, which comprehends the confluence of the great ramifications of the Ligar or Loire, whence the Lloegrians came to Britain. The above tradition, therefore, he supposes to have been confined to the Lloegrians, and only by the mistake of historians to have been represented as prevalent among the Britons in general.

With the view, we suppose, of raising the credit of the Triads, Mr. Roberts collects several passages from them which contain accounts of events mentioned in classical writers, and supported by various independent proofs. Among others, we are told that

" The three chief Islands of Britain were Orc, Manaw† and Gwyth. Afterwards the sea broke in, so that Môn became an Island, and in like manner Orc was so broken as to have become a multitude of Islands, and other parts in Albania and Wales become Islands." Triad 66.

' This is a most singular memorial of an event of a most dreadful nature, and the truth of the fact is corroborated in a singular manner. In the enumeration of the Isles dependent on Britain, having mentioned the Isles of Man and Wight, Nennius says—Tertin est *Orcania*, id est *Orcades*, sic enim *proverbio antiquo* dicitur quando de judicibus vel Regibus sermo fit, judicavit Britanniam cum *tribus* insulis. C. 2.

' *The third is Orcania, that is the Orcades; for thus an old proverb*

* ' Hence also the name of Albania near the Caspian sea, from Al *a tribe*, and Ban, *a hill.*'

† Manaw, *the Isle of Man;* Gwyth, *the Isle of Wight;* Mon, *Anglesey.*'

expresses

expresses it when applied to judges or kings, "he gave law to Britain and its three islands." The proverb then confirms the Triad, as to the existence of the Orcades as one island, at some period long prior to the age of Nennius.

'The fact of the influx of the Ocean is also confirmed by Florus, who assigns it as the cause of the emigration of the Cimbri, in these words. Cimbri, Theutoni, atque Tigurini, ab extremis Galliæ profugi, *quum terras eorum inundasset Oceanus*, novas sedes toto orbe quærebunt. L. 3. C. 3.

"The Cimbri, Theutoni and Tigurini, exiled, from the extremity of Gaul *by an inundation of the sea over their territories*, went in search of places to settle in wherever they might find them."

'This testimony is so express as not only to leave no doubt of the fact, but to give a more perfect idea of the time and extent of the devastation, which appears to have ravaged, not only the North of Britain and Ireland, but the North Western Coast of the Continent, from the Sound to the Mouth of the Rhine.

'The mind can scarcely form a more tremendous idea than that of the fury of the Ocean pouring in its overwhelming tide, rending the Orcades asunder, and forming so many Isles. Well might it be remembered!—Nor less so another, which, though not said to have been so, was probably connected with it. It is called the second great calamity of Britain. "The calamity of *the dreadful fire*, when the earth was opened to the abyss, and the greatest part of all living were destroyed." Triad 13.

'That there has been an eruption of a Volcano in the north of Ireland and Scotland, is proved by the late Dr. Hamilton, in his account of the Giant's Causeway. From the Triads the eruption appears to have been prior to the inundation, and the latter to have been owing to an elevation of the bottom of the sea, which probably preceded the explosion of the Volcano. The Welsh name of the Baltic *Llychlyn*, that is *the lake of standing water*, seems to intimate that the Sound was opened by this inundation.'

The author finds, in the same Triads, passages which describe the Cimbric expedition, and which allude to a very general plague about the period in which that of Peloponnesus raged. If it could be shewn that the Triad authors had not taken these relations from Grecian and Roman works, they would certainly have great weight in supporting the conclusions of the author.

Mr. Roberts observes that

'The language of the Cymry does not appear, as far as can be judged from the most ancient poems, to have undergone any change; though it has perhaps lost considerably. In the time of Taliesin there were four dialects, or more probably languages, in use among the Cymry, as he calls them *, "Cymry pedwariaeth," or Cymry of the four languages. In the same poem he takes notice of four na-

* Praise of Lludd.'

tions in the Island Cymry, Angles, Gwyddyl, (Irish or Gauls,) and Prydyn, the Strathclwyd Britons. The Poets sometimes use a dialect which is now little understood, and was either the language of the latter, or perhaps one in use which is no more so; a mixture of the Welsh and the language of the Gaulish Picts. A mixture of the Latin with the Welsh is frequent with Taliesin. Whatever dialects there might have been, it is certain that the ancient language is preserved in its purity, as all the Triads, and several poems of Taliesin, are in the very dialect of North Wales, as it is now spoken.'

In conclusion, the author states that he has seen catalogues of several Welsh MSS., which it was not in his power to consult: but he intimates that hereafter he may examine them, and favour the public with the result of his researches. We shall be glad to see realized the hope which he thus encourages us to entertain.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1804.

MEDICAL.

Art. 17. *A Treatise on the Cow-pox*, containing the History of Vaccine Inoculation, and an Account of the various Publications which have appeared on that Subject in Great Britain, and other Parts of the World. By John Ring, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons in London. Part II. 8vo. pp. 550. 8s. Boards. Carpenter.

WE noticed the first part of this treatise in our 38th Vol. p. 316. The author's zeal in the cause of vaccination remains undiminished, and his work furnishes a very ample detail of every publication and memoir, in any way connected with the subject on which he is so laudably engaged. It is, however, unnecessarily prolix; and, from its entire want of method, it may rather be considered as a journal of the practice, than a treatise on it. Yet, even in this point of view, the public are indebted to Mr. Ring; since he has thus furnished them with a repository, which contains every material fact connected with the history and present state of the cow-pox.—Two beautiful plates represent the progress of the vaccine vesicle.

Art. 18. *Anthropology*, or the Natural History of Man; with a comparative View of the Structure and Functions of animated Beings in general. By Wm. Blair, A.M., Member of the Royal College of Surgeons; Fellow of the Medical Societies of London, Paris, and Brussels; Surgeon of the Lock Hospital and Asylum, and of the Bloomsbury Dispensary. 8vo. pp. 163. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1803.

This is a syllabus of a course of lectures on Physiology, which are principally intended for the use of gentlemen not in the profession; and which we are informed, are given annually by the author, with the hopes of

of diffusing among artists, and the lovers of science, a more general acquaintance with the structure and functions of the human body, than they at present possess. The course is illustrated by 'anatomical preparations, accompanied with large drawings, prints, models, casts, and a living subject for the muscles.' The design appears to us a good one; and the syllabus, though larger than necessary, will, we have no doubt, afford material assistance to the auditors.

We do not think that the author is justified in the adoption of a new word for the designation of the subject of his lectures.

Art. 19. *History of the Proceedings of the Committee appointed by the general Meeting of Apothecaries, Chemists, and Druggists in London,* for the Purpose of obtaining Relief from the Hardships imposed on the Dealers in Medicine, by certain Clauses and Provisions contained in the new Medicine Act, passed June 3, 1802, together with a View of the Act, as it now stands, in its ameliorated State; to which are added the Substance of every Clause in the Acts of June 3, 1802 and July 4, 1803, and the Clauses of both these Acts, collated with each other, consolidated and explained; also a copious and carefully arranged Schedule, with explanatory Notes and Observations. By William Chamberlaine, Surgeon, Chairman of the Committee. 8vo. 2s. Highley.

The new medicine act, passed in June 1802, contained several enactments which bore severely on retail apothecaries and venders of medicines. The inability to sell many drugs in common use, without a stamp, was extremely vexatious, and particularly demanded the attention of Government; the exertions of many who were more immediately concerned in the business, and in particular of Mr Chamberlaine, procured that degree of notice to the subject, which was necessary to shew the impropriety of many of the clauses of the act; and the more offensive were accordingly amended in a subsequent bill.

Art. 20. *An Apology for believing in the Metallic Tractors,* with some Account of the Perkinean Institution. 12mo. 2d. Hatchard.

We know not whether it augurs well for the continuance of that ample portion of faith, which has hitherto inspired so many on the subject of the metallic tractors, that one of their warmest advocates deems it necessary to present an apology for his belief in their efficacy: but we have no reason for doubting that his apology is satisfactory to himself; and we may perhaps only do justice to his coadjutors in Perkinism, when we give them credit for subscribing to the sentiments expressed in the present tract. They have all of them, however, we are informed, been long possessors of that inestimable treasure, which so readily diffuses health and vigour to all who come within its influence; and it would be ill natured to attempt to diminish their estimation of its value: though we may be allowed to intimate our suspicions that such of our readers, as have not already become purchasers of the tractors, will hardly be inclined to adjudge considerable force to the author's apology. Perkinism, like magnetism, must have its day; and we may congratulate the patentee on its having been so long in use, as to have enabled him to exhibit to his

trans-atlantic friends, substantial proofs of the effects of metallic influence in this country.

We learn from the signature, that the author of this attempt to revive the inclination for actual possession of the redoubted tractors is a Mr. Henry Grimstone of Kensington.

NOVELS.

Art. 21. *A Picture from Life:* or the History of Emma Tankerville and Sir Henry Moreton. By Henry Whitfield, M.A. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. Boards. Highley.

Many parts of this picture will be found very lively and agreeable, although the conversation of Dr. Anapest is rather tedious. The author appears to be a *young man* of sensibility and much natural goodness of disposition; if we may judge of his youth from the warmth of his feelings in describing the charms of female beauty, (somewhat too much, occasionally,) and of his good qualities, from the opportunities which he so frequently takes to inculcate lessons of truth and virtue.—It may, however, be recommended to Mr. Whitfield to introduce himself in future less frequently in the *first person.*

Art. 22. *Leopold*; or, the Bastard. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. sewed. Highley.

We understand that this novel, although the author has not prefixed his name, is also the production of Mr. Whitfield, and it does credit to him on the same principles on which we commended the foregoing. In the vicious conduct and melancholy termination of the fate of Leopold, the writer endeavours to furnish an useful caution to the imprudent and unwary; and, in conclusion, he exhorts his readers to derive this wholesome maxim from the eventful tale, that "to be good is to be happy."

Art. 23. *The Depraved Husband, and the Philosophic Wife.* By Madame Genlis. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

The wild theories and abandoned maxims of certain *Philosophes* of France, in the days of her Republican *energy*, are strikingly depicted in the progress of this tale: and the horrible consequences, which ensue from such a dereliction of virtuous principles, are illustrated with much force and effect in the character of Julie, the ill-fated victim of that species of "Philosophy and vain deceit." This picture of the insanity of the times must have been a salutary lesson to many, who were but just beginning to drink of the intoxicating cup; we trust, however, that those days of riot are succeeded at length by the season of sobriety; and that, whatever may be the Imperial Diadem of France, she will assert her right to the Empire of Reason.

Art. 24. *Barbara Markham;* or the Profligate requited. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. Boards. Richardson.

The adventures of poor Miss Barbara are not, we apprehend, of a nature which will excite much interest with readers in general; nor is the style of her historian such as to compensate for the dearth of materials.

rials. The incidents may also be said to offend against probability, and in some places to trench on delicacy. The moral, however, is good, and the intention of the writer is therefore laudable. The account, in the second volume, of the tricks of a party of sharpers at Bath appears, from its manner and correctness of language, to have been furnished from some other quarter.

Art. 25. *Lucy Osmond*. A Story. 12mo. 3 s. sewed. Robinsons.

This tale is well related, and excites interest. The heroine becomes an early victim to the indulgence of imagination in the school of Rousseau: her days are embittered by a hopeless passion; and she dies in the prime of life.—The moral conveyed in this novel is the importance of acquiring early principles of virtue, founded on the sober dictates of reason; and of restraining the wild luxuriance of imagination.

POETRY.

Art. 26. *The Pleasures of Nature*; or the Charms of Rural Life. With other Poems. By David Carey. Crown 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood.

The wide scenery of Nature, so full of charms, and so perpetually varied by the change of seasons, furnishes this author with images of the most agreeable kind; and sometimes in gay, at other times in pensive numbers, he presents a very pleasing picture of the impressions made on a susceptible and warm imagination. We extract, as a specimen of the poetry, the description of the plough-boy:

'In yonder fields, the plough-boy urges, gay,
The shining share, and oft, with mellow tone,
Wild warbles to his team the roundelay,
That tells of simple pleasures all his own,
And many a transport, felt by him alone;
When Love impels his steps across the glade,
When all the labours of the day are done,
And brisk he hies to meet the blooming maid,
To whom his vows were given beneath the hawthorn shade.
There the fair rainbow long has blushing shone,
Blushing to front the sun's all-piercing eye;
Lo! now she binds, with many-colour'd zone,
The hill, that hides its summit in the sky;
Now quenches in the wave her sanguine dye.
Here flits the Butterfly along the lawn,
Careless how swift the happy moments fly,
One day of sunshine all its little span;
How just an emblem of her brother insect—Man!'

The alliteration of *shining share* is not elegant; and *incomprehensible*, in the next page, is not a word so proper for this measure as for Miltonic blank verse. Many similar remarks will occur to the curious critic.

Art.

Art. 27. *Love Letters to my Wife;* written in 1789. By James Woodhouse. Vol. I. Crown 8vo. pp. 169. 4s. Boards. Symonds, &c.

Ridentur mala qui componunt carmina: verùm
Gaudent scribentes, et se venerantur.

Poets, indeed, are generally on such good terms with themselves, that, if their vanity be not gratified by praise, they are sure to attribute their disappointment to a want either of taste or of good nature in the reader. Mr. Woodhouse, "supremely blest in his Muse," may be disposed to call in question our judgment, when we pronounce that his Love Letters to his Wife, however affectionate they may be, and however unexceptionable in their tendency, are deficient in those requisites which distinguish and give a fascinating charm to the genuine productions of the Muse. "To touch and re-touch," says Cowper, "is the secret of almost all good writing, especially in verse." Had Mr. W. ever learnt this art, he would have appeared with more credit before the public than he can now reasonably expect to obtain: for what critic, or even what man of ordinary taste in poetry, can admire such lines as these?

'Dear Hannah;
Tho' to thee 'tis nothing rare
That I pronounce I'm fond, and thou art fair—'

'A letter to a wife! the subject Love!—
This must seem stranger still to folks *above*.'

'None *suffers* Nature, now in genuine way,
To grizzle aged head, alone, with grey.'

'Despots, tho' cruel, deem it monstrous queer
Respectful duty should to dullness veer.'

'But what has Wealth to boast? or high Degree?
Fame—Honour—Names—or Influence—more than We?'

'Dear Hannah!
Now I'll prosecute my theme
Suspending Heav'n's impartial Bible-beam.'

'What wretched traffic for immortal Souls!
While round and round each crazey carcase rolls,
Forc'd on by Fancy's ardent whip and spur,
While all the mental pow'rs bow down to Her;
Submitting tamely to her clamorous calls,
Till strength all flies, and down the body falls!'

'When cloister'd up at home, they live incog—
Not studying Sinai's damning decalogue—'

'All wish his laxest Law in fullest force,
To break the Wedding-bond, and then divorce—
Fond of the practice, feel their hearts rejoic'd,
And clap Man Moses, but hiss Master Christ!
Not, faithful Hannah! to my heart most dear!
The tie, like Ours', still tightening every year—

A knot, we wish, nor Time, nor Death to sever,
But beg it fix'd for ever and for ever!'

This is very loving and charming to "Dear Hannah:" but we suspect that the wicked reader will smile; if he does not, he has a "power of face" which we do not possess.

Art. 28. *The Suicide:* with other Poems. By the Rev. Charles Wicksted Ethelston, M.A. Rector of Worthenbury. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

Juries, summoned by Coroners to decide in cases of self-murder, are generally prompted, by motives of tenderness, to ascribe the rash act to lunacy, or mental derangement. No doubt, instances frequently occur in which there can be no question of the equity of such verdicts: but exceptions may and ought to be made to this general rule. Some suicides act with such deliberation, and appear to be influenced by such principles, that the violence which they commit on themselves must be attributed, not so much to deranged, as to *perverted*, reason. On this ground only can arguments against the commission of this crime be expected to produce any good effect; for the supposition of its being the result of lunacy precludes all expostulation. Suicide has its advocates; and since their reasoning has, in certain cases, been avowed in justification of the deed, it is kind to present to men who are struggling with adversity, an antidote against the poison of these writers. Mr. Ethelston has recourse to his muse in arguing with the unfortunate against the crime of self-slaughter; and the poem, which occupies the foremost station in the volume before us, is said to have been occasioned by reading "The Sorrows of Werter;" a publication in which suicide is palliated and defended. To counteract the baneful effects of this popular work, the author endeavours to develope and expose the principles and practices in which criminal suicide originates.—As we cannot follow him through the several parts of his poem, we shall give one specimen by which the qualities of his muse, and his ability in repressing vice, may be fairly appreciated:

'I knew a man who, in a cursed hour,
The dicing depredators' club did join,
Clench'd the detested box, and cast the die
That plung'd him into beggary and death;—
Plung'd him! nay, plung'd a lovely virtuous wife
And smiling babes in an abyss of woe;
Woe most heart-rending, which no words can tell;
Alas! he knew not those with whom he stak'd
The frequent rouleau and the glitt'ring gold:
Cool, meditating, subtle, artful, keen,
They mark'd him early as their destin'd prey;
They saw him fiery as the prancing steed,
High mettled, candid, open, gen'rous, kind;
With a quick relish for the flow of wit,
The brilliant sally warm'd by sparkling wine:
All this they mark'd—it was their proper cue.
But did they quaff the bumper with him? No.

Did

Did they exhaust th' exhilarating toast,
And joke and hold their sides with the loud laugh?
Absurd. *They had a more material game*
To play, a more engaging tale to tell.
Cool as a solemn baron on the bench,
When in his soul appalling cap he speaks,
Before a list'ning court, the dreadful words
Which send a guilty felon to his grave;
They are unruffled by the circling glass;
The teeming bumper suits not dicers' schemes.
But lo! when mounting fumes have warm'd his blood,
And made him for their plan a well-strung dupe,
Then comes the dice box and the rattling die.
Oh! What a hellish scene! stake after stake
Is lost; while manors, tenements, and farms
Hundreds of acres, coppices, and lawns,
And woods and forests, barns, and stacks of grain;
Nay freehold, copyhold, leasehold all are gone;—
Except the venerable tow'ring pile
That shews its glitt'ring vane on yon proud hill,
The seat of a long line of ancestry,
Their country's boast: Some in the senate shone;
Some gain'd the laurel in the tented field.
And is this noble structure too condemn'd,
And all these lands, the statesman's proud reward,
The soldier's well earn'd palm of victory?
Hold, prodigal, thy hand; and spare, ah! spare
This sacred relic from the sharper's gripe!
The very portrait of thy grandsire frowns
In the old Gothic hall (that vet'ran chief).
Oh, fatal cast! This last, last stake is gone:
This most antique, most honourable pile,
Has now another owner, from the scum
And refuse of a base plebeian herd.
And now the gamester tears his hair, and raves
And storms and foams like frantic maniac,
Blasphemes his God, and execrates himself.
The fumes of wine dispers'd, his tortur'd brain
Is left to bitter pangs and fell remorse.
He heaves a deep-felt groan; and lo! DESPAIR
Shews him the horrid instrument of death.
It is resolv'd.—He to his closet hies
With hurried step and visage ghastly pale:
Secur'd from human eye by bolts and bars,
He in an instant lies a bleeding corse.
A sleepless wife and children hear the sound,
Start from their beds in wild amaze, and shriek
In phrenzied agony. The bolts are forc'd;
And lo! a father and a husband bath'd in gore.'

Blank verse requires a certain majesty of diction, and is debased by low and vulgar expressions. Mr. E. has not been sufficiently attentive

tentive in guarding his Muse from this "Stygian pool." 'All full to *stop a gap*', and the first passage marked with italics in the extract, will justify our remark. He is also unnecessarily pleonastic; for when he has told us that 'manors, tenements, and farms, were lost,' he might have spared his Muse the trouble of adding that 'freehold, copyhold, and leasehold were gone.'

'*This* is the ordeal of heroism,'

as a line of blank verse, cannot, by any management, be made to read with euphony.

The second poem in this collection is a tribute to the memory of the philanthropic Howard; whose hand is said to be a *Bethesda* to mankind. In other places, also, Mr. E. has recourse to the good old book for illustration. Thus, speaking of the contagion of the Yellow Fever, he has this awkward couplet and bad rhime,

'The subtle and contaminated breeze
Swells the deep Golgotha, like Gideon's fleece;'

and of the removal of the small-pox by the introduction of the Vaccine, he says,

'Long had man trembl'd at his hateful name,
Till Moses wav'd his rod, and Jenner came.'

We do not perceive the propriety of detailing the melancholy story of Ivan in this poem. It is a strange jump from grief for the loss of a lovely wife, to horror at the murder of a young unfortunate Russian prince.—If Ladies were Reviewers, they would excuse some defects in Mr. E. on account of the following couplet:

'Oh woman, man's best treasure here below,
The cradle of his cares, the pillow of his woe.'

The Ode, which closes the volume, has already been mentioned in our 41st Vol. p. 443.

Art. 29. *Nugæ Poeticæ*. By F. Sayers, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Cadell and Davies.

Both humour and poetical talents are exhibited in these *Nugæ*. The poem of Theseus and Ariadne has considerable merit; and the other pieces will be read with pleasure.

In 'the Jilted Lover,' page 31. *whom* is improperly made the nominative case to *was*.

Art. 30. *Ad Edvardum Jenner, M. D. Carmen Alcaicum, Auctore Chr. Anstey, Arm.* 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies.

On the model, and in imitation of the turn of expression in the odes of Horace, Mr. Anstey has composed a very pleasing address to the celebrated *inventor*, or at least the *promulgator* of the invention, of Vaccine Inoculation. The merits of this practice are here celebrated, and its extensive benefits are sung by the prophetic muse.

Art. 31. *A Translation of Anstey's Ode to Jenner:* to which are added two Tables, one shewing the Advantages of Vaccine Inoculation,

the other containing Instructions for the Practice. By John Ring. 4to. 1s. 6d. Murray.

A neat and well-written *paraphrase* rather than translation of the Latin ode. The thoughts are here dilated and expanded; and Mr. Ring enlarges, and sometimes improves, on the original, by his own additional reflections, and by the elegant turn which he gives to the sentiments of his author.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 32. *Lucifer, Gog, and Bonaparte;* and the Issue of the present Contest between Great Britain and France, considered according to Divine Revelation; with an Appeal to Reason, on the Errors of Commentators. By L. Mayer. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Parsons.

We are informed in the introduction, that the intent of the publication before us 'is to excite men to hearken to the voice of Revelation and Reason; to trace the Corsican Tyrant in prophecy, through his different stages of power; to identify his person; to shew that his efforts in aspiring towards universal dominion are vain and delusive, and will finally terminate in the utter destruction of the Antichristian Powers and his usurped Empire; and that the British Nation, notwithstanding the secret plottings of its internal enemies, and the boasted threats of its inveterate foes, will be preserved as a place of refuge for the people of God, and rise amidst "the wreck of kingdoms and the crush of empires," with unrivalled splendour—the wonder and admiration of the world!'

That *Napoleon* was meant under the appellation of *Apollyon* in Rev. ix. was a former discovery, (who that attends to the similarity of sound in the two names can have any doubt of the fact!) and the additional light now thrown on dark prophecies is so very consolatory for the British nation, that it would be unpatriotic to attempt an appeal to reason against the ingenuity and riddle-solving facility of this commentator.

An hieroglyphic describing the state of Great Britain and the Continent of Europe for 1804, calculated for the window of a print shop, is given as a frontispiece.

Art. 33. *An Address to the Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers,* on their excommunicating such of their Members as marry those of other religious Professions. 8vo. 2s. Rickman.

We have not seen the pamphlet to which this address is designed as an answer; and if the reasoning which it contains be not superior to the argumentation before us, we can have no wish to see it. With the discipline of the Quakers we are very imperfectly acquainted: but we have been led to understand that its whole spirit points to the formation of "a Society separated from the great mass of professing Christians." In order to produce this effect, they are forced to enact rigid ordinances, and to insist on practices which appear stiff and revolting. Their language and dress are purposely designed strongly to mark their profession, which is formed of materials incapable of assimilating with any other Christian Church. It was necessary to allow to them the privilege of marriage, since they disclaim

claim the sanction and interference of the Priest; and considering that a person who is married according to the forms of the Established Church must infringe one of their leading tenets, it is not very surprizing that rigid Quakers should renounce or disown him. The excommunication of this body proceeds no farther than disownment; and all civil and religious communities claim the right of rejecting those who offend against their established regulations.

How far it may be politic in the Quakers to draw so strong and marked a line of separation between themselves and other churches, we shall not venture to decide. It may cause uncharitable reflections, and obstruct the increase of their numbers and the propagation of their doctrines: but it tends, at the same time, to prevent discord and distraction in the education of children. Mixed marriages, as they are called, which consist of pairs unpaired in faith and devotion, who attend at different places of worship, and who agree to divide their offspring between two communions, must generate much confusion in the arrangements of a family. It is always to be wished that the husband should convert the wife, or the wife convert the husband; and when they become "one flesh," they should endeavour also to become one soul. The Quakers make a strong opposition to mixed marriages: but, however rigid their laws and regulations may be in this respect, they cannot be accused 'of presumption, or of exalting themselves to frame new laws for the government of *the world*.' They legislate only for their own society; which every man who finds its "commandments grievous" is at liberty to quit.

Art. 34. *A Familiar Conversation on Religious Bigotry, Candor, and Liberality;* humbly intended as a Persuasive to greater Moderation, Union, and Peace amongst the followers of Christ. By David Eaton. 8vo. pp. 64. 2s. Marsom, &c.

Mr. Eaton is of opinion that it was the leading object of our religion to render us upright, beneficent, forbearing, humble, candid, and charitable; and he argues ably and strenuously in support of this amiable notion, warmly exhorting his readers to act according to it. Many Ecclesiastics of name and learning have always set their faces against this simplification of Christianity, and have insisted on other tenets which they have represented as of the essence of our common faith, and paramount to the doctrine inculcated by Mr. Eaton. These have varied with times and seasons; sometimes it has been inculcated on the faithful, that nothing so infallibly conducted to heaven as a wanton contempt of life, and a rage for promoting proselytism: on other occasions, the greatest merit has been represented as belonging to a ready and dutiful acquiescence in abstruse abstract propositions, and in a wholesome hatred of heresy; at one juncture, superstitious practices, at another the enthusiastic workings of the mind, have been held up as the infallible tests of saving faith. The present author, on the contrary, maintains that the primary object of our holy religion was to produce the virtues and graces which purify the heart, and which regulate and adorn the conduct. Whatever may be thought of the speculative tenets, for which this worthy man does not conceal his predilection, no real Christian will deny that

that the spirit and temper, recommended in this little tract, are those which were principally inculcated by our common Lord and Master.

Art. 35. *Reflections on the State of Religion in Christendom;* particularly in the Countries situated within the Limits of the Western Roman Empire, at the Commencement of the XIXth Century of the Christian Æra. By Edward Evanson. 8vo. pp. 162. 2s. 6d. Law.

Another attempt to read, in the Apocalypse, the modern, civil, and ecclesiastical history of Europe. The author, who is a zealous Unitarian, regards the Babylon, the downfall of which is there predicted, as representing all those churches which are denominated orthodox; and the New Jerusalem means, according to him, the body of Unitarian Christians. It will be perceived that the work is more a display of the invention and ingenuity of the writer, and a vehicle to convey his opinions, than a sober comment on the apocalyptic text. —The Protestant communities, the Doctors of which had applied these prophecies to the church of Rome, are by Mr. Evanson united with her, and charged as being, like her, guilty of idolatry, in the same manner objects of divine displeasure, and as being speedily to experience with her one general subversion. The reader who is partial to investigations of this sort, and who can tolerate the particular opinions of the author, will be gratified by a perusal of the work before us. As for ourselves, to whose lot the discernment that seizes on these secrets has not fallen, and who are ambitious merely of the character of humble inquirers, we can only make our profound bow to the interpreter of the will of heaven, who delivers his denunciations with all the confidence, authority, and bitterness of an antient Jewish prophet. We should wish, like the author, to be the advocates of truth and investigation: but we have no desire to share in the assurance displayed in these pages, nor in the temper in which they were penned.

Art. 36. *Three Sermons on the Lord's Prayer:* in which is set forth that this Divine Prayer contains a Summary of the Commandments, the Fullness of the Prophecies, and the perfect Form of our Worship of one only God manifested in the Messiah. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1804.

The object of the first and second of these sermons is to shew that the Lord's Prayer is a summary of the ten commandments, a perfect code of wisdom, and a complete rule of life. The comments on it are just, ingenious, pious, and animating.—In the third sermon, the author labours to establish a species of Unitarianism in opposition to generally received notions: but his Unitarianism differs from that which has of late given rise to so much controversy, at least it is conveyed in different language, and strikes us as being more mystical. His professions, however, are admirable, his temper is highly becoming, and his sentiments breathe a spirit of ardent piety and active virtue.

EDUCATION.

EDUCATION.

Art. 37. *The History of Greece.* By William Mavor, LL.D. &c. &c. Small 12mo. 2 Vols. 7s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1804.

Within the narrow compass of two small volumes, Dr. Mavor has comprized, with as much exactness as could be attained, the leading features of the Grecian History, from the earliest period of which we have any account, to the battle of Ipsus, and the final subjugation of that territory by the Roman power.

An introductory memoir is prefixed, in order to give the juvenile reader an idea of the different divisions of Greece and the islands contiguous to it. A small map is also subjoined; and we doubt not that the work will be an useful and desirable aid to youth in acquiring a knowlege of the elements of this part of Antient History.

Art. 38. *The History of Rome,* from the Foundation of the City till the Termination of the Eastern Empire. By Wm. Mavor, LL.D. Small 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

After having presented the reader with a description of the state of Italy previously to the building of Rome, Dr. M. conducts him, through a long course of ages from that period, to the final conquest of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453. It cannot be supposed that, in so great a mass of materials, the writer could enter with much minuteness into all the particulars of the Roman and Greek empire: but a material point will be gained by youth, if they acquire some general notion of the great events which this history records; and we think that the labors of Dr. Mavor are calculated to be very subservient to this important end.—An instructive account of the rise and fall of Carthage is added to this work, to illustrate that memorable portion of Roman history which treats of the Punic wars—It might have been useful for the young reader, if the Doctor (in his several histories) had referred to the originals at the bottom of the page; both to shew his authorities, and to awaken the attention of young persons to the genuine sources of historical information.

Art. 39. *The History of England,* from the earliest Records to the Year 1803. By Wm. Mavor, LL.D. 12mo. 2 Vols. 12s. Half bound. R. Phillips.

The chief object to be attempted, in an epitome of this kind, is to give as faithful and impressive an outline as can be drawn of the principal events in each successive period; and this design appears to us to be as successfully accomplished as could be expected, in Dr. Mavor's present performance: which has this additional advantage, that it conducts the history of our country to the present period. The editor has interspersed a number of plates representing interesting events, under the idea that young minds remember circumstances from this association, much more strongly than from the mere recollection of the narrative. Dr. M. very properly rejects the opinion entertained by some writers, (Burnet and others,) of Charles II. having been poisoned. His remarks, also, on the American war, and on the Slave-trade, are just and pertinent: but, when he gives the French the title of "our natural enemies," we think that he accom-

modates himself too far to popular and uncharitable language. Our neighbourhood with another nation renders us *natural friends*; though our mutual ambition and mutual vices have taught as to pervert both the dictates and the language of nature.—A concise chronological table of events in the English history is subjoined.

POLITICAL.

Art. 40. *Military Observations respecting Ireland, its Attack and Defence*, and to shew that at all events Property should be armed to resist Plunder and Anarchy. Interspersed with some Political Remarks. 8vo. pp. 103. 2s. 6d. Dublin. 1804.

The author of this pamphlet deems an invasion of Ireland highly probable, and endeavours to point out the best means of meeting and defeating it. He argues that 70,000 effective (which would amount to 85,000 nominal) men are necessary for its complete defence, even though the invaders should not exceed 25,000 in number; and he proceeds to state the manner in which he would have them disposed, and in which they should act.—The object of his political remarks is to convince our rulers of the importance of Ireland to the empire; and to display the interest which they have in realizing to the latter country the blessings of the Union, in satisfying the Catholics, and in ameliorating the general condition of the people. He writes with great temper and moderation, and displays a laudable spirit of loyalty and patriotism. He sets forth in striking colours the evils which would result to all classes of the Irish, if the French were to succeed, exhorts his countrymen to signalize themselves by active zeal and exertions in the defence of their country, and invites Britain to treat her sister island with kindness and confidence. He deems peace attainable, and thinks that the interests of the empire require that it should be sought.—Among many sentiments delivered by this ingenious and liberal writer, the following deserve attention at the present moment: 'Every one must allow that Bonaparte is a wonderful man, as well as a great General: as to his private character, it is no concern of ours; and as to his ambition, that is a passion from which scarcely any of the ministers of great states are exempt. There is neither sense nor good manners in the personal abuse with which the British Newspapers are filled against him, and I really think it unworthy of the nation.'

Art. 41. *No Gun Boats, or no Peace!* A Letter from Me to Myself. By Joshua Larwood. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

Delenda est Flotilla is not only the author's motto but his text; and it is not amiss that he has subjoined a motto, since without it his title would be unintelligible. Had the letter from *me* been addressed to any other person than *myself*, the title perhaps would have been "no peace while the enemy has any gun boats:" but the author's correspondent knew his meaning without the aid of perspicuous language. The doctrine here maintained is, that there can be no safety for Britain while France possesses a flotilla; and that we must destroy it by our cannon, or oblige the French to destroy it themselves,

selves, before we consent to a peace. The writer manifests much patriotism and some vivacity: but we cannot loudly descant on the profundity of his suggestions.

Art. 42. *The Triad;* addressed to the People of the United Empire, in the beginning of a Storm: the best Bower, Sheet, and spare Anchors a-head. "Hold on." 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Who would suppose from this title that the pamphlet is nothing more than "*a preachment*" about *Faith* and *Hope*, with a bit of poetry about *Charity?* Some persons may send for it to their booksellers, as we did, under the idea of its being a political essay on the state of the times; little suspecting that they will obtain a religious effusion;—'and what harm then?' says the author, 'I have surprised them into the perusal of something serious and good.' It may be so: but such surprises are not very honest, nor very politic; it is better to affix to every bottle its proper label.

Art. 43. *Letter to Lord Archibald Hamilton*, on the Occasion of his late Pamphlet, in which the fatal Consequences of the King's melancholy State of Health are particularly considered. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Harding.

This public correspondent of Lord A. Hamilton does not object to his late pamphlet (see Rev. for June) on the score of errors, but of omissions; and he charges his Lordship with a mistaken and impolitic delicacy on the subject of his Majesty's indisposition: asserting that such a fair, manly, open, and explicit conduct has not been pursued relative to this subject, as the comfort of the king and the welfare of the empire require. Having quoted the late Dr. Warren's opinion given in 1789, and reminded us of its melancholy verification, this politician laments that the guardians of the nation have not been induced to take any measure of precaution against that temporary inter-regnum, which has unhappily been found to attend a recurrence of the calamity; and he pleads, in excuse for the present address, his solicitude for a provision being made against those inconveniences which may reasonably be expected from the nature of the royal malady. The position that "there has been no suspension of the royal function" is here controverted. In the play of making and unmaking administrations, this writer regards the Chancellor as having been a principal actor; and he is daring enough to attempt to explain the late political mystery, 'by supposing his Majesty to have been *under guidance*, in consequence of his recovery not having been complete.' Persuaded that the delicacy of the subject ought to yield to its importance, he delivers his sentiments, on the precarious state of the King's health, without reserve; and he advises the adoption of some parliamentary precautions, which he feels to be peculiarly necessary in the present situation of the country. The author indeed speaks *out:* but whether he will speak *home* to the conviction of those whose business it is to act in this most delicate affair, time must determine.

Art. 44. *A Reply to Lord Archibald Hamilton's Thoughts on the Formation of the late and present Administrations.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ginger.

Lord A. Hamilton is here charged with a wish to excite discontent, and to embarrass the government, by making its leader an object of universal opprobrium. The late measures are asserted to be perfectly constitutional, and the old Opposition are asked how they can express any regret at the part which Mr. Pitt has acted; when in fact they ought rather to rejoice, as it 'divided them from *a man* so unfit for such *pure* company.' This man is Mr. Fox, whose political character is afterward attacked, and whose exclusion from the King's cabinet is justified. We admire not such personalities, which savour of a deficiency of argument, and prove the existence of more passion in our politics than is consistent with wise government. If this writer has some gratification in vilifying Mr. Fox, he has a greater pleasure in commending Mr. Pitt; who is said to be 'intitled to the thanks, the praise, and even the prayers of the people, for having courageously stood forth the champion of his King and Country at this crisis of peril and necessity.' In this assertion, the thing to be proved is taken for granted: a convenient mode of arguing in some cases.

In one respect, this writer endeavours to "be even" with the Opposition; and while they complain of unjustifiable measures employed in restoring Mr. Pitt to power, he charges them with 'unjustifiable measures in attempting to remove him.'

Art. 45 *An Inquiry into the real Difference between actual Money, consisting of Gold and Silver, and Paper Money of various Descriptions.* Also an Examination into the Constitution of Banks; and the Impossibility of their combining the two Characters of Bank, and Exchequer. By Magens Dorrien Magens, Esq. 8vo. pp. 68. 2s. 6d. Asperne, London. 1804.

In the very outset of this interesting discussion, Mr. Magens falls into a mistake, which is indeed a very common one, that of regarding the precious metals as a sign of value, as that of which the possession is merely desirable: but he afterward shews that gold and silver are things not of conventional, but of real independent value, as much so as any other articles which meet the wants or serve the convenience of man. This value, like value in all other cases, is founded on the intrinsic qualities, the rareness, and the labour in procuring them which belong to these metals: of which Mr. M. seems fully aware, when he contrasts their solid advantages with the aerial nature of paper money, and when he enumerates the circumstances which have induced nations to select them as the media of circulation.

In the first part of the inquiry, the author compares the operations of gold and silver with those of paper currency, and states the difference between real and accommodation bills of exchange. His objections to the latter appear to us to be extremely just; for they certainly are abuses of credit, and a deception on the public, as they bear these words "value received," or "value in account." We believe, however, that he mistakes when he says that the legislature has required the insertion of the above words in all bills; since we are informed that the practice has no other foundation than the custom

tom of merchants; and a bill in which they are omitted is valid. Fictitious bills, he observes, may be created to any extent, while the regular bill is confined to the amount of the goods sold, or property transferred; the first creates artificial capital for undue speculation, while the latter only causes a speedy return to the trader, by converting these bills into cash for the future concerns of his business. He very strongly censures the conduct of government, on account of the advances which it made of exchequer bills in 1793 to the commercial world generally, and in 1795 to the Grenada merchants: he terms it a scheme fraught with novelty and mischief, the effect of which is to convert the merchant into a speculator; a turn which, he says, is already too prevalent at the present moment; it has a tendency to force trade beyond the demands which support it; and to which it appears, from his observations and reasonings, that the *laissez nous faire* * is in this, as well as in other respects, applicable. He very ably illustrates the position that bills of exchange form no part of the circulating medium, in opposition to the contrary notion; which, as far as we are informed, rests solely on the authority of Mr. Thornton. Nothing enters into the circulating medium but the precious metals, and that which commands them at the instant without difficulty, delay, or diminution. This is the doctrine of all the writers on the subject, and it is here fully substantiated. Dissenting also from the same authority, Mr Magens is of opinion that, however convenient circulating paper may be, a country may carry its trade to the highest pitch without that expedient.

We regret that our limits will not permit us to follow this well informed guide through his observations on the constitution of the Bank, and the causes of its stoppage in 1797. He contends that its being a finance exchequer in the hands of government unfits it for being the emporium of British commerce. Take from it the power of making advances to government, and it will, as easily as the London private banks, in all emergencies, fulfil its engagements with the public. Take away this cause, and it will, as they do, brave very great public calamities: but, as now constituted, it must, like the country banks which issue their own notes, on such lamentable but possible occasions, fail in its engagements, and add largely to the quantum of private misery. He supposes that there may be from six to eight millions of bullion locked up in the Bank chests; and that this circumstance causes the foreign exchange to be so much against us. Another effect of this hoarding is to heighten the price of bullion, and to occasion the depreciation of Bank paper: which will not now buy the specific quantity of either gold or silver which it represents; since the one pound note, if employed to buy bullion, will purchase only eighteen shillings. Mr. M. however, properly observes that, when the restriction is removed, the Bank will be obliged to make up this deficiency; that, as it issued the notes when bullion was above standard price, so, when it receives them, it will give for them standard coin. He states it as a

* The well known answer of the trading Lyonese, when the celebrated Colbert asked them whether he could render them any service.

conclusion from his facts and reasonings, that it is dangerous to render paper equal to specie beyond a certain point, and that a very narrow one; and that, if a circulation of paper, issued without ready means of fulfilling the terms of agreement on the face of the note, be once permitted, every step brings us nearer to the errors of the noted calculator Law, in France; and sooner or later must produce equally ruinous consequences. He represents the secure bases on which the London private banks stand, and observes that the great national bulwark of credit ought to rest on the same grounds. He notices the case of the American banks, which are precluded from advancing money to any government, even their own. Banks, says Mr. Magens, cannot subsist under arbitrary power; neither can they flourish in a free country, if controuled by ministerial influence.

'Separate the exchequer from the bank; let the former depend on itself alone; and let the bank maintain its own sphere, as a house of agency for government, and of accommodation and convenience to the mercantile part of the community. By such means, it may speedily be enabled to resume its payment in specie: the government will be more secure, and general confidence better established. Nothing is wanting, but a resolution on the part of the minister, to consider the Bank only as an agent, and never to borrow from it, or interfere with its concerns, unless some violent convulsion overturns all system. Maintaining this plan, the government and the Bank would be strengthened, and the national wealth encouraged and increased. Pursuing the system of the last ten years, nothing but weakness and eventual disgrace can be expected to occur.'

We are glad to find that persons who possess such weight in the commercial world, as may be attributed to this gentleman, undertake the discussion of a subject which naturally occasions much apprehension. It has been our invariable opinion, that the continuance of the restriction on the Bank payments is an unfavourable symptom, a measure injurious to our commerce, and a just subject of alarm to the country.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 46. *A new System of Short Hand*, in which Legibility and Brevity are secured upon the most natural Principles, with Respect to both the Signification and Formation of the Characters: especially by the singular Property of their sloping all one Way according to the habitual Motion of the Hand in common Writing. By Richard Roe. 8vo. 4s. Darton and Harvey.

In calling the attention of the public to a *new* system of Short-hand, its superiority over other systems must be stated. Mr. Roe is of opinion that sufficient advantage has not been taken of the affinities of articulate sounds, nor sufficient regard paid to the habitual motion of the hand; and the value of his invention consists in his having availed himself of these principles. To decide positively on the merit of this attempt, it is necessary that we should "set ourselves doggedly to work" to learn Mr. Roe's new method: but, we have neither time nor inclination for such a study. It appears to us, however, from the degree of attention which we have been able to bestow

bestow on this subject, that Mr. Roe's method possesses the advantage of great brevity; and that, by the inclined direction of all his characters, a facility of writing must be much more easily acquired, than in the case of those systems which include characters lying in all directions.

Art. 47. *Remarks on a late Publication, entitled* "An Essay on the Principles of Population, &c. by T. R. Malthus, A. M. Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge." 8vo. 2s. Bickerstaff.

Had this author correctly stated Mr. Malthus's principles, or substantiated against him any charge of error or inaccuracy, we should have felt pleasure in attending to him; since we have professed a strong desire to have the leading doctrines of that Gentleman's important work discussed, and have testified an anxiety that it should receive from the public that attention which it merited. If, however, we admit that just and sensible observations occur in these pages, we have to complain that they do not apply to the matters in discussion, and therefore are not calculated to arrest our attention.

Art. 48. *A Description of a Patent Hot House which operates chiefly by the Heat of the Sun*, without the Aid of Flues, or Tan Bark, or Steam, for the Purpose of heating it. To which is added an Appendix containing Remarks upon a Letter from T. A. Knight, Esq. on the Subject of Mr. Forsyth's Plaster. By James Anderson, LL.D. F.R.S. F.A.S. E. &c. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Cumming.

The improvements here suggested, in the construction and management of hot-houses, professedly consist in the application of known philosophic principles respecting heat. Dr Anderson considers in what way heated air may be most economically and effectually generated, preserved, and managed, so as to keep up a regular supply of equable heat in the business of forcing fruit. He objects to the present construction of pineries, stoves, &c. as being more expensive than necessary, and as occasioning a great waste of heat. Every judicious reader will perceive that many of his remarks are well founded: but how far, in his endeavour to avoid the errors observable in the general practice, he has fallen into others, by not adverting and accommodating himself to all circumstances, must be left to the decision of experience. Dr. A. recommends that the roof of the hot-house should be flat, and made air-tight, to prevent the escape of hot air; which, from its superior lightness, always ascends to the top, and, in the common practice, escapes between the panes of glass, which are lapped over each other. When the air becomes over-heated by the excessive action of the sun, the superabundant caloric is conveyed by means of a pipe into an air-chamber, which is placed over the house, while cold air is admitted below; and the heated air in the air-chamber is preserved, to be returned, by means of the communication-pipe, to the hot house, when the operation of the night air, or of clouds or cold winds, has cooled the internal air, and consequently diminished its volume.

The patent hot-house here described, which is intended to be heated by the sun alone, or by means of an Argand lamp, requires no kind of masonry in its construction, and is to be placed in an

open situation detached from every wall or building. The walls or upright sides are to be of glass, so as to admit light from every point of the compass. When it is necessary to employ culinary fire, Dr. A. endeavours to guard against every possible loss of heat; and instead of flues running along a wall, the defect of which in the economising of caloric is evident, he advises that the stove should be constructed so that the smoke may pass into a smoke-chamber below the house, through the floor of which almost the whole of the generated heat will proceed upwards into the region where its influence is required. Some ingenious contrivances are suggested, by the use of valves, for the transmission and regulation of heat; together with some useful hints for the internal management of the grapery, pinery, and stove.

Dr. A. has built a small hot-house, which is constructed and regulated according to the plan here detailed: but we are not informed that the trial has been made on a large scale, and sanctioned by the adoption of professed horticulturists. The ingenious inventor is so very sanguine in his expectations of success, that we shall not attempt to injure his patent by any *frigorific* observations: but we may be allowed to think that he displays too much *warmth* of imagination when he supposes that, by the treatment of the conservatory which he recommends 'the *fuccia coccinea*, and *heliotropium odoratum* may be made to advance from *six to eight feet in one year*, instead of as many inches.' Gardeners will be much obliged to Dr. A. for the secret of making the *fuccia* shoot eight feet in one year.

Directions are given for the management of vines, pines, melons, peaches, cherries, &c.; and hints are offered respecting the causes and cure of the disease called *Damp*.

When personalities are diffused into a controversy, we wish to decline all interference; we therefore shall not resume the subject discussed in the Appendix, any farther than to observe that, though Dr. A. is extremely angry with Mr. Knight, he candidly allows that he has expressed himself incorrectly.

Art. 49. *The Recorder:* being a Collection of Tracts and Disquisitions, chiefly relating to the modern State and Principles of the People called Quakers. Vol. I. By William Matthews, of Bath. Small 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson.

If any system of church union promised, by its simplicity, to exclude strife and contention, it was that of the people called Quakers: but we find, by some late publications, that the Society of Friends cannot altogether exclude "the foul fiend" division, and enjoy *unity of spirit in the bond of peace*. The pamphlets on the case of Hannah Barnard have exhibited them to the world in a light very different from that in which they were considered by the liberal part of the community; and Mr. Matthews, himself a Quaker, speaks in harsher terms than it is necessary for us to use. 'It seems to be reserved, (he says,) to the present times, for the Friends to exemplify a large degree of intolerance, and of readiness for persecution among themselves, respecting mysterious points, unessential to practical religion; and still further, to imitate some of their adversaries, in the reproachful imputation of *Deism* and *Infidelity*.' In adverting, also, to the

the modern state of the society, Mr. M. remarks that 'it has become a new refinement, or perversion of modern zealots among the Friends, to encourage *abstruse* questions, after the manner of other innovators of Christian simplicity, respecting the essence and mode of existence in the Godhead.'

To aggravate this misfortune, the Friends appear to be relaxing in their peculiar discipline, and are casting off the discriminating badges of their sect. 'One chief feature of our society (observes Mr. M.) from the beginning has been, that of a refusal actively to pay "tithes, priests' demands, and those called church rates."' This peculiar scruple, which the society has agreed to call a Testimony, has been the cause of much personal suffering at former periods; but as it has long, in some degree or other, had its *dissentients*, it has been productive of continual breaches of harmony.' It is the opinion of the editor of these tracts, that the objections raised to the payment of tithes are not well founded; and therefore, in a postscript to the first essay, on *Church Discipline*, written by Henry Portsmouth of Basingstoke, he combats the scruples of his brethren, and delivers many rational and liberal sentiments. He then subjoins a *short detail of occurences*, &c. in which, glancing occasionally at other differences, he pursues the subject, and introduces the next paper, intitled, *An Explanatory Address to the People called Quakers and to the Candid of every Denomination*, with the following notice: 'This article will serve to exemplify the narrow, bigotted, and mischievous spirit, which becomes tolerated and fostered in the Society of Friends, by the continuance of the mistaken Christian testimony with regard to tithes.' The facts, which have provoked Mr. M.'s censures on the conduct of his brethren, induce him to observe, that 'strict alliance with such a church has lost its amiability.'

In this collection, will be found the several papers which have been published relative to the *Case and treatment of Hannah Barnard*, of which we have taken some notice (see M. R. vol. xl. N. S. p. 325.) Remarks on the whole affair are annexed by Mr. M.; who accuses the Quakers of admitting narrow and intolerant principles, and thus records the fate of this persecuted female on her return to her own country; 'The documents of the London proceedings having been transmitted to such as were deemed proper persons in America, the business was made matter of record against her in her Monthly Meeting before her arrival—and soon after that arrival, she was condemned to silence, as a minister. She is stated to have received the decision with a firm and inflexible constancy, remaining persuaded that the number of those who privately think with her, as to the great eternal principles of religion and godliness, is increasing and will increase.'

From a kind of historical commentary on the transactions of the Quakers, Mr. M. proceeds, in the remaining papers, to discuss doctrines. *Plain arguments* are stated *from reason and scripture against the belief of Eternal Punishment*; and he contends that 'we are not warranted in believing that the first Friends ever held, or entertained the doctrine of the *proper eternal divinity of the Son of God*.' Passages of scripture are amply adduced under the heads of *Father, Son, and Holy Spirit*, to demonstrate the *Unity of God the Father*.

It

It is somewhat singular that the controversy on the doctrine of the Trinity, after having been so generally put to rest in other churches, should be awakened by the Quakers. In what an age of novelties do we live!

Art. 50. *A Description of the Condition and Manners, as well as of the Moral and Political Character, Education, &c. of the Peasantry of Ireland,* such as they were between the Years 1780 and 1790, when Ireland was supposed to have arrived at its highest Degree of Prosperity and Happiness. By Robert Bell, LL.B. 8vo. 2s. Vernor and Hood. 1804.

The information contained in this pamphlet is curious and important: it is stated with great perspicuity and simplicity; and it eminently claims the attention of government. Numerous are the warning voices which sound in its ears; and the bad system, under which the Irish peasantry live, has often been made public: but we fear that little has been done to redress the evil. The nature of the information here communicated will be best displayed by submitting to the reader a few specimens of it.

Among the most remarkable of the amusements of the inhabitants of our sister island, was what has been called the *Irish wake*, which 'was an assemblage of men and women round the corpse of a deceased neighbour. To accomodate as many persons as possible, the corpse was decently laid out in one corner of a barn or some other extensive place. The next of kin, together with some old men and old women sat near the dead body all night, and amused themselves the greater part of the time with smoaking tobacco, and telling stories of ghosts, goblins and witches. The rest of the people began shortly after night-fall to arrange the plan of their sports and diversions, which hardly ever ceased until break of day. These sports consisted chiefly of rude buffoonery, boisterous mirth, coarse jests, songs, &c. all of which were regulated by some one person, selected by the company to act as master of the ceremonies; and who was most noted for his drollery and vivacity. The mirth of the company was however interrupted, once in every hour, sometimes every half hour, by the cries of those who sat next the deceased: the sports were then supended, and every person present was supposed to join in the general lamentation, which lasted about five or six minutes. These cries have been described by the appellation of the *Irish howl;* and, shocking as they would have been to a delicate English ear, they were not destitute of modulation. The tones were few but plaintive; and the voices of the women always predominated. While they were crying or howling, they frequently repeated a set of unmeaning words, and would ask the deceased why he was so cruel as to leave them. Many women who had neither been related to, nor acquainted with the deceased, would join in the howl with every appearance of affliction, would beat their bosoms, dishevel their hair, and bedew their faces with tears: the same women would perhaps, in ten minutes after, take a leading part in the mirth which succeeded. The corpse was accompanied to the grave by similar cries and howlings. It has often been said that persons were hired to cry at wakes and funerals; the author of these accounts cannot deny the existence of such a practice; but must say that he never knew an instance of

of the kind. He has also to add, that he never knew or heard of any liquor being drunk at wakes: the company was treated only with pipes, tobacco and snuff: and the whole expence of waking and burying an adult, seldom amounted to a quarter of the sum which the interment of an infant, three days old, would cost in London.'

Equally singular was their mode of spending the Sunday. 'In the morning they went to their popish chapel, which was sometimes not sufficient to contain one half of the people: those, therefore, who could not gain admittance, prayed in the open air, near the doors of the chapel. As soon as service was over, the greater part of the congregation went home and dined: after which, during the summer season, they assembled in large bodies in some adjacent field; where the old sat in circles, and entertained each other with stories, and the young danced to whatever music they could procure, and some of the young men exercised themselves in feats of bodily strength. Good humour and contentment always prevailed at those meetings, as long as they drank no whiskey: but whenever that fiery spirit was introduced, intoxication and quarrels were the inevitable consequences.

'In the winter season, they assembled on Sunday evenings at some house where whiskey was sold: but more commonly where some one belonging to the family played on an instrument of music. The people belonging to the latter description of houses never demanded, or expected any recompence for the accommodation thus afforded their neighbours, except the satisfaction arising from the consciousness of having contributed to the happiness of others. The love of society was, in short, so prominent a part of the character of those people, that hardly any part of a peasant's family remained at home on a Sunday evening; and in winter, they would often go a distance of three or four miles, through swamps and bogs, to any place where a considerable number of people were assembled. Even in their ordinary occupations, both in the field and in the house, they shewed an uncommon fondness for social intercourse. Every evening of the week, throughout the winter season, a party of young females went successively to the houses of their respective parents, with their spinning wheels, and dedicated a great part of the night, to the double purpose of industry and innocent amusement. Hither they were generally followed by their lovers: the song and the tale went round, and labour ceased to be a toil. The happiness enjoyed by those simple rustics, in places where oppression had not spread her iron hand, was such as those who live in polished society might envy.'

The author informs us that in the town where he was educated, and in many other places, 'he has frequently witnessed the most wanton assaults committed by gentlemen as they passed along the streets, upon poor creatures, whose only crime was that of gazing, perhaps with admiration, at their splendid apparel. And such was the slavish spirit, the vicious apathy; such was the cold-blooded indifference, and the base selfishness of the surrounding spectators, that these outrages were suffered to pass, not only without punishment, but without censure; and if noticed at all, it was only to applaud the gallant exploit that had been atchieved.

'The injured parties, if their condition was very low, might as well have applied to the Grand Seignior for a guard of Janissaries, as have sought

sought redress from the laws of that country, whose life and strength their hard labour had contributed to support. To have brought an action for damages, would have required more money than they themselves, and all the relations they had in the world possessed. If they attempted to prosecute by indictment, the magistrate, in the first instance, would either not attend to their complaint, or recommend an accommodation, which, if listened to by the party accused, was generally concluded by the payment of a sum of money, by way of compensation, so small and insignificant as not to have the least effect in preventing a repetition of the outrage."

These attempts to rouse government to a sense of the importance of Ireland as a vital limb of the British empire, and to excite attention to her claims on the justice of this country, deserve, in our opinion, every encouragement, since we are convinced that we cannot neglect our sister-island without exposing ourselves to imminent danger; while, by consulting her interests, we shall advance our own in the same proportion.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 51. *Zeal and Fortitude in the Christian Ministry illustrated and explained:* delivered at Hackney, April 8, 1804, on occasion of the Death of the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. Published at the Desire of the Congregation. To which is added a Brief Memoir of Dr. Priestley's Life and Writings, and a Letter from his Son, Mr. Joseph Priestley, containing the Particulars of his last Sickness. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

It is not unfrequently the fate of men of great talents and unshaken virtue to be undervalued, if not persecuted, by their cotemporaries; and, while they derive present consolation and support from the approbation of a pure conscience, to be under the necessity of waiting for the decisions of posterity, in order to obtain that honourable reputation which they so justly merit. How many instances, from the time of Socrates to the present, could be adduced in confirmation of this remark! The dauntless advocates of new opinions in religion must count on much opposition. The controversy will soon be blackened by base and malignant passions; and they, whose benevolent wish was to enlighten, will, to their great mortification, discover that, for the present at least, they have done little more than alarm and inflame. Dr. Priestley, possessing the qualities of a reformer and founder of a sect, has experienced the harsh treatment which innovation provokes; and though, by his bold researches and expositions, he has divested Christianity of much of the mystery which it is generally supposed to involve, and has endeavoured to prove it to have been originally a religion of great simplicity, (inculcating doctrines which men of reflection, who affix precise and well-defined ideas to expressions, can sincerely adopt,) yet there is nothing in his system which is of a popular nature, and he is more likely to become the favourite of the philosophical believer than of the multitude. Posterity will do him justice, will estimate the value of his exertions, and will reprobate, with deserved censure, the bigotry of an age, terming itself enlightened, which could invoke the spirit of persecution to enforce theological argumentation, and drive a man of such distinguished

distinguished learning and science to the remotest boundaries of the civilized world. He has now paid the debt of nature; and it is honourable to the heart of Mr. Belsham that he has endeavoured, in this funeral discourse, to anticipate and even to surpass the praise which must be rendered to the merit of his deceased "guide, philosopher, and friend." Of Dr. Priestley he has given, we believe, a faithful delineation, notwithstanding that the hand of friendship is apparent in the application of light and shade. After having presented a short sketch of the character of the apostle Paul, as drawn by himself, (Acts xx. 24.) Mr. B. discovers in it such a resemblance in its prominent features to that of Dr. P. as he thinks must inevitably strike all his hearers.

We have perused the memoir, which forms the chief part of the discourse, with pleasure and satisfaction; and till a more ample account of the deceased, which we are taught to expect, is prepared, this sermon and its accompaniments will be an acceptable present to the Unitarian Church. Though Mr. B. does not pass over Dr. Priestley's merit as a scholar and philosopher, his chief object is to illustrate and display the excellence of his deceased friend's character as a Christian minister; for which purpose he takes a regular review of his life. We must, however, abstain from any detail, and content ourselves with subjoining one short passage descriptive of its leading traits:

'A predominant feature in Dr. Priestley's official character was a disinterested love of truth, indefatigable zeal in the pursuit of it, and resolution to adhere to it, when found, at all hazards. This virtuous principle was generated in his mind by the vigor of his intellect, and by an early intercourse with wise and good men of different opinions in religion. Having often heard these opinions discussed with temper and ability, and being himself penetrated with an impressive sense of the importance of Christian truth, he soon began to regard it as an imperious duty to take nothing upon trust, but to think and judge for himself concerning the doctrines of Christianity, according to the ability and opportunity which divine providence had granted him.

'His magnanimous spirit led him also to hold in just contempt all ambiguity of language in expressing his sentiments, and to avow, in the most honourable manner, his conceptions of Christian truth.'

Much opposition was created by this conduct: but, as his eulogist observes, 'a confidence in the power of truth, and a commanding sense of duty, triumphed over all.'

The account transmitted by his son, of Dr. P's final illness, exhibits a pleasing picture of a Christian philosopher approaching the conclusion of his sublunary pursuits; and terminating them by a dissolution peculiarly calm and easy. He was active to the last, and in death seemed only to rest from his labours.—Some posthumous publications will shew in what manner, and to what purpose, he employed the concluding days of his mortal pilgrimage.—Dr. Priestley was born at Field Head, near Leeds, Yorkshire, March 13, O. S., 1733, went to America, April 1794, and died at Northumberland, North America, Feb. 6, 1804.

Art.

Art. 52. *Occasioned by the Death of the late Rev. Dr. Joseph Priestley,* delivered in the Dissenting Chapel in Monkwell-street, April 15, 1804. By John Edwards. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

After some introductory declamation on the structure of the material universe, on the dignity of man as a Being endued with intelligence, and on the importance of the gospel as intended to train him to virtue, and to prepare him for that immortality which it reveals, the preacher advances to the immediate object of his discourse; viz. to do justice to the memory of Dr. Priestley, as a Christian minister, as a philosopher, as a scholar, and as a man. The details of Dr. P.'s life are similar to those which are given in Mr. Belsham's short memoir. In delineating the character of the deceased, Mr. E. observes,

'The prophet, it is true, had, comparatively speaking, but little honour in his own country, though now we trust that error is past away, and his country, repentant and grateful, will inshrine his memory along with that of her noble army of sages, heroes, and martyrs; and bid the genius of the sculptor place his monumental honours next to those of Verulam, or Newton.

'And then, what science is there that must not weave a chaplet to adorn his brow, or hang a wreath of cypress on his tomb!

'Consider him as a minister of the Gospel, and what man of his age has done any thing that can be compared with his labours in its cause? His unblemished morals, and his various and extensive knowledge, clad him with impenetrable armour on the right hand and on the left. And then he drank the sacred streams of Zion, at the well-head, and spring—the living spring, pure, and crystalline, as it flows "fast by the throne of God." Yes, he bathed his great mind in the fountain itself of heavenly light, and then, how it's irradiated powers, spurned at the corruptions, which human weakness, and human vice, had contrived to stamp with the image and superscription of Heaven's Eternal King.'

Mr. Edwards speaks of the riots at Birmingham, in which Dr. P.'s house, laboratory, and MSS. were destroyed, as throwing a broad blot on our annals, on which future historians will comment with virtuous indignation.

Art. 53. *A Biographical Tribute to the Memory of the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S.,* in an Address to the Congregation of Protestant Dissenters, at the New Meeting, in Birmingham, delivered April 22, 1804, on occasion of his Death. By Joshua Toulmin, D.D. To which is added, A Letter to the Congregation. By John Kentish. Both published at the unanimous Request of the Society. To which are prefixed, the Resolutions of a Special General Meeting of the Congregation, held the 15th of April. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Dismissing all general observations, which might have been heard with impatience, Dr. Toulmin proceeds immediately to the professed object of his discourse, and gives a fuller account of Dr. P.'s life than is exhibited in either Mr. Belsham's sermon or Mr. Edwards's address. With great judgment, the preacher adduces various well-chosen quotations from Dr. P.'s writings, in order to combat those prejudices against him which have been entertained, and to evince his liberality

liberality and generous turn of mind. Proud of his theme, Dr. T. observes:

'The relation which, as a Pastor, Dr. Priestley bore to you, will do you honour in the page of history. In the page of history, when passions have subsided, and prejudices have died away, his name will live, with unsullied glory, as an ornament to his country; to that country which violated his rights; and it will stand with a BACON and a BOYLE, a LOCKE and a NEWTON, those friends of science and truth, on the immortal scroll that perpetuates their names. If ever it were an affront to mention the name of Priestley in promiscuous company, and in the higher circles, that has been only a local and temporary detraction from his illustrious fame; an evanescent spot on its brightness, like a dark cloud passing over the sun. Even at the same time, in other countries, his fame was great, and his character was revered; and his name stood enrolled in the Academies of Europe.'

The letter of Mr. Kentish might have been spared: but we suppose that he wished to throw in his mite of praise to the memory of the deceased.

The Resolutions of the Special Meeting of the Congregation are declarative of their high veneration for their late pastor; they express the determination of the whole Society to wear mourning for two months, to put the pulpit and desk in mourning, and to erect a tablet of white marble with a suitable inscription, within the Meeting House, testifying their sense of Dr. Priestley's character and services.

Art. 54. *Preached in the Unitarian Chapel in Essex street*, London, April 15, 1804, on occasion of the Death of the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL.D. F.R.S. &c. &c. &c. who died at Northumberland in Pennsylvania, North America, Feb. 6, 1804. Published at particular Request. By John Disney, D.D. F.S.A. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

In his eulogy on the deceased philosopher and theologian, Dr. Disney, if less dilated, is not less warm than any of the preceding orators, and is more pointed in his censure of that outrage which destroyed the residence of Dr. Priestley; terming it 'the unanswered and uncancelled disgrace of our country.' Considering the extent, importance, and variety of Dr. P.'s writings, and the kind of opposition which his bold inquiries in theology excited, the preacher has some ground for asserting that 'there have, indeed, been few men, to whom the world owes so much; and not many, to whom the world has made more ungrateful returns.' The opinions of Dr. P. are asserted to be as old as the Scriptures; which all Christians are exhorted to study, to the best of their capacities, without bias, without shackle, and without bribe.

Art. 55. *Addressed to the Prisoners confined for Debt in the United Kingdom, on their approaching Liberation by the Insolvent Bill.* By a Clergyman of the Church of England, (formerly Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge,) who could not receive the Benefit of that Act. 4to. 1s. Asperne.

The

The last part of this title we transcribe with concern: for into whatever indiscretions this clergyman may have been betrayed, the noble principles of the mind, and the amiable sentiments of the heart, are so far from appearing to have suffered any material injury in this instance, that they seem to have acquired purity and brightness under those privations and sufferings which were the consequence of his imprudence. Admiring the correctness of his feelings, we necessarily commiserate his situation; and approving the good sense and philanthropy which pervade his exhortation, apparently proceeding from an understanding on which affliction has not operated in vain, we regret that he cannot, in the regular exercise of his profession, turn his sincere repentance and dear-bought experience to the good of those who are without the walls of a prison. After a judicious comment on the Gospel rule of Equity, he exhorts those who are resuming their liberty, in consequence of the grace extended to them by the recent Insolvent Act, to remember that they are not released from the law of conscience and of God; and that, as they are returning to their accustomed pursuits with joy, they may endeavour to return wiser from past misfortunes, purged and purified, as it were, by the fiery trial of their afflictions. This is good advice; and it is to be hoped that those who have languished in prison will, on recovering their freedom, live with prudence, and avoid the evil of running in debt.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are favored with Mr. Repton's information, and shall pay all the attention to it which it appears to require: but we apprehend that he does not wish us to take any *public* notice of it.

A. B., whose letter bears the Morpeth post-mark, must excuse us from giving an answer to his inquiry. We have been obliged to say, —many, many, times,—that such questions are not properly addressed to us; that we have not leisure to attend to them; and that a *Magazine* is the proper receptacle for them.

The Rev. C. V. Le Grice requests us to add to our account of the translation of the Romance of Daphnis and Chloe from the Greek of Longus, mentioned in our Number for June, that he is the author of that publication, and that he designs shortly to print a second edition of it.

F. is informed that we hope soon to attend to the work mentioned in his letter.

We know nothing of the poem said to have been printed, in the strange scrawl from Southampton; and any farther such attempts to put us to expence will be frustrated by returning the letters to the Post-office.

*** The Appendix to Vol. 44, of the Monthly Review, N. S., will be published with the Number for September.

APPENDIX

TO THE

FORTY-FOURTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *M. Tullii Ciceronis, quæ vulgò feruntur, Orationes quatuor. I. Post reditum, in Senatu. II. Ad Quirites post Reditum. III. Pro domo suâ, ad Pontifices. IV. De Haruspicum Responsis. — Recognovit animadversiones integras J. Marklandi et J. M. Gesneri, suasque adjecit,* FRID. AUG. WOLFIUS. 8vo. Berolini, *impensis F. T. Lagardi.* 1801.

THE learned world will be somewhat surprized to find once more brought before the tribunal of public opinion, the old question concerning the genuineness of these four Orations; —a question which excited so much interest among scholars about the middle of the last century, and which, since the ample discussion then allotted to it, has for so long a period been considered as settled.

To attack the authenticity of antient works which have been usually regarded as genuine, and to hold up to *ridicule* compositions which the world has been for ages in the habit of admiring, must ever be an invidious task. The sentiments excited on such occasions, in the mind of the reader, differ essentially from those which he might perhaps experience on hearing a satire on living characters. The modern satirist, not less than those of former days, may assure himself of a favourable audience: Φύσει γὰρ πᾶσιν ἀνθρώποις ὑπάρχει, τῶν μὲν λοιδοριῶν καὶ τῶν κατηγοριῶν ἀκούειν ἡδέως, τοῖς ἐπαινοῦσι δ' αὐτοὺς ἄχθεσθαι (Dem. περὶ στέφ.), and the reason is obvious; we make comparisons of ourselves with the persons satirized, and are elevated by self-gratulations on our fancied superiority.

With respect, however, to the works of antient authors, which we have long studied and admired, the case is widely different; boys do not much trouble themselves with such discussions; and men are not easily persuaded to confess that, from their youth onwards, their taste and judgment have been erroneous:

" *Indignumque putant parere minoribus, et, quæ*
Imberbi didicêre, senes perdenda fateri."

Yet much of this reluctance will disappear, if the innovator be, as in the present instance, a man of high authority in the republic of letters; and one to whose judgment the generality of scholars may defer without any very deep sense of humiliation. The editor of the work before is so well known by his Prolegomena to Homer, published in the year 1795 *, that whatever comes from his pen must necessarily carry with it great weight of influence; and it may perhaps be requisite to caution his readers against credulity, rather than against prejudice.

M. Wolf has dedicated this book to his friend *Larcher*, in return for his much-admired translation of Herodotus;—it is a single handsome 8vo. volume, well printed, on good paper, containing 99 pages of preliminary matter, 391 of text and commentary, and a short index. It begins with a preface, of about 40 pages, by the editor, who sets out with declaring his design in these words; '*Hæc editio a nobis eo potissimum consilio suscepta est, ut* quatuor Orationes, *nunc uno volumine junctas, quæ vulgò Ciceronis auctoritate venditantur, rationibus in utramque partem exponendis demonstremus*, Cicerone indignissimas esse, et declamatorio studio exercendi vel ostendendi ingenii conscriptas.' Then follows a compendious and entertaining account of the old controversy concerning them;—from which, for the satisfaction of some of our readers, we have extracted the subsequent particulars.

In 1741, soon after the publication of Middleton's Life of Cicero, the Rev. James Tunstall addressed a letter to Middleton, containing doubts of the authenticity of the epistles generally supposed to be written by Cicero to Brutus, and by Brutus to Cicero. To this letter, which was composed in Latin, Middleton, in the year 1743, returned an answer in English. In 1744, Tunstall replied in English, in a work entitled " Observations." In 1745, the celebrated Jer. Markland entered the lists, and published his " Remarks on the Epistles of Cicero to Brutus," &c. in which he supported the arguments of Tunstall; and he added " a Dissertation upon IV Orations ascribed to M. Tullius Cicero," &c. in which he first hazarded doubts concerning their au-

* See M. R. Vol. xx, xxi, and xxii. N. S.

thenticity:

thenticity:—'*dubitationes*,' says the present editor, '*tanto excogitatas acumine, tamque eleganti et exquisita doctrina explicatas, ut alteram quæstionem simul commovisse, et magna ex parte profligasse, alteram plane ad exitum suum perduxisse videatur.*' Pref. p. viii. This tract gave rise to much discussion, accompanied by some severity of satire against Markland. Dr. Ross, Bishop of Exeter, produced an ironical "Dissertation, in which the defence of P. Sulla ascribed to M. T. Cicero is clearly proved to be spurious, after the manner of Mr. Markland, with some introductory remarks on other writings of the antients never before suspected." London, in 8vo. without date, but certainly in the year 1745 or 1746. In this work, on the slightest grounds of mock-criticism, and with no small degree of humour, he pretended to prove to be spurious the Orations "*pro P. Sulla, pro Milone, pro Cælio, pro Muræna, pro Flacco*, two of the Catalinarian Orations, two books of the Tusculan Disputations, the second *De Finibus B. & M.* the epistles of Cælius Rufus, &c., together with two discourses of Tillotson, and one of Atterbury." At the same time, the Bishop's real object was to insinuate the dangerous licentiousness into which Markland's mode of arguing might lead; '*atque haud dubie*,' continues M. Wolf, '*quod voluit, assecutus est scriptor apud indoctam multitudinem, quæ quoniam vera a falsis discernere nescit, facillimè tali rerum assimulatione in fraudem allicitur; viri docti autem, qui opusculum ipsum non legerant, hunc prope novum Harduinum extitisse dolebant.*' Pref. p. xi. In answer to this amusing piece of irony, a serious dissertation was written by Bowyer in 1746.

Hitherto the controversy had been confined to this country, owing to its having been carried on in the English language, which was at that time little studied by foreigners. This unscholar-like medium of discussing a literary subject is strongly reprobated by M. Wolf; and with some reason, since it in fact withdrew the question from the consideration of the learned on the Continent, to make it the table-talk of the unlearned in our isle; of those shallow critics

> "Who judge of authors' names, not works, and then
> Nor praise nor blame the writings, but the men."

This censure is principally bestowed on Middleton, for having declined to answer Tunstall in Latin.

Speaking of the great difficulty of finding judges competent to decide in such discussions, the editor observes:

'*Omnino* pauci *sunt, omni tempore, qui talem causam, qualis hæc nostra est, cognoscere* operæ pretium ducant;—pauciores, *qui id* facere possint; *sed qui iidem et* velint *et* possint, longe paucissimi: *atque haud scio*

an illa ætate nullus eorum, quos novimus, doctorum in Britannia plane idoneus fuerit, cujus sententiæ res committi posset, præter unum Bentleium. Eo sane præside, Phalarideæ disputationis auctore, etsi is eadem doctrinæ suæ in aliis potius scriptoribus quam in Cicerone fixerat,—eo tamen, sive præside sive honorario arbitro, decertare inter se debebant nobiles disceptatores. Ille vero vix ingressum hæc studia adspexit Tunstallum; novas Animadversiones Marklandi, morte præventus, non vidit; neque inventus est, quem in illius locum surrogaret Civitas literatorum.' Pref. p. xiv.

A question of such general interest to literary men could not long remain thus confined. In the course of a few years, it made its way to the Continent; where the opinion of Tunstall and Markland concerning the epistles was generally received, but the conjecture of Markland respecting the four Orations was almost universally scouted.

Ruhnken, in his *Velleius Paterculus* (p. 109. and 326.) freely rejects the epistles: but, with regard to the Orations, neither in his *Aquila Romanus* (p. 149. and 160.) nor in his *Julius Rufinianus*, (p. 200 and 203.)—by both of whom the Oration *De Domo* is quoted,—has he advanced any opinion of his own. On the contrary, in his Velleius, p. 64. 102. 227. he cites as genuine the Oration *De Domo*; and in his Rutilius Lupus, p. 90. he quotes the oration *De Haruspicum Responsis*.

Wyttenbach, in *Bibl. Crit.* vol. ii. P. 3. p. 78. and in his life of his great master, *Ruhnken*, p. 219. and 290. has given the same opinion in terms still more precise.

Saxe, also, in the first part of his *Onomasticum Litterarium*, p. 160, after having mentioned what Tunstall had made known concerning the epistles, adds, "*Acrius etiam*, quod nollem, *tibias inflavit Marklandus*;" and again, "*Vel sic tamen bonum factum, Marklandi subinde argumentationes et suspiciones a viro magno, Jo. Matthia Gesnero*, enervatas fuisse."

This celebrated defence by Gesner was contained in two Lectures, intitled "*Cicero Restitutus*," publicly delivered by him in the University of Göttingen in the years 1753 and 1754, and inserted in Tom. III. *Commentar. Soc. Reg. Gött.* In these lectures, says M. Wolf, '*Omnia Marklandi argumenta singillatim excutere et annotationibus suis refutare aggressus est, nulla usquequaque causa reperta, cur a communi litteratorum opinione recedendum censeret*,' Pref. p. xvii.; and hence he supposes it to have happened that Ernesti, in his subsequent edition of Cicero, makes no mention whatever of this controversy, and, even in his second edition of the Bibliotheca Fabriciana, T. I. p. 161. (though he had expressly undertaken to give a *Critical History* of the works of Cicero,) passes it over with very slight notice, as a literary squabble of small importance. The editor then infers:

'*Quam*

'*Quam ob causam minimè mirum est, si jam totum illud certamen viæ aliquot viris historiæ litterariæ cupidioribus cognitum, a plerisque ne* memoria *quidem, nedum* renovatione, *dignum haberi videmus. Itaque non modo leguntur edunturque istæ Orationes una cum reliquis monumentis Eloquentiæ Ciceronianæ, sed unam duasve earum, propter insignem* scilicet *elegantiam, in numerum* selectarum, *quas vocant, receperunt Editores, scholasticæ Juventuti a prima ætate prælegendas; ita ut nullus forsitan mensis abeat, quin aliquod auditorium per cultissimas terras Europæ vocibus magistrorum resonet, pulchras earum sententias et verba interpretantium.*

'*Tot et tantis auctoritatibus quis non moveatur verecundus homo? quis non deterreatur, quo minus* desertæ relictæque * *causæ patrocinium suscipiat? Immo fortius ad* publicam opinionem *rejicimur testimoniis veterum scriptorum, tum eorum quos Marklandus nominavit,* Pediani, Quintiliani, Arnobii, *fortasse* Ammiani Marcellini, *tum aliorum paulo minore auctoritate,* Mamertini *junioris, Oratoris panegyrici,* Servii, *grammatici Virgiliani,* Prisciani, *tum Rhetorum, quos supra attuli,* Aquilæ *et* Rufiniani, *fortasse etiam* Dionis Cassii, Lactantii *et* Charisii, *ac si qui forte alii animadversionem nostram fugerunt.—Verum qui* in quaque *re nihil* præter rem *spectare didicit, neque* extrinsecus *suspensas habere judicandi rationes, quamvis prima specie minime* verisimile *putet, tam multis, tamque partim præstantibus viris imposuisse scholasticum hominem imitamento Artis Ciceronianæ, non tamen illud ex eo genere esse arbitrabitur, quod plane sit τῶν ἀδυνάτων.*' Pref. p. xix.

The method which M. WOLF has adopted in settling the text, and in his Commentary, is very satisfactory. He has principally followed the text of Grævius, but at the same time professes to have diligently collated with it the MSS. and printed editions of the best character. Whenever he found different *readings*, supported by the authority of *Codices*, his object was to select that which was most elegant and most Ciceronian; by which means his text is, in some cases, more Ciceronian than that of any former edition. On the other hand, whenever all or the best authorities were agreed on a particular *reading*, he has rejected, in favour of it, those alterations which preceding editors had introduced, on bare unsupported conjecture, in their tenderness for the reputation of Cicero; '*qua ratione*,' he observes, '*non raro etiam verba* emendavi, minus emendatis *inferendis, uti monitum est in Orat. ad Quir. p.* 124.' Pref. p. xxii. Moreover, where the ancient and genuine reading has been totally obscured by the blunders of transcribers, and none of the existing *Codices* throw any light on it, he gives the passage as it has been generally published.

In his Commentary, in order that the mind of the reader may not be distracted from the main point, the editor confines

'* *Notabile est, Marklandum anno* 1776 *obiisse, Gesnero autem,* cujus libellus eum latere vix potuit, *nihil respondisse. Quamquam ex ea re conjici nolim, ipsum ab hoc deductum esse de sententia sua.*'

himself to this consideration, '*Quid in scribendo sit rectum, quid Latinum, quid Ciceronianum,—quid non.*' Pref. p. xxiii. For historical and other information, the reader is referred to prior editions; excepting in a few of the more obscure instances, in which explanations are adduced from Manutius, Hotomanus, &c. as their names annexed will shew. The commentary, on those passages which have been principally contested, presents to us the objection of Markland, with the answer of Gesner; to which M. WOLF subjoins his own decision. It is evident that a disputation of two such men, with such a moderator, must afford an interesting and very useful praxis of criticism.

The critical tests, by which the editor proposes to try the genuineness of these Orations, are six; I. The Rules of Grammar, II. Justness of Reasoning, III. Elegance and other rhetorical Excellencies, IV. Accuracy in Matters of History, V. That political Caution which arises from a Knowlege of the World, VI. Peculiar Character of Style.

Having thus laid down his plan of proceeding, he throws out a suspicion which may perhaps alarm some of his readers, at the same time that it stimulates their curiosity:

'*Num in extremis Orationibus Ciceronis* etiam alia quædam *lateat*, non in Senatu dicta, *uti creditur*, sed in otio scholæ composita. *Sed quoniam nemo ante nos talem conjecturam attulit, universe rem indicasse satis habemus, integramque relinquimus iis, qui in his studiis omnia sibi declarari et expediri moleste ferunt; præsertim quum magnopere vereamur, ne hoc surdis auribus cantaturi simus, quoniam in illa Oratione pleraque argumenta* νοθείας *ex una dissimilitudine* characteris *ducenda erunt.*' Pref. p. xliv.

In the way of Appendix to this introduction, are annexed the prefaces of Markland and Gesner; by which method we are put in possession of the whole of the *Materia Critica* of those illustrious scholars, without having occasion to refer to their respective publications.

The present state of the question, therefore, as humourously stated by our learned and ingenious editor, is this; '*Exstat unus libellus accusationis* *; *auditus est unus disertior patronus* †; *tres produximus accusati scriptoris laudatores* ‡; *reliquum est, ut velut integra re disceptemus, ut peroremus, ut eatur in Consilium.*' Pref. p. xxv.

We have been thus copious in our account of the Preface, both because the subject of it is very interesting, and because we trust that it will not be expected that we should be diffuse in our examination of the Commentary. A critique of a *triple*

* Markland. † Gesner. ‡ Ruhnken, Wyttehbach, Sa-e. kind,

kind, such as we have described the Commentary to be, however amusing in the perusal, must necessarily be a tedious matter for additional criticism; and our readers might be tempted to transfer to us the words used on another occasion by Horace, "*Nec quarta loqui persona laboret.*" We trust, however, that we may be allowed to offer a few preparatory remarks applicable to the work itself in general, and more particularly to the nature and style of the Commentary.

Though it be granted that the learned world may *possibly* (see Pref. p. xix. quoted above) have been deceived with respect to the authenticity of these four Orations, it still is certain that, as an imitation of Cicero, they must have very considerable merit; they could not, otherwise, have so long escaped detection. The blunders of the composer cannot be very coarse, or they would have been more palpable; the style cannot be very poor, the Latinity cannot be very provincial, very impure, nor very ungrammatical; if therefore mistakes of this sort do occur, they ought sometimes to be attributed to the injury of time, the inadvertency of successive transcribers, the *incuria* of the author, &c. and it is fair to use the same candour in *correcting* them as if the oration were of acknowleged authenticity; and it must be very unfair to criticise, with severity, passages of which the reading is notoriously corrupt. We lament that Markland, in his objections, has not invariably shewn himself unbiassed by prejudice; and we are ready to notice, where truth will permit us, the superior candour of M. Wolf; thus in p. 60. § 30. he defends, against Markland, the expression *divinitus*, which had not been noticed by Gesner; and he evinces a similar regard to justice, p. 119. § 20. p. 260. § 112. &c.: but it will hardly be contended that this is universally the case. He might sometimes have been less abusively sarcastic, and his argument would have appeared not less convincing. He says indeed in his preface, p. xxvi. '*Unus subinde castigatur, ubi quid commeruit, vetus Scriptor*, qui id non sentiet, *ac*, si sentiret, *haberet profecto, quo vel acerbiora maledicta obruere posset*, admiratorum suorum per tot sæcula consonantes laudes et præconia.' This may be true, but still his asperity is overcharged; his terms of reprobation are so severe, that his readers cannot always join with him; and he therefore seems, on such occasions, to cavil rather than criticise. On the other hand, as we are to look for errors in small matters, we must not take offence at much minuteness of criticism; where the dispute is about *words*, much will appear to be hypercritical, which is not so; the critic may seem *Nodum in Scirpo quærere*, because the patience of his reader happens to fail; and where the critic is really guilty, some

indulgence is due to him, since, how-much-soever he may be on his guard, it is natural to expect that there should be occasional hypercriticism, where the nicest precision of scrutiny is openly professed.

We shall now satisfy ourselves with selecting a few of the annotations of M. WOLF, as specimens from which some judgment may be formed of their general merit; and, if we do not in all cases agree in opinion with him, such difference might naturally be expected in a work of so much length and nicety.

He objects, on several accounts, to the first sentence of the first of these Orations:—we shall give his note in his own words:

'1. * (*Si—tribuendam putetis*) Cumulate gratias agere *loquutio est, quam alibi frustra quæras apud Ciceronem, quamvis sæpe et plurimis loquendi modis* gratias agentem. *Dicit ille quidem* cumulate referre Gratiam: *sed aliud est* referre, *aliud* agere. *Nam etsi in oratione quoque et in verbis* cumulus *intelligi potest; tamen antiqua consuetuao illud non magis videtur tulisse, quam* CUMULATE laudare aliquem *aut* reprehendere, *et similia. Hoc quale sit, demonstrare potest notum Ciceronis judicium Epp. ad Fam.* XVI. 17. *de formula* FIDELITER inservire valetudini, *quam ita probarunt quidam recentiorum, ut eam etiam contra illum defendere ex doctrina morum auderent. Atque huic generi existimatorum, sicut alia nostra permulta, sic et hoc, quod statim addidero, minus probabitur. Nam si quid calleo sensum Romani Oratoris, non videtur is in ipso principio ita de fratre et communibus liberis mentionem facturus fuisse, talisque pietas convenire potius Declamatori, qui si aliquot post sæculis vixisset, forsitan ne bonæ conjugis quidem oblitus esset; quæ et ipsa peti poterat ex Orat. pro Sext. c. 22. Denique mirandum est, in nullo codice legi* quæso obtestorque vos, *quod vocabulum non temere in hoc scribendi genere omitti solet. Mamertinus Grat. Act. ad Julian. c. 31. in manifesta nostrorum verborum usurpatione: "Nunc si tibi, Imperator, parum ampla nec respondente meritis tuis Oratione usus videbor,* quæso obtestorque TE, *ne meæ id naturæ potius quam magnitudine beneficiorum tuorum putes esse tribuendum." Quamquam ibi pronominis ellipsin tueri conabatur Arntzenius.*'

This is a specimen of criticism which may be regarded as a sort of standard of that determined rigour which pervades this whole Commentary; and it is worthy of examination. *Gratia*, in its primary meaning, signifies *favour*; *referre Gratiam* or

* N. B. The sections in this edition are marked with a double series of numerals, of which the larger, we find, correspond to the sections of the Olivet edition, &c. and the smaller to those of Alexander Scot, used in the edition of Verburg and others; the latter series is adopted by M. W. in his annotations.—We do not, however, observe that he has any where given this explanation of his notation; possibly he may have overlooked it.

Gratiam

Gratias is to *return a favour* or *favours received*; that this may be done *cumulatè* there can be little doubt;—so we say *to heap favours*,—and so Cicero, in one of his letters to Vatinius, "*Nec enim mihi tu habuisti modo Gratiam, verum etiam* cumulatissimè retulisti;" Epp. ad Fam. 5. where, it is to be observed, Vatinius had made him a *return of kindness.*—*Agere Gratias*, however, is nearly the same as *loqui beneficium*, to *plead* or *talk of favours received*, and so doing *to return* THANKS; if, therefore, we might say *loqui cumulatè*, it should seem that, by analogy, we might say *agere cumulatè*: but this phrase, as far as our immediate recollection goes, does not occur. *Polliceri cumulatissimè*, Cic. ad Fam. 13. 42. appears to come very near it: but analogy,—which, even when most perfect, is of somewhat dubious authority in verbal criticism,—affords, when it is not perfect, only a weak support in favour of a solitary expression.

At p. 59. § 30. M. WOLF objects to the expression '*gratias.... satis ornatè agere; quis umquam, præter hunc studiosum stili cultoris, dixit* Gratias agere ORNATE? *Dicitur quidem* sententiam de aliquo dicere ORNATE, *vel* causam agere ORNATE *et similia, in quibus vox non eo pertinet ut aliquis* ornetur, *i. e.* honoretur, *sed ad ornatum verborum?*' &c.—This objection does not appear very strong; *gratias* ORNATE AGERE seems perfectly analogous to *beneficium* ORNATE LOQUI, about which few persons would feel any doubt, see Cic. ad Att. I. 14. &c. Prescription, therefore, alone seems wanting, if indeed it be wanting, to authorize the phrase; a polite Frenchman would say, "*Si l'expression n'est pas Latine, elle merite bien de l'être.*"

With respect to the omission of the pronoun after "*oro obtestorque*," it is possible that the following passage might not occur to our editor; "*Quamobrem a te peto, vel potius omnibus precibus oro, et obtestor, ut .... impertias*," Cic. ad Cæs. inclosed in his Ep. ad Att. 9. 11. Here, however, in consequence of the *a te* preceding *peto*, the ellipsis is particularly easy.

P. 10. § 1. he objects to the expression *promerita*, and for a reason which certainly bears very strongly against the argument from analogy in general:—'*Substantivum hoc nusquam legitur in libris Ciceronis, nisi h. l. et ad Quir. c.* 4. *ubique* meritum, *locis innumeris: quæ res magni semper momenti habenda est, nec putandum classicos scriptores* in talibus *semel iterumque à constantiâ sui usus recedere?*'

P. 14. § 4. "*Quem ego mihi malueram esse fatalem*," Markland and Gesner have expended much learning on this word *fatalem*. M. WOLF supposes that Gesner would have equally defended the following absurdities, "Febrim hanc mihi meisque NOLUI ESSE FATALEM, quapropter medicum adhibui; *vel*

si dux exercitus dixerit, NOLLE *se* quoddam præsidium aut prœlium sibi FATALE *esse*; *etsi haud male dicimus* fatum quærere in prœlio:"—but why not suppose *fatalem* to have been inserted by some heedless transcriber for *letalem?* This correction would naturally suggest itself in an oration supposed to be authentic; vid. Burm. ad Rutil. I. 357.

P. 29. § 12. "*Non solum civium Lacrimas, verum etiam patriæ preces repudiavit.*" .... '*Quo loco memorabile est, sæpius accidisse huic scriptori, ut, ubi particulas istas poneret,* non solum, verum etiam, *in altero membro aut minus quiddam adjiceret, aut omnino nihil, quam aliquid magnum adjecisse videri vellet. Conf. supra* § 4. *et pro Domo* § 6.' Is then the expression *Patriæ preces* indeed of less force than *Lacrimæ civium,* "the tears of individual citizens?" The remark, however, is applicable to various *other* instances in these Orations.

P. 34. § 15. "*Hanc prudentissimam civitatem.*" An amusing note, full of ridicule,—but concluding with these words, which totally destroy its force; '*Non dissimulanda tamen est lectio* quatuor *Oxon. etsi parum verisimilis,* prudentissimam, *qua dicta omnia concideret.*' Why is a reading, so well supported, *parum verisimilis?* the context evidently requires it; "he has so despised this *most discerning* city, as to suppose that his vices would escape notice, if only in the forum he assumed a countenance of *austerity.*" We meet with a similar use of the word in Quintil. Inst. 5. 11. "*Civitas Atheniensium* prudentissima."

P. 35. § 16. The observations adduced in support of Markland's objection are ingenious, and conclusive; it is indeed surprising that Gesner should have defended such unmeaning bombast; '*Illum decepit* (says our editor) forma sententiæ *satis Ciceroniana, in qua nihil desideramus nisi bonum sensum, convenientibus rei verbis expressum,*' &c.

The same commendation is due to the note on *haberet in consilio,* &c. p. 50. § 25.

P. 67. § 34. "*Mecum leges—frugum ubertas.*" Few passages in the work have puzzled the commentators more than this. Markland charges the author of the speech with palpably contradicting what is asserted by him in the *Orat. pro Domo et Orat. ad Quir.* Gesner repels the charge, and is ably supported by WOLF; who, at the same time, undertakes to protect the critical reputation of Markland, and to account, in a creditable manner, for the erroneous opinion given by him. The fact is simply this; in this passage, it is not asserted that an abundance of corn had actually returned with Cicero to Rome, but only that it had ceased on his quitting Rome; and in *Orat. post Red. ad Quir.* p. 117. § 18. where a sudden and unexpected abundance is mentioned as a mark of the divine

approbation of his return, we are to understand a plentiful supply of the market, which took place, either by accident, or, more probably, through the contrivance of the friends of Cicero, just at the time when the question was moved for his being recalled; this abundance lasted only two days, and was succeeded by a continuance of dearth: but it was hailed by Cicero and his friends as a good omen,—an omen, the fulfilment of which he boldly (and truly, as the event proved) prognosticates in consequence of the law, proposed by him, which intrusted the supply of the market to the care and authority of Pompey the Great.—Thus, the two passages relate to different, reconcileable facts.

We now come to the ORATIO AD QUIRITES POST REDITUM, to which, we agree with Ferratius, the words HABUI CONCIONEM, p. 81. most probably refer; the contrary arguments advanced by M. WOLF amounting to no more than negative evidence, and even that being very slight.

P. 83. § 1. The beginning of this speech is certainly very much involved; and therefore, though not absolutely ἀνακόλουθον, very unlike the exordium that might be expected from Cicero, particularly on such an occasion, in an address to the people. This is well argued by M. WOLF; who, at the same time, with great clearness and sound learning, analyzes and explains it. '*Sunt quidem*,' he observes, '*apud illum* (*Ciceronem*) *longiores periodi, et, quæ Rhetores vocant,* πνεύματα *et* τάσεις; *sed longitudo in talibus conjuncta est cum proportione partium, cum perspicuitate verborum, etiam in* ἀνακολούθοις, *quæ ipsa fere perspicuitatis causa admitti solent. Hinc contra*,' &c. He thus concludes, '*Denique cedo nobis unde aliud exemplum ubi auditores bis in eadem periodo nominatim appellentur, uti hic* Quirites. *Numerosius haud dubie sic clausula cadit; sed numerosæ ineptiæ tamen sunt ineptiæ.*'

P. 88. § 3. "*Reliquæ meæ fortunæ.*" The triple commentary, nearly two pages in length, on these words, might have been spared; since the meaning of the passage is very clear, viz. some of Cicero's property, his farms, &c. remained nearly in statu quo; and *they* were restored to him, accompanied with the assurance that his other losses should be estimated and compensation made for them. Thus too, inasmuch as he knew that he might safely rely on this assurance, he might very naturally say, speaking by anticipation, that his *entire fortunes* were restored to him; which is perfectly consistent with the other passage, quoted by M. WOLF as contradictory to this, "*Qui ordinem, qui* fortunas . . . reddidistis," *Orat. Post reditum in Sen.* P. 10. § 1. This compensation, by estimate, actually took place in the October

October following; that is, within about a month from the date of his speech,

P. 91. § 5. "*Parvus consularis.*" The puerile declamation of this passage is very deservedly and very ably exposed.

P. 103. § 11. "*At pro me .... efflagitati sunt.*" The whole of this ingenious dispute respecting the propriety of the word *efflagitati* might have been superseded, by substituting in the text the word *flagitati*, which is the reading of 5 Oxon. 2 Barbb. and other authorities. The editor confesses this;—then why encumber his work with the argument?

P. 112. § 15. "*An ego .... exploratissimum,*" &c. There is no doubt that Cicero, in his letters to Atticus, frequently wrote despondingly with respect to the probability of his return to Rome: but, after he had succeeded, it was by no means unnatural for him to speak exultingly, as if he had foreseen his being recalled;—nay, it might be good policy to boast, as in this passage, that he had never seriously doubted the affection of his countrymen. The objection, therefore, on the ground of his epistolary correspondence, appears trivial.

P. 117. § 18. "*Numenque vestrum æque mihi grave et sanctum, ac Deorum immortalium, in omni vita futurum.*" In reply to Gesner's assertion that similar passages occur in other Orations of Cicero, M. Wolf with nice and just discrimination observes:

'*Similes loquendi formas in eximiis hominibus prædicandis non raro adhibentur a Latinis vel ante Cæsarum tempora,* (*Conf. eundem Marklandum in Statii Silv.* v. 2. 170.) *sed* similes, *non* ejusdem superlationis. *Nam tenuibus momentis talia variantur. Sic v. c. Cicero de populo suæ ætatis non eadem potuisset dicere, quæ dixit de majoribus, quasi in* Heroum *numerum jam pridem relatis: potuitque adeo in altera Orat. § 30. leviore culpa Senatus* deorum numero coli. *Sed de hoc genere rerum verissimum est quod alio loco Gronerus monuit: verbis non opus esse apud intelligentes. Ipse notus Declamator,* antequam iret in exilium, *c. 11. moderatius egit, utpote qui satis habuit ipsa verba ex Or. pro Murena exscribere.*'

Having said enough of this Oration, we shall now proceed to make a few short extracts from and very cursory remarks on the two remaining Orations.

P. 141. § 3. Or. pro Dom. "*Vituperasset—omittam—munivit.*" '*Scribere debuerat* vituperaret, *si modo, quod consentaneum est,* ipsa vituperandi actione *aditum ad aures habiturum se putabat.*' Granting the hypothesis *si modo*, &c. to be founded, this grammatical criticism would be just: but, why is it necessary to suppose that he meant to gain a favourable hearing

'*ipsa*

'*ipsa* vituperandi *actione*?' Why not, rather, *ex eo quod in* præterito (nuper *quidem*, *sed tamen* præterito) *vituperasset?*

P. 165. § 27. "*Qua quidem in Sententiâ*," &c. '*Delerem particulam* in, *nisi verba etiam ex alia parte laborarent. Nam imperite dictum est*, laudandus ESSEM, *si* Pompeii dignitati suffragatus VIDERER. *Atqui* VIDERI *id fecisse debes; es enim suffragatus: qui igitur locus verbis infectis?*' Here indeed the editor seems to be in a vein of hypercriticism. The force of the passage is evidently this; "I should in course be an object for commendation, if I were *observed*, *or known*, to have contributed to his dignity."

P. 167. § 28. This is one of the instances mentioned in the preface, p. xi. in which the editor discerns the want of that *civilis prudentia quædam*,—"the discretion of a man of the world." '*De reliqui loci* imprudentiâ, *quum dicitur de* certis hominibus, insidiosis amicis, &c. *difficile est sensum nostrum communicare cum lectoribus omnibus; sed pluribus locis exempla talis imprudentiæ satis facile conspiciuntur, quæ viro in republ. et illorum hominum consuetudine versato imputari nequeant.*'

P. 204. § 56. "*Scilicet is homo sum*," &c. The well-deserved ridicule on this passage is happily written. So also p. 207. §. 61. "*Quibuscum*," &c. and p. 213. § 67. "*Jam distracta*," &c. Indeed it is scarcely possible to conceive such nonsense to have proceeded from the mouth of Cicero,—and that too before an audience so grave and learned.

P. 292. § 145. "*Ut, si in illo—commissam putabo.*" This is an ingenious and learned note. M. WOLF very convincingly shews a want of coherency in the text, precisely similar to that which was above noticed by us, on an almost parallel passage, the exordium of the *Orat. ad Quir.* p. 83.

In the last of the Orations, as in each of the preceding, we find a severe stricture on the very first sentence. The expression particularly censured in this instance, p. 307. § 1. is the *P. Clodii impudicam impudentiam.* '*Impudicus*,' it is observed, '*ad corpus pertinet; impudens, ad animum; sed, quamvis hæc sæpe conjuncta esse in vita non abnueris, illud tamen absurdum ἀκυρολογίαν habere senties, si alia ad eandem normam conformes, aut Germanicè scribas*, eine schamlose Unverschämtheit. *Quin minore forsan offensione Latine dixeris* impudentem impudicitiam, *etsi hoc quoque abhorret a bono usu loquendi.*'

The meaning of *impudica impudentia* in plain English is "lewd effrontery;" the expression indeed is uncommon, and very strong for an exordium, and the παρήχησις may seem to savour of affectation; however, we do not see that it may not be very descriptive of the style and manner of the interference of

of Clodius; see Epist. ad Q. Fr. II. 13. init. quoted by M. Wolf, and compare p. 313. § 4.

P. 313. § 5. "*Nihil enim—odio mei.*" '*Quicquid fecit Clodius, non fecit odio* Ciceronis, *sed odio severitatis et dignitatis* Ciceronianæ. *Ridete, patres Conscripti, quicquid est vobis cachinnorum!*'

P. 325. § 12. "*Causa cognita, duobus locis dicta.*" '*Nihil hujusmodi apud Ciceronem legi, jam p. 143. animadverti.*' Without wishing to controvert the seeming opinion of the editor respecting these particular historical references, we deem it just to remark, in general, that whatever of historical assertion occurs in these speeches, not noticed elsewhere, yet not *contradictory* to what is elsewhere related in true history, should be considered as presumptive evidence in favour, if not of the genuineness, at least of the historical authenticity of these Orations. A mere declaiming sophist would scarcely venture to invent *facts*;—nay, at some distance of time, he would hardly dare to enter into detail of their attending *circumstances*,—unless these circumstances, as well as the facts, were confirmed by history, or supported by general belief. Such attempts have seldom failed to involve incoherences, and thus to lead to the speedy detection of imposture.

P. 340. § 24. P. 360. § 38. P. 363. § 40. P. 364. § 41. &c. The observations of the editor on these and numerous other passages are well deserving of notice: but it is not our wish, by multiplying quotations, to protract this article. Enough, we trust, has been advanced to justify us in recommending the work to the attention of our learned readers; and we would avoid, if possible, to weary their patience by unnecessary prolixity.

We cannot, however, dismiss the subject, without anticipating a question which is very likely to be started;—to what period are these compositions, if spurious, to be referred?

Markland,—who maintains that they are mere rhetorical declamations, in imitation of the *lost* originals spoken by Cicero, and partly made up of genuine, though corrupted, remnants of those originals,—pretends to ascertain their date with very minute precision. He observes that the passages quoted by Valerius Maximus from the *Orat. de Haruspicum Responsis* are to be found in the oration which has come down to us bearing that title, but with this remarkable difference; that in Val. Max. the language is correct and Ciceronian, and in this oration it is very much otherwise. Asconius cites the passages as they occur in this oration; he hence infers that Val. Max. gives the passages from the genuine oration, and that Asconius copied from the declamation, the original having previously been

been lost; and he consequently refers these spurious compositions to the interval between the publication of the Histories of Val. Max. A. U. C. 786. (or thereabouts) and that of the Commentaries of Asconius Pedianus about A.U.C. 812., or certainly not later than A.U. C. 786,—i. e. to the interval between the years 33 and 42 of the Christian Æra. He supposes Quintilian to have implicitly followed the opinion of his master Asconius.

Now it seems probable that, if these four orations be not genuine, they could not be of the time of Cicero, for the spurious offspring would not have been acknowleged. Neither could they have made their false pretensions very near the time of Cicero; for he delivered two of them, as he expressly informs us, *De Scripto*; and the originals must, therefore, in all probability, have continued long in the hands of his admirers. On this account, and because Asconius was not a man likely to be deceived in such a matter, the hypothesis of Markland seems very improbable; moreover, as Gesner observes, since Val. Max. quotes the passages, without ascribing them to Cicero, "*Unde igitur in mentem venit declamatori hac purpura se posse centonem suum exornare?*"

The hypothesis of M. Wolf is not liable to these objections, and is, indeed, on various accounts, much more intitled to credit. Without precisely fixing the date, he places it considerably later than the time of Asconius Pedianus; he supposes Valerius Maximus, Asconius, (between whose quotations and those of Val. Max. there is really no very important difference either in point of Latinity or otherwise) Quintilian, &c. all to have quoted from copies of the genuine Orations, which afterward in the lapse of time became extinct. From the remnants of those originals, and from other orations of Cicero which are still entire, he imagines some *one* of that numerous class of Rhetoricians, which succeeded the Augustan age, to have compiled and composed these four *Declamations*.

It must be confessed that an astonishing number of passages in these disputed compositions are to be found, almost *totidem verbis*, in the *Orat. pro Sextio*, *in Pisonem*, &c. and that, where they differ, the difference is almost universally in favour of the latter:—the deviations from them are, for the most part, such as render the language of the former more turgid and declamatory.

To decide the question, which is the professed object of this work, belongs not to us, but to the public, to whom the appeal is made. M. Wolf has undoubtedly done very much towards establishing his point: but we think that it is by no means improbable that his opinion may still meet with opposition;

sition; and that some second *Patronus Causæ* (see pref. p. xxv.) may stand forwards, and demand a hearing before the pleading be finally closed,—*prius quam eatur in consilium.*

ART. II. *Nouveau Dictionnaire d'Histoire Naturelle*, &c. *i. e.* A New Dictionary of Natural History, &c.

[*Article continued from the last Appendix.*]

IN the course of noticing the botanical and zoological departments of this extensive undertaking, we naturally turned to the account of *organized bodies*. Here M. *Virey* deduces several important conclusions from extensive observation, but mingles with them some repetitions and more conjectures.

The article *Tree* occupies 130 pages, and is comprehensive without being tedious. Its value chiefly consists in many excellent practical directions relative to the culture of trees in general. The physiological part of their history, however, is not wholly omitted, and may be fully collected when the publication shall be completed, from the kindred titles *Plant, Vegetable, Root, Stalk, Branch, Leaf, Seed, Fruit, Timber, and Forest*, &c.

Most of the general facts are carefully noted, and ably discussed: but some portions of the details which regard the vegetable kingdom are either passed in silence, or too slightly treated. Many of the cryptogamic species, for example, are omitted, and many of them so faintly described as to be of little benefit to the student. The Linnéan names of plants are not always inserted with that attention which is promised in the preliminary discourse; and the specific descriptions are often scanty, and sometimes inaccurate. *Nepeta Cataria* and *Crambe Maritima* are represented as belonging to the south of Europe: but they are by no means peculiar to that latitude; for both are natives of our own island, and both grow spontaneously even in its northern districts.—That *Ulex Europæus* (furze) is destined by nature to occupy the worst of soils, we cannot readily believe: its frequency is supposed to indicate ground of a good quality.—It is carelessly asserted of the *Alchemillæ*, that they inhabit only cold mountains: but the most common species is no stranger to vallies and the banks of rivers.—The *Fucus* mentioned at page 220 of Vol. i. is, doubtless, the *Saccharinus*: but the fact is first loosely reported, and then presumed to be a mistake. The real process consists in steeping the plant in fresh water, then drying it in the sun, and afterward laying it up in wooden vessels:—the consequent efflorescence is not sugar, but a sweetish salt, unknown, we believe, to the English. They, however, like the Icelanders, occasionally use

use the fucus as a pot herb. In the interior of Iceland, it sells at half the price of dried fish.—*Artemisia*, and not *Absinthium*, is the Linnéan *generic* name of wormwood.—The known species of heath, instead of 137, as here stated, amount to at least 250.—Few of the grasses are illustrated in a manner suitable to their importance.

These and other deficiencies, which we cannot stay to enumerate, excite our regret rather than our surprise; since they are such imperfections as are incident to the execution of every extensive and complicated plan. In the present instance, they are more than counterbalanced by the copious and satisfactory manner in which other parts of the work have been composed. Those articles, especially, which are more immediately connected with rural or domestic economy, are well worthy of an attentive perusal, on account of their novelty, or real importance. Thus the history of the cotton plant is detailed with minute interest, and we are taught to expect that the herbaceous sort may be habituated to the climate of Southern France. Did our limits permit, it would be an easy and pleasing task to dwell on many passages of a similar description: but we are desirous of confining our notices to a very few of the shortest.

Signor *Casagrande*, an Italian physician, discovered, some time ago, that the fruit of the dog-berry tree yielded an aromatic oil, which may be advantageously used in burning, and in the preparation of a soap superior to that of Venice or Spain. From the Doctor's experiments, combined with those of Messrs. *Chancey* and *Sarton*, it appears that this oil may be obtained in the same manner with that from olives; that it is fit for burning as soon as extracted; that it nevertheless improves by keeping; that 100 lbs. of berries give 34 lbs. of oil; and that 8 ounces of the latter, mixed with 6 ounces of soap-maker's liquor, yield 11 ounces of excellent soap. As, like olive oil, it is subject to ferment in a warm situation, the addition of a little water, to disengage and draw off the mucilaginous principle, is particularly recommended. The dog-berry tree possesses several advantages over the olive; it bears fruit in the course of two years, springs up in the worst soils, requires no culture, injures not the plants in its neighbourhood, nor dreads the vicissitudes of weather.

The following hints concerning wild Endive are particularly intitled to the consideration of the agriculturist:

'Wild Endive easily grows in any soil, but prefers that which is rich and well improved. It is raised at a small expence, being sown after a single ploughing, and covered by the harrow. It braves drought, resists storms and rains, fears neither frost nor intense

cold, vegetates very early in the season, and is an excellent spring fodder. Its growth is as rapid as it is early, admitting of three, four, or even more cuttings in the course of the year.

'If cut before the stems are too strong and high, it is more tender and savoury. It may be given to cattle either in its green or dried state. If the cutting be regulated by the daily want, the part of the field which is first cut will be again ready for the scythe, when the whole has been regularly dispatched. Its produce in bulk and weight, on the same quantity of surface, is much greater than that of clover, or even of lucerne. The cattle require no preparation for this species of food, which is as salutary as it is abundant, purifies their blood, and serves as a preventive, or even a cure, of certain distempers. When given to cows, it increases the quantity of their milk, without imparting to that fluid any of its native bitterness. Wild endive, in short, when cultivated on a large scale, supplies, during eight months of the year, an excellent green provender. It forms the first meadow in Spring, and the last in Autumn. What other plant combines all these advantages?'

'A Dutch officer,' says M. *Bose*, 'assures us that in India, he cured more than a hundred persons who were ill with *the stone*, by the use of *Spilanthus Acmella* Lin.'—This assertion might be easily confirmed or confuted by experiment, as seeds of the plant may be obtained from some of our botanic gardens.

Many excellent observations on Wheat are given under the article *Blé*. The author prefers *planting* to *sowing* this valuable grain; assigning for reasons, 1st, that, by the employment of children, no additional expence is incurred, 2dly, that a very considerable quantity of seed is saved, and 3dly, that the produce is from 80 to 130 fold.

Flour, *Sugar-cane*, and *Herbal*, are truly valuable articles, but too long for either quotation or comment.

With regard to the animal department, we remark various degrees of merit in the several contributions. *Sonnini*, *Olivier*, and *Latreille*, seldom disappoint the high expectations with which we associate their names. The curious tribes of Zoophytes might have been more minutely delineated: but we have been much gratified with the articles *Ass*, *Eagle*, *Lark*, *Insect*, *Caterpillar*, *Bee*, and many others, too tedious to mention.

The succeeding extract will probably be acceptable to some of our entomological readers:

'Ceroplat, *Ceroplatus*, genus of insects of the *dipterous* order, instituted by *Bose*, in the Transactions of the Society of Natural History at Paris, 1 Fasc. p. 42. tab. 7. fig. 3.

'The ceroplats belong to my family of Tipulæ, and may be distinguished by the following characters; *antennæ* somewhat broad in the middle, with 14 articulations, the extremity reaching at least half

half the length of the *thorax;* trunk very short; feelers of a single joint.

'These *dipterous* insects have the usual habits of the *tipulæ*. Their *abdomen* is spindle-shaped. They are very rare, and are found in the woods. Their larvæ inhabit *boleti*.

'For some time, only one species was known: but the same individual who found and described it has observed a second in Carolina. The first, or *Ceroplatus tipuloïdes*, occurs in the environs of Paris. Its head is small, rounded, yellowish, with two little, yellow, horn-like projections under the *antennæ*; the latter are thick and blackish; the *thorax* is protuberant, yellowish, and striped with black; the *abdomen* is compressed and yellow, with the edges of the rings black; the wings are white, with a dot near the middle of the nerve, and a blackish spot.

'As the *Ceroplatus tipuloïdes* has been figured in the Transactions of the Parisian Society of Natural History, we here exhibit the second species of the genus, discovered in America by *Bosc*, and named by him the COALY, *carbonarius*;—and that this article may be more interesting and complete, we shall give, in the text, the recent observations of this able naturalist. All our learned men know the extreme complaisance with which he communicates the result of his inquiries; and I unite the sentiments of my gratitude to theirs.

"In the *Transactions of the Society of Natural History*, I have fixed, under the designation, *Keroplatus*, a new genus of insects, nearly allied to the *tipulæ*, but which is, nevertheless, completely distinguished from them by the length, breadth, and especially by the flatness of the *antennæ*. At that time I considered the only species which formed it, as quite unknown to naturalists: but my memory had proved inaccurate; for *Réaumur* had engraved one of its antennæ, tom. 4. pl. 9. fig. 10., observing only that it belonged to a *tipula*, which lives on the agaric of the oak.

"The disappearance of these agarics, or rather boleti, from the neighbourhood of Paris, since the felling of the lofty trees, and the multiplication of botanists and entomologists, have greatly limited the opportunities of finding the larvæ of the *keroplatus*, which I have described and figured. Hence it has not been observed since the days of *Réaumur*; and the specimen of the perfect insect, which I possess, is the only one extant in the present numerous collections in the capital. It was brought from Villers-Coterets, an antient forest, still little frequented by naturalists, but which well deserves to become an object in their excursions.

"COALY CEROPLAT, *Ceroplatus carbonarius*. Head of a black brown, having too small spots behind the *antennæ*, and the feelers whitish; forehead armed with two tubercles; antennæ of a dark brown; the last four articulations white; thorax of a beautiful black, a little hairy, whitish under the wings; poisers of a beautiful black; *abdomen* of the same colour, with the edges of the rings ash-coloured, especially on the sides; wings transparent, spotted with brown on the edges, and having a larger and deeper spot towards the outer extremity; legs brown, with a whitish base.

"The *larva* of this insect is vermiform, white, glutinous, with the head black, rings distinctly defined, and legs hammiform. It lives on the under substance of a *boletus*, which is nearly related to the *unicolor* of *Bulliard*. This *larva*, which occurs in families sometimes sufficiently numerous, is found in the month of June; and when it has attained its full growth, toward the end of August, it measures about two and a half inches in length, and three lines in diameter. During their growth, especially towards the close of it, these creatures spin a common net, which hangs rather loose, is of a brilliant white, and affords them, when molested, a retreat among its threads, similar to that of the caterpillar of the spindle-tree moth. Such is the delicate texture of this filmy workmanship, that it is almost impossible to seize it with the fingers, without crushing it. If exposed for a few minutes to the sun, or put for some time into a dry situation, it is destroyed. The *larvæ* accordingly, inhabit only those boleti which grow on trees, in moist and shady situations.

"At the period of their transformation, they spin a ball of a closer texture than the net, though loose enough to render the nymph visible. The perfect insect proceeds from this ball at the end of fifteen days. I fed many of these *larvæ* at home, but few have arrived at a state of maturity, owing, perhaps, to a want of sufficient moisture."

The history of the *Swallow* occupies nearly thirty pages. Among other curious particulars which compose it, we remark the subsequent:

'On the 5th of September, at eleven o'clock in the morning,' says *Montbeillard*, 'I confined in a cage a whole nestful of the common house Martin, consisting of the male and female parent, and three young, capable of flying. Having returned, in the course of four or five hours, to the room in which the cage was placed, I perceived that the old male bird was missing; and I did not discover it till after half an hour's search. It had fallen into a large water-pot, and was drowned. I remarked all the symptoms of apparent death, closed eyes, hanging wings, and a general stiffness of the body: but it occurred to me that I might revive it, as I had formerly restored drowned flies. I, therefore, put it under warm ashes at half past four o'clock, leaving only the opening of the bill and the nostrils uncovered. In this state, it was laid on its breast, and soon manifested the heavings of respiration, by breaking through the ashes which covered its back. I covered the openings with fresh ashes. At seven o'clock its breathing was more distinctly marked; and the bird, though still stretched on its belly, opened its eyes at intervals. At nine o'clock, I found it standing by its little heap of ashes. Next morning, it was full of life. Having placed it at an open window, he continued, for some moments, to look to the right and left, and then flew off with a little twitter of joy.'

M. *Esse* seems inclined to discredit the existence of the *Furia infernalis*: but we cannot, on slight surmises, resist the joint testimony of Linné, Solander, and Pallas.

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The article *Man*, though diffuse, is instructive and entertaining: but the author might have spared some physical indelicacies; and the rather, because they are repeated nearly in the same terms, in different parts of the work. Other repetitions and various omissions might be mentioned: but the publication, on the whole, promises to be of singular benefit to all who may have occasion to consult it. An English translation, with additions and corrections, would form a valuable present to the British public.

We have lately received the remaining volumes of this Dictionary, viz. Vols. xvi—xxiv. inclusive, which complete the design, and of which we shall take due notice at a future opportunity.

Art. III. *Traité de la Phthisie Pulmonaire*, &c.; *i. e.* A Treatise on Phthisis Pulmonalis. By Brieude, Member of the Medical Society of Paris, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s.

Numerous as are the works which have been written on the subject of pulmonary consumption, it is much to be lamented that very little has yet been done towards the cure of this insidious malady. A disease which so often selects for its victims the most amiable and most promising part of the community, which is frequently connected with hereditary disposition, and which so many circumstances of climate, fashion, or education, tend to excite or to promote, had a more than usual claim to the attention of the physician; and if his exertions are ineffectual in the cure of this complaint, when established, there is the more reason for exercising his utmost endeavours in preventing or retarding it.

It is to the incipient stage of this malady, that the author of the present volumes more particularly devotes his attention: but, though he allows that, in advanced periods, medicine is generally ineffectual, yet he is of opinion that the treatment in such stages admits of much improvement; and that many practitioners have too hastily adopted the principle that, when the expectoration has become purulent, a cure is not to be expected. We are sorry that we cannot give the author the credit of having brought forwards any new views in either the treatment or the prevention of pulmonary consumption. His production, nevertheless, contains a very copious, and in general an useful, account of the different varieties of this disease, and exhibits a favourable view of the success which may attend our efforts to cure it at the more early periods. M. Brieude apologizes, on the ground of necessity, for the frequent repetition of

facts and reasonings: but we cannot admit that such repetitions were requisite for the purposes of illustration; nor do we see the necessity for that minuteness of division, which is so frequently observable, and so evidently tends to spin out the work, and distract the attention of the reader. He has certainly afforded considerable assistance, in consulting this treatise, by the copiousness of his index; and such assistance, it must be confessed, is greatly wanted. His views on the nature and treatment of this disease would, however, have been much more lucid, if they had been more condensed; and they would have possessed greater utility, if the attention had been directed decidedly to the practice generally found to be most serviceable.

The first pages are occupied with an account of the Anatomy and Physiology of the Lungs; and here the author, contrary to analogy, and without any facts to support his idea, states his conviction, according to the opinion of *Camper*, (which he quotes) that the red veins perform, in this viscus, an office similar to that of the lymphatics.

In his account of the phænomena of respiration, he informs us that oxygen gas is absorbed, and azotic gas thrown out from the blood by this process.—'The azotic gas,' says he, 'which is found in the blood, would become a mortal poison, if it did not escape in some way: but it is by exhalation from the lungs that it is driven off; it is by this mode that nature purifies the humours, and frees them from a septic principle, which would soon corrupt them.' The decomposition of the atmospheric air in the lungs leaves the azotic gas to be returned by expiration; and this portion, he supposes, is carried off with that which escapes from the mass of blood, and is deposited in the cells of the lungs.

As far as we can judge from the short view which M. Brieude gives of the subject, he discovers a very slender acquaintance with the established doctrines of respiration. Without going farther in this point, we may observe that he seems to be uninformed of the production of carbonic acid gas in the lungs; and he represents it as a well established fact, that a quantity of azote is continually extricated. An experiment mentioned by Mr. Davy in his Chemical Researches (with which the author appears to be unacquainted) seems to render it probable that a portion of azote disappears in respiration, and another portion is extricated during this process. Still, however, on the whole, there is rather less azote expired than has been inspired; and not more, as might be concluded from the statement of the present author.

The chapters immediately subsequent contain observations on the influence of the Nervous, Lymphatic, and Glandular Systems,

Systems, and on that of the Skin on the Lungs. Some remarks follow, on the subject of Assimilation, on the formation of Blood, and on Nutrition; after which the author proceeds to the consideration of the predisposing and proximate causes of Phthisis Pulmonalis: topics which he treats more at length in a subsequent part. He is convinced that the disease is of a contagious nature, though it exerts less of this influence in a cold or mild than in a warm climate; where he states that the power of being propagated by contagion is fully established. His practice has been principally in temperate climates; and in them, he informs us, he has sometimes observed cough, defluxion, and pimples on the face, produced by breathing the pulmonary exhalations of the Phthisical; though the persons so affected did not become consumptive.—As he has remarked suppuration and ulceration in every dissection which he has seen of a consumptive case terminating fatally, and as these presuppose the existence of inflammation, he concludes that more or less of the latter is a necessary attendant on pulmonary consumption.

M. Brieude treats at large on the nature of tubercles and *vomicæ*, and on the causes on inflammation and the formation of pus.—With Cullen, he regards inflammation as arising from a spasm of the extreme vessels; and pus, he conceives, is produced 'by that portion of the gluten which the serum holds in solution, and which is separated during the stagnation of the latter in the cellular membrane, at the termination of inflammatory obstructions.'—He believes, also, that by its acrimony, 'this stagnating and fermenting serum corrodes the cellular texture, with the capillary extremities of the lymphatic vessels, and some of the red vessels; and that pus is formed by the mixture of those products with the extravasated liquor.'—It is hardly necessary to say that the doctrine here supported by the author, on the formation of pus, is not consistent with the later experiments and observations of Pathologists on this subject. Stagnation, and the changes consequent on it, are insufficient for the production of pus; which possesses the nature of a secretion, and is the result of a peculiar though unknown action of vessels. The acrimonious effects, erroneously attributed to laudable pus, are not supposed to be confined to the part in which it is formed.—When absorbed, it is even represented as possessing the power of 'melting away the fat;' which he asserts it 'dissolves to the last drop, as soon as it is absorbed, and carried into the mass of humours, and thence thrown into the adipose membrane.'

It is properly stated that the symptoms, by which Phthisis Pulmonalis is to be accurately distinguished, are frequently

obscure. While, therefore, he enumerates those which are generally attendant on this complaint, he says that it is only by an attentive consideration of the whole, that a correct judgment of its existence can be formed. If there are any which more distinctly mark it than others, they seem to him to be the obstinate cough and emaciation. He divides Phthisis Pulmonalis into the *acute* and *chronic* with regard to the duration of the disease; and the *tracheal* and *pulmonary* in relation to its particular seat. These again he considers as either essential or symptomatic.—He employs much attention in the description of his principal divisions, the *acute* and *chronic*; and to them he principally refers his observations on the cure of consumption. The indications laid down by Morton are given and illustrated at considerable length; and a particular chapter is devoted to the consideration of the various remedies, or classes of remedies, which have been, or still are, considered as useful in consumption.—The prevention of this disease is that object in which the practitioner is most frequently successful; and one to which he is therefore most particularly encouraged to attend. On the proper management of those who are in any way disposed to it, many pertinent observations are offered: but none which are not generally known, though they may not be sufficiently regarded. The effects of warm clothing, and particularly of flannel worn next to the skin, do not seem to have received the author's consideration.

On the antiphlogistic regimen, and moderate bleeding, in the early stages of the complaint, M. Brieude places much dependence: but he cautions us against the use of the latter remedy in more advanced periods. He disapproves of milk as an article of food, on account of its tendency to turn sour, and supposing it to be unfavourable to the slow fever which consumes the patient. Whey, however, he regards as well adapted for nourishment. To the use of bitters in consumption he is favourable: but he places more reliance on the plants which he terms antiscorbutic; such as mustard, horse radish, and cresses. The *Lichen Islandicus* he does not mention. He seems to be ignorant of the employment of *Digitalis*, but speaks with confidence of the effects of mercury, particularly the muriate of mercury, in resolving tubercles of the lungs. He asserts that this medicine, given in the form of a syrup, mixed with a considerable quantity of mucilaginous drink, is very efficacious in removing obstructions in the lungs, and in stimulating the secretory vessels; and with this view it is useful at every period of consumption, except the colliquative.—Whether the disease arise from an old cause or not, this remedy, he says, is always salutary; and he asserts that it is

owing only to timidity or prejudice that it is not more frequently employed.

The author seems to have but slightly attended to the means of moderating the cough, a subject of very great importance in every stage of consumption.—On the use of opiates, he says little; and, though he thinks that blisters are frequently serviceable, he nevertheless recommends what appears to us a greater than necessary caution in their employment after the incipient stages of the complaint.

The whole of the second volume of this publication is occupied with the report of cases of incipient or confirmed consumption, which have come under M. BRIEUDE's observation at Paris and elsewhere.—The moderate and early use of bleedings, the antiphlogistic regimen, light and moderate diet, and the use of the antiscorbutic vegetables above mentioned, together with the occasional employment of blisters, were the means principally adopted in their treatment. The author mentions the use of chalybeates in some periods of consumption, but does not appear to have seen much of the exhibition of this class of remedies.

ART. IV. *Leçons du Cit. Boyer sur les Maladies des os, &c.; i. e.* The Lectures of Cit. BOYER on Diseases of the Bones, reduced to a complete Treatise on these Complaints, by ANTH. RICHERAUD, Joint Surgeon in Chief to the Hospital of St. Louis, Professor of Anatomy, Physiology, and Surgery, Member of the Society of the *School of Medicine.* 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 12s.

THE treatise before us formed a part of an annual course of lectures on Surgical Pathology, delivered by M. BOYER; and its immediate publication was owing to the wish to anticipate or prevent the appearance of an imperfect and mutilated copy of that division of his lectures which treats of the Bones, and which was intended by some of his pupils to be laid before the profession at large. M. RICHERAUD, therefore, at M. BOYER's desire, undertook the task of preparing these lectures for the press: but, though they may be regarded as actually the production of the latter, yet they owe to the editor (as we are informed,) several important additions, which his own ample experience gave him an opportunity of making.

The greater part of the information contained in these volumes has been necessarily furnished by preceding writers on Surgery; yet it is but justice to the authors to observe that their work is written with care and judgment, that it seems to discover an extensive practical knowlege of the subject, and

that

that it is calculated to give a very good and comprehensive view of the pathology of the bones. It is divided into two parts; the first comprizing an account of the diseases which affect the substance and continuity of bones; the second, such as attack their articulations or connections.

The first division comprehends fractures, wounds of the bones, exostosis, necrosis, caries, softness, and friability, of the bones, and the disease known by the name of spinaventosa or osteosarcoma.—The second includes sprains, luxations, dropsy of the joints, moveable substances formed in them, white or lymphatic swellings, and anchylosis.

Previously to the examination of fractures in particular parts of the body, which occupies a great share of the first volume, some observations are made on fractures in general; in which are considered their differences, causes, symptoms, prognosis, and treatment, with the nature and formation of callus. The bent position of a fractured limb, as recommended by Pott, is regarded as less favourable to comfort and recovery than the strait; for it is soon equally fatiguing, is more easily displaced by accidental movements, and does not admit of comparing the injured with the healthy limb.

The chapter on Necrosis, it appears to us, would have been materially improved by an acquaintance with Mr. Russell's treatise on this subject.—The new bone, which so singularly invelopes the old one, is represented as 'formed of hardened periosteum, which, being detached from the diseased bone, becomes obstructed, swells, retians the phosphate of lime which the vessels ramifying through its substance bear with them; hardens, grows solid by means of this saline inorganic matter; and forms round the bone, which is deprived of life, an osseous cylinder larger than itself.' The simplest and the most rational account of the mode in which this phænomenon is effected, seems to be, that an effusion is thrown out, similar to that which takes place between the ends of a fractured bone, and that this becomes vascular and is in time ossified.

In distortions of the spine, occurring in infants, and producing a paralytic affection of the lower extremities, the author mentions having seen advantage from the application of caustic or moxa: but he does not seem to be acquainted with the benefit derived from long continued drains from the neighbourhood of the protuberance, whether in infants or adults who are so affected.

The account of white-swelling in the joint, which occurs at the latter end of the second volume, is short and distinct. The plan recommended for curing it is, in many respects, similar to that which is practised in this country: but much less dependence

pendence is placed on the repeated application of blisters, than is found with us to be justified by experience.—We should have been glad to have been furnished with a more particular account of the personal experience of the author and editor, on many topics noticed in these volumes: for it is of less consequence in a work of this kind, to give a detail of what others have done in curing a disease, than to point out to the student, or practitioner, the particular plan of treatment which an extensive and correct experience has demonstrated to be service ble.

ART. V. *Le Musée Français*, &c.; *i. e.* The French Museum, published by ROBILLARD PERONVILLE and LAURENT. From No. 4. to No. 14. inclusive. Imperial Folio. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Bosse. Price 2l. 12s. 6d. each Number: or, Proof Impressions, 5l.

IN the Appendix to Vol. 41. of our New Series, we announced the commencement of this truly splendid and amusing publication; and we take this opportunity of reporting its continuance to the lovers of the arts. The numbers now before us are in every respect equal to those which we have already noticed; and if the work continues to be executed with the spirit and ability hitherto evinced, it will form one of the most beautiful collections of engravings which this or any age has produced. Before it is finished, it will certainly be expensive to the subscribers and purchasers: but men of taste, who can spare the money, will be satisfied that they have *quid pro quo*. It is indeed a gratification to us to examine these *Livraisons*, as they proceed; and it is only alloyed by the mortifying thought that we cannot transfuse the pleasure which we experience, to our readers. We feel as if we tantalized them by our inadequate account of such productions; and yet we consider it to be our duty to inform them of what may be seen in this series of engravings. We shall do all that lies in our power, and then we must leave it to the majority of readers "to dream the rest."

These numbers include (No. 4.) *The Concert*, by *Dominichini.—St. Matthew*, by *Rembrandt.—Portrait*, by Ditto.—The *Cascade*, by *Vernet*.—(Statue) *Nero*. (No. 5.) *St. Paul healing the Sick*, by *Le Sueur.—The Musical Lesson*, by *Terburgh.—The Pasture*, by *Du Jardin.*—(Statue) *Meleager*. (No. 6.) *The Benediction of Jacob*, by *Coningsloo.—St. Peter's Denial*, by *Teniers.—Crossing the Ferry*, by *Berchem*. (Statue) *The Discobolus*, (or *quoit-thrower*) in repose. (No. 7.) *The Reconciliation of Jacob and Laban*, from a picture by *Peter of Cortona—Tobit*

and

and Azaries, by *Salvator Rosa.*—*Portrait*, by *David Teniers.*—*The Grove*, by *Karel du Jardin.* (Statue) *Terpsichore.* (No. 8.) *Holy Family*, by *N. Poussin.*—*The four Evangelists*, by *Jordaens.*—*Portrait*, by *Rembrandt.*—*The Manage*, by *Wouvermans.* (Statue) *the Discobolus in Action.* (No. 9.) *Mars and Venus*, by *Lanfranc.*—*Repose of the Holy Family*, by *Pesarese.*—*The Taking of Courtray*, by *Vander Meulen.*—*The Ponte Rotto at Rome*, by *Vernet.* (Statue) *Caliope.* (No. 10.) *Muse, No.* 1. by *Le Sueur.*—*The Schoolmaster*, by *Ostade.*—*The Bacchanals*, by *N. Poussin.*—*View on the Tiber*, by *Asselyn.* (Statue) *Faunus in repose.* (No. 11.) *The Magdalen*, by *Guido Rheni.*—*The Infant Hercules*, by *Aug. Caracchi.*—*The Philosopher in contemplation*, by *Rembrandt.*—*Winter*, by *Michau.* (Statue) *Juno.*—(No. 12.) *Muse* (*No.* 2.) by *Le Sueur.*—*The Virgin and Jesus*, by *Murillo.*—*Portrait* (*No.* 3.) by *Rembrandt.*—*The Ford*, by *Berchem.* (Statue) *Thalia.* (No. 13.) *Rape of the Sabines*, by *N. Poussin.*—*A Flemish Kermesse*, or *Fete*, by *Rubens.*—*Sun-set*, by *Vernet.* (Statue) *Melpomene.* (No. 14.) *Augustus visiting Alexander's Tomb*, *Bourdon.* *The painting-room of Craesbeke*, by *Joseph Van Craesbecke.*—Portrait, (No. 4.) by *Rembrandt.*—*The Country Public-house*, by *Le Prince.* (Statue) *Apollo Musagetes.*

To each of these copper-plates is subjoined an historical and critical notice of the painting, or statue, from which it is copied. From this department of the undertaking, we can give specimens; and since the remarks of the French amateurs may not be unacceptable, we shall venture to translate, as in the preceding article, the account of one picture and one statue. We shall first extract the critique on the Picture by Peter of Cortona, representing *the Reconciliation of Jacob and Laban:*

'On the first inspection of this picture, it is not easy to recognize the subject which Peter of Cortona wishes to exhibit. Let us examine this composition with impartiality, that we may judge fairly of its merit. The painter has placed on the fore ground, to the left, a large figure in an attitude so distorted and unnatural, that we cannot perceive how it could preserve its position. It represents a man in the flower of his age, without a beard, and crowned with ivy; and it appears to be a naked sacrificer, partly concealed by some drapery which the painter has studied to throw over him in a picturesque manner. His action is still more equivocal than his posture; he seems to be scraping sticks together to make a faggot, while his look is vacant, and turned to the contrary side. To the right is a beautiful woman standing, dressed *à l'antique*, supporting with her left arm an infant at her bosom, and with the other leading a child, quite naked, offering her an apple. At her side, we see another child also naked, leaning on an urn, and holding a cup. Behind this groupe a woman sits on the circular wall of a well, looking at two men standing on the middle ground. One of these personages is an old man with white hair and beard, the other of mature years. They take hold of each other's

other's left hand, which rest together on a slaughtered ram, as a victim, lying on a mass of stone which serves for an altar. They have the air of persons contracting a solemn promise, of which their gesture and looks announce the inviolability. Farther behind we see camels and their conductors; and in the back-ground is an open tent, where we distinguish many figures placed before a thicket which terminates the landscape *.

'This exact description is far from explaining the historical fact chosen by the artist. His design was to represent Jacob and Laban on the mountains of Gilead. The first had fled from his father-in-law's house, taking with him his flocks, his wives, Rachael and Lea, his servants, and all his children; of whom Joseph, the youngest, was then at the breast. He had carried away many effects, and among other things the *Teraphim* (sacred images, *penates*, or talismans) which Rachael had stolen from her father. Overtaken by Laban, after seven days' march, mutual reproaches were interchanged on their past conduct: but these were succeeded by a reconciliation, and they swore eternal amity between themselves and their descendants.

'It must be owned that it is not easy to find, in the action of all these persons, the scene which the painter wished and ought to have expressed. The principal person is absolutely unnecessary to the subject, and is only placed there as an academy figure, with much study and display. What means the crown of ivy, the attribute of Bacchus and his attendants? The women, whose attitudes and countenances are sufficiently pleasing, take no part in the action. The two naked children have the air of two little cupids. Jacob and Laban, who ought to have been the principal actors, here appear only as secondaries, though they should have occupied the fore-ground, and have attracted the chief attention.

'It must, however, be allowed that, if this picture be not well-disposed, with relation to the scene which it ought to represent, it is well managed with regard to picturesque effect. The groupes are arranged with art, and correctly designed; they contrast with elegance in their forms; and the figures are happily distributed. They have all an agreeable expression, and the eye is satisfied with the order and *l'ensemble* of the whole composition. Its chief merit, however, consists in the freedom and force of the painter, in the happy mixture of his colours, in his knowlege of the *chiaro 'scuro*, in the harmonious distribution of light, and in the great accuracy of the keeping. Hence, notwithstanding the defects in the invention, this picture may be regarded as one of the best productions of Cortona, who holds a distinguished rank among the esteemed painters of the Italian school. It was executed for a prince of the House of Colonna: but it happened that *le bailli de Breteuil*, ambassador from France to Rome, purchased it. Being sent to Paris, it has there been sold several times. At last it was bought for the royal collection, at the sale of *M. de Vaudreuil*, and by a great singularity it fetched 36,000

'* To complete the absurdity and the anachronism, the painter has represented a steeple or belfry arising over the trees. A belfry in the mountains of Mesopotamia in the time of Jacob!'

livres,

livres, the price at which it had been sold on three former occasions. It is 5 feet 11 inches 4 lines high, and 5 feet 5 inches broad.'

By this extract, it will be seen that the French critics are not blind to the defects of the pictures which are exhibited in their grand Museum. The spirit of the remark here made will apply to many of the pictures of the most celebrated masters; who, after having taken a particular subject for representation on the canvas, are much more attentive to picturesque effect, than to a natural and correct arrangement of the figures which compose the action. Anachronisms are also, for the same reason, very common in the great painters of the Italian school. One of the most celebrated pictures of *N. Poussin*, representing Rebecca at the well, has the whole background decorated with Grecian architecture; which is as absurd for the mountains of Mesopotamia as the steeple of a modern church. The remark on the large figure in the foreground, as being too prominent and out of place, is just: but the painter should be relieved from the remainder of the stricture. As a servant or attendant on the principals who were ratifying a covenant over a slain victim, he was necessary, though there seems no reason for his being crowned with ivy; and he is in readiness, with the wood and fire, to consume the sacrifice, over which Jacob and Laban had taken the oath. The women could bear no other part in the transaction than as attendants and spectators. The effect of the composition, as a whole, is very pleasing in the copper-plate; and the merit of the master must be much more conspicuous in the original.

One of the best of the statues copied in the Numbers before us is that of Juno, taken from the Capitol. After a long mythological history of this goddess, which we shall make no apology for omitting, the account thus proceeds:

'The principal traits of character in the head of Juno were, according to Homer, very large eyes, which some translators have rendered *ox-eyed*: but we conceive that Pope has given a preferable version of the expressions of the Greek poet, in this couplet,

"Full on the sire, the goddess of the skies
Roll'd the large orbs of her majestic eyes:"

For the Greeks, if we may believe the authors of the *Museum Capitolinum*, were as partial to large eyes, as the Italians of the present day are to black, and the French to blue.

'Juno is represented clothed as a majestic matron, with a pike in her hand, or a sceptre surmounted with a cuckoo. She has a radiated crown on her head, and often a diadem.

'Juno Nuptialis, or Gamelia, wears a crown of rushes, and of those flowers which are called Everlasting, covering a small light basket

placed on the top of her head. Her favourite bird was the Peacock, which is assigned to no other goddess. The hawk and goose were also consecrated to her, and accompany some of her statues. The Egyptians have dedicated to her the vulture. They never sacrificed cows to her; because, in the war of the Giants against the Gods, Juno was concealed in Egypt under the form of that animal. The fraxinella, the poppy, and the pomegranate, were the plants which the Greeks offered to her, and with which they adorned her altars and images. The victim most commonly immolated to her was a female lamb; besides which they made a monthly sacrifice to her of a sow.

'Of all the pagan divinities, not one obtained more general worship than Juno. The history of the prodigies which she had effected, and of the vengeance which she had executed on those with whom she was angry, had inspired so much fear and respect, that every thing was done to appease her when she was thought to be offended

'Her worship was not only established in Europe, but also in Asia, in Syria, in Egypt, and in Africa. Among the most celebrated cities, three paid particular honours to this goddess, viz. Argos, Samos, and Carthage. Before the building of Rome, Juno had a temple at Falerii in Tuscany. The first kings of Rome omitted nothing to gain the favour of this goddess. Thus Virgil ingeniously introduces Jupiter, announcing to his wife that the descendants of Æneas would serve her with more devotion than all the other people of the globe, provided that she desisted from her persecutions; to which the ambitious goddess readily consented.

'The temple of Juno constructed at Lanuvium, on the Appian Way, was famous in all respects. It was even expected of the consuls of Rome, when they entered on their office, to pay a visit of homage to the Lanuvian Juno. Cicero acquaints us with this custom, by these words of Cotta to Velleius: "Your tutelary Juno of Lanuvium does not appear to you even in your dreams, but with her goat's skin, her javelin, her buckler, and her shoes bent at the points before."

'The temple of Juno Lacinia, six miles from Crotona, is still more celebrated in history. It is half as large again as the greatest temple at Rome. Fulvius Flaccus took away its tiles of marble in the year of Rome 579. The senate restored them; but the tragical death of this censor was considered as the vengeance of the irritated Juno.

'The statue of Juno, now in the French museum, is one of three which were to be seen at the capitol, and is that perhaps of which we may fairly doubt the right denomination. The drapery is full and picturesque, and the attitude is noble: but the head, though antique, is not that which originally belonged to the statue; and the arms having been also restored, it may be conjectured, with some reason, that the body is that of a Melpomene, whom the antients represented as thus habited; and of whom many authentic figures, and the costume also of this muse, in the painting of the Herculanean Museum, resemble the present statue. This opinion is moreover strengthened

by

by the thickness of the sole of the sandals, which reminds us of the tragic buskin. Previously to this statue, which is of Parian marble, being placed in the museum of the capitol, it stood in the garden belonging to the Cesian palace, near to the Vatican, where it passed for an Amazon.

'Her head is bound with a fillet, and her hair is tastefully disposed. The modern artist, who has restored it, has placed in her right hand, part of the handle of a pike, and in her left some leaves of laurel; intending, no doubt, to make her *Roma triumphans*. The catalogue of the Napoleon Museum has designated her by the name of the Capitoline Juno.—The height of the statue from the bottom of the plinth is seven feet.'

With amusement, it is the object of the editors of this work to blend instruction; and on this principle, while they exhibit the remains of antiquity, they give a kind of lecture on the mythology and history of the antients, as far as they respect the subject before them. For all this they are to be applauded; but, in the execution of this department of the work, they should endeavour to be correct. The lines which they have quoted from our great poet, Mr. Pope, are elegant; though the compliment which they pay to him betrays an ignorance of the Greek original, from which he deviated; for in Homer βοωπις *(bovinos oculos habens)* is one of the epithets of Juno.

For the passage from Cicero, we are referred to his book *de Natura Deorum*, but we could not find it in that production.

The critique on the statue, like that on the picture abovementioned, evinces a desire of ascertaining the truth. According to the account here given, it is a composition formed from two antient statues with modern additions. The weight of evidence is against the supposition of its being a Juno: but the figure, thus made up, whether it be that of a goddess or a muse, was sufficiently beautiful to occasion its removal from Rome to Paris, and for a plate of it to be given in this splendid publication. In order, however, to justify so long an account of Juno to be appended to it, the editor should have been satisfied of its being Jupiter's wife; and not a Melpomene; to which latter, for good reasons, his belief inclines.

We beg the artists and conductors of this work to accept of our thanks for the entertainment which they have afforded us; and we assure our readers that, as it proceeds, we shall embrace every opportunity of interesting them in its contents, as much as the nature of our undertaking will enable us.

[*To be continued.*]

ART.

ART. VI. *Essai D'Idéologie*, &c. *i. e.* An Essay on Ideology, intended as an Introduction to general Grammar. By L. J. J. DAUBE, Professor in the Central School of the Upper Pyrenées. 8vo. pp. 410. Paris. 1803. Imported by De Boffe.

PRECISION in the use of terms is as necessary to correctness of thinking as to accuracy of expression. When words are adopted to depict our thoughts or ideas, it is of importance to consider how far they afford exact representations, and how far they fail of performing the office which they profess to execute. The vulgar frequently employ words without seeking in their minds for the corresponding ideas; and when this habit is become familiar, they are liable to unite expressions, which in their very nature are incapable of combination: but the few who think, and whose object is intellectual improvement, reject incongruous verbal combinations, because it is impossible that any precise idea can be registered by them. "Words," as Hobbes remarks, "are wise men's counters, they only reckon by them;" and applying them to this use, they will be solicitous to make them accurate signs of the things which they are intended to signify. Hence proceeds the connection between the science of mind and language in general, which is constructed according to certain grammatical rules, so as to denote and record our desires, thoughts, and opinions. Though languages differ extremely from each other, this general principle pervades them all; which is, in fact the basis of universal grammar.

In point of importance, Ideology, or the science of analyzing thoughts, should precede the study of the art in general by which they are expressed; though the common practice is to teach the use of words, and to leave it to chance to superinduce the habit of thinking with correctness. M. DAUBE is of opinion that the reason, which arrests the progress of so many persons in the prosecution of their studies, is that they have omitted to consider the origin and connection of ideas. He perceives the difficulties which attend the study of Ideology as connected with general grammar: but he does not regard them as insuperable; though it appears a desperate attempt to rectify the false ideas which have arisen from language by language.

'We are to reflect that Ideology being established on facts within our reach, and on experiments which we can make within our own minds, it is only necessary to observe with accuracy and with method; and language will then follow with ease the course of these intellectual observations, according to which it will be created or reformed. To every established fact will be given a particular name, which will no longer present a false or doubtful sense. Moreover, those who are em-

employed in the study of the sciences know at least one language, though perhaps not perfectly; this language, which is no doubt faulty, they have learned without regarding its principles, but it suffices to make themselves understood; and as experience serves to rectify ideas, and to fix expressions, our progress ceases to be uncertain; since, by rejecting false ideas and vague expressions, we arrive at just ideas and exact language. It is thus as in mathematics, we sometimes employ false suppositions, in order, by certain calculations, to deduce incontestable results.'

As the professed object of M. DAUBE is to assist those who are entering on metaphysical studies, to distinguish between principles well established and those which appear to him false or at least doubtful, we shall endeavour to exhibit the prominent features or outlines of his essay. It is divided into two parts, the first treating of *the Faculties of the Understanding*; and the second, those of *the Will*. Each of these parts includes several chapters, with their subdivisions.

The author commences with a definition of feeling, *(sentiment,)* which he states to be a modification of the mind, occasioned by a movement in one of the organs of sense, or *in some other part of the body;* and he then endeavours to explain the difference between feeling and sensation. This paves the way for an attack on Locke's definition: but he does not succeed in this metaphysical warfare. We may ask what part of the body is out of the region of the senses? or what real difference can there be between feeling and sensation? He tells us that the feelings which we have of our own existence, and which he regards as inseparable from that existence, and independent of the body, forms a distinct class, while all the other feelings are the consequence of a movement or particular disposition of some parts of our body. We apprehend, however, that, if all the other feelings or senses were taken away, M. DAUBE would be at a loss to find that feeling of existence which, according to him, forms a distinct class. He objects to Descartes's reasoning, *cogito, ergo sum*, and would substitute, "I *feel*, therefore I am:" but it appears to us that, in deducing the inference, it would be more correct to regard this feeling as the sum of our consciousnesses or sensations, than as a distinct sentiment. We cannot think that he is more happy in his attempt to discriminate between sensation and feeling, applying the former to the senses, and the latter to the impressions occasioned by the qualities of bodies; thus he would say, the *sensation* of seeing, hearing, and smelling, &c., and the *feeling* of cold, heat, hunger, and thirst, &c. After this notable distinction, we are informed that Locke regards cold and heat as tangible qualities, *i. e.* as sensations which we derive

derive from the touch: but, says this author, 'I cannot be of his opinion; since we often experience a feeling of cold and heat without the intervention of the touch; as in an ague fit we at first experience cold and afterward heat without the medium of this sense.' What will the physiologist say to this metaphysical lecturer? Are not the internal parts of the body possessed of extreme sensibility; and is not the ague-fit occasioned by the peccant particles which cause the disease, being in actual contact with those parts? The cold fit and the hot fit are produced by the sensibility of the system, and by something touching or irritating that sensibility; so that, if M. DAUBE cannot give a better reason for resisting Locke's account, the English philosopher will maintain his ground, in spite of his present antagonist; and our sensations of cold and heat will be considered as derived from the touch.

In opposition to *Condillac*, who asserts that "all our sensations are necessarily agreeable or disagreeable," M. DAUBE contends that there are feelings and sensations which are neither the one nor the other, *i. e.* purely indifferent; and he instances the various motions which are continually taking place in the animal machine, such as the beating of the pulse and the twinkling of the eye, of which the sensation is so faint as not to belong to the class either of pleasurable or painful feelings. Since some objects, also, which at first excite agreeable sensations, in time lose their effect, and by repetition are found to produce those which are disagreeable, he observes that, as sensation passes by degrees from agreeable to disagreeable, there must be a point in this progress which is strictly intermediate. This argument, however, is no elucidation of the subject on which it is employed. The intermediate state between agreeable and disagreeable sensation, if it has any real existence, can only be a kind of mathematical point, on which the mind cannot perch itself. Though we do not attend to the beating of the pulse, to the playing of the lungs, to the motion of the eye-lids, &c., if these and the other animal functions proceed in a healthful state of the body, yet the combined sensation which is the result of all these operations cannot be indifferent. When all pain is absent, some pleasure must exist; it may not be of a high degree, but it must be pleasure; for who will not call ease and tranquillity by this name?

Hitherto, M. DAUBE's Ideology seems to us to have afforded little aid to the philologist in ascertaining the different shades of meaning that subsist between words which are commonly regarded as synonimous. The distinction made between Attention and Abstraction may, however, serve to shew his soli-

citude to discriminate. 'Attention can be given to two or more objects at once; while Abstraction, on the contrary, carries in it the idea of the exclusion of every kind of division. I regard, therefore, Abstraction as a particular case of Attention, or as Attention confined to a single object.'

To what extent the attention may be divided, he declares himself ignorant: but he supposes this faculty to vary in different men, and that to this difference is owing the greater extent of judgment which some possess in comparison with others.

Helvetius, *Condillac*, and *Bonnet* are combated in the account of the operations of memory; and, after having examined the hypotheses of these writers, the author before us concludes Memory to be a simple faculty different from sensation, and which enables us to perceive it not only in the present but also in the past. Memory he considers as of two kinds. 'We recall the sensations which we have experienced, sometimes because we *wish* to recall them; at others, the recollection is *forced* on us: in the first case, we are active; in the second, we are only passive. Would it not therefore be expedient to express the different ideas by different words? I propose to appropriate the word *reminiscence* or *recollection* to express active memory, and *souvenir* (which we must render *a putting in mind*) to denote the passive memory.' This will be considered by some to be a distinction without a difference; and others will regard it as too nice to render the use of distinct terms, in order to denote it, necessary in language. Are recollections, which are supposed to belong to the first class, independent of a previous sensation or concatination of ideas? and in those which are attributed to the second, is the mind passive? In both, the activity of the sentient or intelligent principle is apparent. The memory is indeed a wonderful faculty; and we shall perhaps be ever at a loss to explain the phænomenon of making the past appear in the present.

When we came to the chapter *on ideas*, our metaphysical gravity was relaxed by a blunder of the author. Our readers have heard of the humorous derivation of the word *idea*, which was given by a gentleman to a lady, who, after having read the whole of Locke's Essay on the Human Understanding, had nothing to lament but her ignorance of the meaning of this term; and which the gentleman affected to remove, by telling her that, as *Ideot* was a male fool, *Idea* must mean a female fool. M. Daube's definition, if not quite so ludicrous, is at least intitled to a smile; for instead of informing the readers of his Ideology, that *Idea* was derived from the Greek word Ἰδέα *an image*, from the verb ἰδεῖν to see, he sagely acquaints them

them that it comes from the two Latin words *id est*, and illustrates its use as conformable to this etymology. 'We call an idea, with *Condillac*, the recollection or remembrance of a feeling or sensation. This signification is conformable to its etymology: for the word comes from the two Latin words *id est*. At the recollection of a sensation of which we experience a repetition, we in some measure say to ourselves, this is that which we have felt before, *it is*.'

It will not be necessary for us to attend this metaphysical professor through his several chapters on Perception, Reasoning, Habit, Reflection, and Imagination; nor to enter into the several subordinate discussions to which he is led in the course of his Essay. We shall, however, transcribe his General Observations on all these faculties, with which the first part concludes:

'After having separately considered each of the faculties which we have just analysed, it remains for us to view them together, to examine their connection, and, in some sort, their relationship.

'Of these faculties some are simple and others compound: all, one excepted, suppose some other: there is but one which does not suppose others, and which all the rest appear to suppose; this is that of sensation, which for this reason may be termed the *first* faculty. We cannot in effect but remember that which we have felt, or the operations which we have performed on that which we have felt: we cannot give our attention but to that which we feel, or to that which we remember to have felt: thus Attention and Memory, though simple faculties like that of Sensation, suppose nevertheless this last, but are not the faculty of Sensation transformed, according to *Condillac*.

'On the contrary, it is not essential to Sensation, that there should be either Memory or Attention, Comparison or Reasoning; it is not necessary for us to have exercised or to be in the actual exercise of any of these faculties. Reminiscence supposes the wish to call to mind: to remember, we must at least have exercised the faculty of sensation: but Memory does not necessarily suppose the actual exercise of any other faculty; in which it is different from Attention, which necessarily requires the present exercise either of the Memory or of the faculty of Sensation. Attention is nothing less than a simple faculty perfectly distinct from the sensation and the idea; since we can feel and remember without Attention, and it depends on us to give or not to give our Attention, not only to all kinds of sensations, but to all sorts of recollections, besides those which are termed Judgments and Reasonings of Habit. Thus, from that which we feel or recollect when we give our Attention, we ought not to conclude that Attention is a compound faculty, but only that we are able to exercise at one and the same time many simple faculties.

'Comparison, or Judgment, supposes the actual exercise of attention and memory, or of the faculty of sensation: but the sensations and idea on which we bestow our attention are not sufficient to constitute Judgment; we must moreover perceive the resemblance or the

difference between these sensations and ideas, and this perception being a simple act of the mind, I conclude from it that the faculty of Judgment is a simple faculty; the transient act of which is called relation (*Rapport*); and I call Perception (*Notion*) the actual reunion, or the remembrance of the reunion, of the relations perceived between the simple sensations or ideas which form a compounded sensation or idea.

'Judgment, Memory, and Attention are therefore simple faculties, which suppose that of Sensation: but we must not hence conclude that these are nothing more than the faculty of Sensation itself. It is necessary for this purpose that the converse of the proposition should be true; viz. that we cannot have Sensation without Memory, without Attention, and without the exercise of the Judgment: moreover, these faculties might be inseparable without being the same faculty.

'From these four simple faculties, are formed the compound faculties, such as Reason, Contemplation, Reflection, and Imagination. In fact, reasoning does not merely suppose two or three relations (*rapports*) of a certain kind, but that these two or three should be united, which form or *compose* the syllogism. It includes also a series of relations or judgments, which suppose contemplation, reflection, and imagination.

'All these faculties are so many means by which we acquire Knowlege: their developement constitutes Intelligence; it is by them that we perceive and apprehend our thoughts, as by the ear we apprehend Sounds; and to the union of which we give the name of Understanding (*entendement*).

'The results of the different faculties of the Understanding are feelings, sensations, ideas, relations, reasonings, and principles; to all of which we give the common name of *Perceptions*, and thus the property of the Understanding will be to give us Perceptions.'

M. Daube's mode of analysing the operations of the sentient principle is here exhibited. He is no deep metaphysician, and many of his positions may be easily controverted: but, as we do not "sit on a hill retired," and have little time for "reasoning high," we shall leave this business to others, and proceed to the second part on *the Faculties of the Will;* which, for the same reason, we must dispatch with brevity. We do not conceive that M. Daube has thrown any new light on this part of his inquiry, but we shall give its outlines.

He endeavours to explain in what way we obtain the notion of Faculty, and divides it into two kinds, active and passive, but not perhaps with strict propriety. In the Chapter on the Will, instead of asserting with *Bonnet* and others, "that there is no will where there is not a reason for willing," he observes 'that the will is often the only reason of our determinations.' Hence his opinion may easily be conjectured respecting the freedom of the will, on which metaphysicians have been and continue to be divided; and the advocates for necessity will not think that M. Daube has

has in the least solved the difficulty, by his believing the question to be determined by what he calls facts, viz. 'That 1st, There are some events which are perfectly indifferent, and 2dly, That we can not only determine without motives but even against motives. Thus we enjoy the liberty of indifference, though we do not always exert it.' Men, who have studied the philosophy of mind more than this French Professor appears to have done, will deny the existence of these facts, and will reprobate the doctrine of the soul's acting against motives as absurd in the extreme.

The author also treats of Pleasure and Pain, of Desire and Aversion; of the Passions in general, and of their different kinds; after which he comes to the important discussion respecting the nature of the soul. As he did not before take part with the Necessitarians, neither does he here join the sect of the Materialists. He thus reasons, to prove that the soul is not matter:

'Being alike ignorant of the nature of mind and of the nature of matter; we have but one way of ascertaining whether the one be or be not the other, i. e. to examine both the one and the other *à posteriori*, or in their effects, comparing the phænomena which they respectively present; and if we find that the phænomena which matter offers are never exhibited by mind, and *vice versâ*, we shall perhaps have a right to conclude that the mind is not matter. Let us then submit mind and matter to this sort of examination, and let us fix the idea which we attach to the one and the other. We can understand by *Matter* nothing more than that which causes our sensations; this is the only notion which we can form of it, the only faculty by which the existence of body is known to us:—we understand by *Mind* that which experiences these sensations, which compares them, or in one word that which *thinks*.

'Now if my mind were material, this *me* would be composed of something producing sensations, which at the same time it would experience; and the cause of my sensations would then be the same as the sensations themselves. Nevertheless, all the efforts of the will are unable to produce in us a single sensation, without the aid of something that is not *us*. It seems hence to follow that the mind is not matter, since it cannot produce the effects which matter produces; and if it be certain that Matter is not that *to me* which causes sensations; if the Mind also *is to me* that which receives sensations, compares them, &c. it strictly results that the only pure notion which I can have of Bodies is in direct opposition to the only notion which I can entertain of Mind; for I may rest assured that *that* which *in me* receives sensations is not the same thing which gives or excites them, or is not that which I call matter.'

We shall leave the Materialist to reply to this plain and popular mode of metaphysical argumentation.

In the remaining chapters of this work, the Law of Union between the Mind and the Body, with the mode by which sensa-

tions are referred to the latter, and by which we are enabled to distinguish one body from another, are considered; the principles of *Condillac* are minutely examined; and the essay terminates with explaining how we distinguish our own bodies from other bodies. Here the author remarks:

'To ask what it is which really distinguishes our bodies from those of others is, in other words, to ask what are the laws of union between our mind and our body. Now strange bodies cannot immediately act on our minds: but, if they cause sensations, they must have the aid or intermediation of our bodies. In like manner, our minds, which can operate at will on our own bodies, cannot by their means act on other bodies. The question for us then to decide is, by what means we discover these differences, or some of them; and we may convince ourselves that the touch is not necessary for this end.

'We have so far seen in what manner we convince ourselves of the existence of bodies, to distinguish one from the other and to form to ourselves ideas of distance, place, and motion: but, among all these bodies which we have seen and distinguished, we do not even know which is our own. Let us suppose the statue of *Condillac* to be in this situation; and let us suppose with him that his hand made a mechanical motion, but without its touching any thing; this motion, however, will be felt, and will please the statue by its novelty: it will wish then to repeat it; and at the same instant, no doubt to its great astonishment, it will feel and see its hand make the same motion: it will reiterate this trial, extending the hand to the different parts of its body, and will convince itself that the will suffices to put them all in motion: it will then be desirous of knowing whether it has the same power over other bodies, and will convince itself of its impotence. Observe here, then, the first character strongly marked, by means of which it will distinguish, without the assistance of the Touch, its own body from surrounding bodies: its own body will be that which its will can influence, while it cannot act on external bodies.'

Similar remarks are made on the knowlege to be acquired by the exercise of the organ of sight: but we have transcribed sufficient to enable our readers to judge of the merit of this treatise, as an analysis of the different faculties which constitute the mental system. In the notes, the author enlarges on several interesting subjects connected with his inquiry; and he proposes, in a future treatise, to examine how man arrives at the power of transmitting his thoughts to others, and what rules he ought to observe in this transmission. We recommend to him the re-consideration of his present work, before he enlarges it.

ART.

ART. VII. *Minéralogie des Anciens*, &c. *i. e.* The Mineralogy of the Antients. By LOUIS DE LAUNAY. 2 vols. 8vo. Brussels. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 15s. sewed.

THE state of mineralogical knowlege among the antients is unavoidably involved in much difficulty and obscurity. The writings of some of the more early naturalists have perished; those of others have been handed down to us in mutilated and imperfect forms; the restraints on scientific communication, previously to the invention of printing, were great and numerous; the principles of chemistry, which throw so much light on the composition of various masses of our globe, were long unknown; and the want of a precise nomenclature can never be supplied.

Yet the subject admits of partial explanations and probable conjectures, and is calculated to rouse the united exertions of the classical scholar and of the naturalist. We find, accordingly, that, in the elucidation of particular words and passages, critics and commentators have laboured with various success: but few have attempted to interpret the whole vocabulary of antient mineralogy. Memoirs on the Greek and Latin designations of certain fossil substances may be found in the Transactions of various learned Societies. *Millin* has ably illustrated the lithology of Homer; and the Chevalier *de Born* had collected materials for his intended *Mineralogia Veterum*, but lived not to execute his plan. Hence we are induced to bestow on the volumes before us a larger portion of attention than they might otherwise demand.

M. DE LAUNAY acquaints us that his Essay, originally composed in French, was first published in the form of a German translation. Though the fruit of much patient research, it appeared to himself susceptible of additions and improvements: in consequence, however, of a threatened anticipation, he hastened to republish it in his native language, with such alterations as existing circumstances would allow.

In the course of his Introduction, he takes occasion to advert to the discordant sentiments of *Gmelin* and *Buffon*; the former of whom has unduly depreciated, and the latter perhaps as unduly overrated, the mineralogical knowlege of the antients. Holding a middle course between these extreme opinions, he hints at some of the circumstances already stated, as unfriendly to the progress of such knowlege:

'Let us suppose, however,' says he, 'that a complete system of antient mineralogy was unfolded to our view, what are the inferences to be drawn from a comparative examination of its merits with those of the prevailing doctrines of the present day? We should plead, no doubt,

doubt, our superior advances in the science: but, on that account, have we much reason to boast? Here, let us listen to the celebrated *Buffon*: "The antients," he says, "directed all their scientific views to objects of utility, and indulged much less than we do in idle curiosity. Whatever bore no direct relation to the interests of society, to health, to the fine arts, in short, to some useful purpose, they treated with neglect, as unworthy of occupying the human mind."

'Thus they regarded a stone, which could be turned to no beneficial account, as wholly useless; and, so far from describing it, they did not even honour it with a name. Aristotle expressly says, "there are many stones destitute of names."

With all due deference to the author and to *Buffon*, we demur to the general position that views of direct utility alone guided the inquiries of the learned in former times. Granting, however, that the *fact* was established beyond dispute, the *doctrine* is too narrow for the approbation of an enlightened age. Curiosity naturally prompts us to examine even those objects, of which the utility is by no means apparent; and curiosity was not bestowed on us in vain. It not unfrequently conducts us to the knowlege of new and unsuspected relations, and to a rich and plentiful harvest, where the soil promised only cold and sterility.

With more propriety, M. DE L. notices the astonishing powers evinced by the antients, in drawing large masses from the bowels of the earth; and the labour which they must have exerted in the extraction of metals and precious stones: deprived as they were of the mariner's compass and gunpowder, and of many mechanical contrivances, which now facilitate and multiply the operations of human industry:

'Without dwelling on the marbles and porphyries employed in the structure of so many magnificent edifices which have adorned Greece and ancient Rome, let us hear what Pliny says of those enormous mineral excavations which were formed in his day. "We hew down mountains, and we drag them from their base, in quest of objects which may gratify our luxury. We remove the barriers which nature seemed to have placed between nations, and we construct vessels, exclusively adapted to the transportation of marble."

'With poignant raillery, Petronius has remarked that the Romans, after having exhausted mountains to procure different kinds of stones, have, for the same purpose, penetrated to such depths that the shades may again hope to see the light of day.'

Numbers appear to have compensated the want of skill and ingenuity. The slave, the prisoner of war, the criminal, and even the unfortunate innocent, were condemned to drudge under the inspection of rigid taskmasters. Athenæus relates of the miners in Attica, that they once rose in rebellion, and made themselves

themselves masters of the promontory of Sunium, from which they issued into the country in predatory bands. We learn from Polybius, that forty thousand workmen were employed in the mines near Carthage; and Pliny informs us that the Vercellensian miners were limited by a special law to five thousand.

The remaining part of the Introduction is principally devoted to slight and imperfect hints concerning the mining laws, processes, and utensils which were in use among the antients.

Of the many short sections which compose the work, the first is intitled, *of Fossil Substances in general.* Its chief purport, however, is to shew the undefined nature of the terms *metal*, *salt*, and *gem*, when used by antient writers; and to indicate the arrangements of the substances included under them, as adopted by Aristotle, Theophrastus, Dioscorides, Pliny, and Galen. This section concludes with the following summary of the author's plan;

'The exposition which I am about to present to the public embraces none of those systematic and rigid distributions, which now characterize every treatise on natural history. The antients recognized no such distributions, and they are my guides. Yet I might incur blame, if willingly, and without reason, I should deviate from such an arrangement, as any of our modes of considering the productions of the mineral kingdom may have rendered familiar. This blame I wish to avoid.

'The work will consist of four general divisions. In the first, we shall treat of *earths* and *stones*, including in three respective supplements, 1. *rocks* and *sand*, 2. *volcanic productions*, and 3. *accidental fossils*, or *petrifactions*. The second division will comprize the *salts*; the third, *inflammable substances*; and the fourth, the *metals*. The titles or articles of these divisions will sometimes be followed by a supplement; and the whole will be concluded by a *comparative view of antient and modern mineralogy*. For this last part, I shall reserve several productions which were known in antient times; and of which, from the want of adequate descriptions, we can form either no idea, or a very imperfect one.'

In the composition of a treatise like that before us, extreme nicety of arrangement ought not to be regarded as an object of primary consideration. We must, however, confess that an ordinary degree of attention to neatness would have led us to dispense with supplements and appendixes; especially as a slight and very allowable extension of the running titles would have rendered such formal additions unnecessary. In some instances, again, the general titles have been needlessly multiplied. Thus *Terra Samia*, *Melinum*, *Eretria*, *Chia Terra*, *Selinusia Terra*, *Cimolia*, *Terra Lemnia*, &c. &c. being regarded as

as argillaceous earths, should have found their places under *Argilla*, instead of being exhibited as supplementary articles.

The second section, intitled *of Earths and Stones*, furnishes a few particulars relative to the lithological notions of Theophrastus, Pliny, &c., not forgetting the various uses of stones among the antients. The *Bætyli*, to which superstition attached so many charms, and which were reported to have fallen from the clouds, might have invited to a discussion of atmospheric stones: but this is a subject to which M. DE LAUNAY does not here allude. We cannot, indeed, avoid remarking that he manifests little predilection to digression, or even to copious illustration. A very considerable portion of his work consists of a translation of the names of mineral substances which occur in Pliny; accompanied by short conjectures or commentaries, and, sometimes, deriving interest from an account of the uses to which those substances are applied.

The first article of the author's explanatory enumeration is *Crystallus*, which he renders by *Rock crystal*: but there is reason to believe that it also denoted *calcareous spar*. It is somewhat remarkable that the antient naturalist considered rock-crystal as water in a high state of congelation; and, consequently, as most abounding in very *cold* countries. Diodorus Siculus, however, ascribes its hardness to the powerful influence of the *sun's rays*; while Pliny, with becoming modesty, avows his ignorance of the cause of its hexangular formation. —As a proof that the art of engraving seals had been successfully cultivated, the author notices the beautiful antique impressions on crystal, which are preserved in the cabinets of the curious.

Iris, *Zeros*, *Pangonius*, *Belus*, *Leucochrysos*, *Leucochrysos capnia*, *Veneris crinis*, *Rhoditis*, and *Ion*, are briefly explained as modifications of rock-crystal or quartz.

Silex, the next general category, comprehended, according to our author, both *flint* and common quartz.—*Achates* and its compounds are supposed to have included *agate* and *calcedony*, with their principal varieties.

Few precious stones were of more frequent use among the antients than the *Sarda*, which is supposed to have denoted both our *Sardonyx* and our *Cornelian*.

‘ The learned anonymous author of a small German work lately published is of opinion, that the first of the three sorts of *Sarda*, mentioned by Pliny, was the blood-coloured, or σαρδιον αιματοειν of *Orpheus*; the female *Sarda* of *Theophrastus*; in other words, the cornelian; that the second sort, the colour of which is not mentioned by *Pliny*, viz. the *dionium*, (so called, perhaps, from an old Indian word,)

word,) was, according to *Grosse*, the male *Sardius* of *Theophrastus*, or our *Sardonyx*. This last, according to the anonymous author, was of a yellowish brown.

'Several antique cornelians have been preserved, particularly that in the king's cabinet at Paris; representing in bas relief, and within the compass of five or six lines, thirteen or fourteen human figures, besides those of some animals, trees, &c. In the *Recueil d' Antiquités*, Count *Caylus* notices several Etrurian amulets of Cornelian.'

Morio and *Egyptillas* are ranked as varieties of the *Sarda*.

Onyx is mentioned by various antient authors. The different sorts of it, to which Pliny alludes, were probably *calcedonies*, marked by bands, or zones, of different and alternate colours. The term was moreover applied to precious stones, which exhibit different colours at once; the first vein or layer being black, or dark blue, the second of a vermillion red, and the third of a tallow white. The Arabian *Sardonyx* was distinguished by white, circular bands, on a black ground. The Indian sort was also included under the general appellation.

We stay not to specify the supplementary varieties, which present little else than a catalogue of names; and which a modern mineralogist would probably refer to Agate or Calcedony.

On the much disputed subject of *Murrhinum*, we find nothing new, and only a superficial statement of former opinions.

Jaspis includes several species of Jasper, and other stones which, from their *transparency*, are supposed by some to have appertained to the siliceous class. The author rejects from our jaspers that which, according to Pliny, was fifteen inches in height: but does he require to be reminded that the striped and other kinds occur in masses, and sometimes form entire mountains?

Cyanus and *Sapphirus* are conjectured to correspond to our *Sapphire* and *Lapis lazuli*: but it must be confessed that the subject is involved in considerable doubt.

Along with *Pæderos* are enumerated *Asteria*, *Argyrodamas*, &c. all of changing hues; answering, perhaps, to our coloured felspars, such as *Moon-stone*, *Water-opal*, *Labrador stone*, &c.

The interpretation of *Opalus* is still doubtful: for, though commonly alleged to be the same with our *Opal*, the latter is found only in Hungary, and is white, not green.

Smaragdus probably answers to our *emerald*: but there are passages which would justify its application to *prasium*, *green-jasper*, and *malachite*. To precious stones of a green hue, the antients were decidedly partial. A very considerable list of such, mostly extracted from Pliny, may be found in the present

sent work: but the modern denominations of few of them can be fixed with accuracy.

Of the five sorts of *Amethystus* noted by Pliny, the last, *resembling crystal, and passing to a very light purple*, seems to be our *Amethyst*. The first approaches nearer to the *Almandine Ruby*, and the others apparently belong to the *Garnet* or *Hyacinth* families. Pliny's *Hyacinthus* is presumed to be a siliceous crystal, slightly tinctured with blue.

The circumstances which are mentioned concerning *Carbunculus* have suggested various interpretations, the least exceptionable of which seems to be that of the present author; who is inclined to place it among the finer sorts of *garnet* or *ruby*. Allied to the carbuncle, were *Anthracitis*, *Sandaresus*, and *Lychnis*.

Under *Adamas*, we find the six species mentioned by Pliny. It is obvious, however, that some of his definitions are inapplicable to the true diamond. The Roman naturalist, whom we have already so frequently quoted, hints at the art of cutting diamond by itself; a discovery which has been gratuitously ascribed to *Boece de Boot*, a native of Bruges.

The interesting article *Argilla* gives rise to some curious disquisition concerning antient earthen ware and porcelain. The latter, as still appears from Egyptian specimens described by Count *Caylus*, nearly resembled the Chinese. 'Pliny likewise informs us that larger vessels, like hogsheads, for the preservation of wine, water-conduits, stoves for heating the baths, and even coffins, were made of clay.'

Siphnus and *Comensis lapis* correspond to our *Pot-stone*. The *Steatitis* of Pliny, according to M. DE L. might either be the *catchalong*, a *white calcedony*, *white nephritic stone*, a *fat quartz*, a *white jasper*, or something different from all of these.

The calcareous class of fossils, though numerous, requires little elucidation. *Calx* denoted common *limestone*; *creta argentaria*, chalk; and *marmor*, not only *marble*, but every stone susceptible of polish, and which occurs in large masses. *Zerber*'s valuable letters on the mineralogy of Italy have supplied M. DE LAUNAY with a list of some of the most noted ancient marbles.—*Gypsum* and *lapis specularis* are justly rendered *compact* and *foliated Gypsum*.

Syenites appears to have been the Egpytian granite, especially that kind of it which is composed of feltspar and hornblend.

The article *Arena* commences with the observation that the Greeks had several names for *Sand*, viz. αμμος, αμαθος, ψαμμος and ψαμαθος: but it is evident that these are only different forms of the same word. The derivation of *Arena* from *Aridi-*

tas,

tas, though countenanced by respectable authorities, is somewhat fanciful; and the author's etymology of *amiantus* (*quod in ignem conjectus οὐ μαίνεται, non inquinatur*, &c.) is not more satisfactory.

The volcanic and petrified matters, which terminate the first general division, and the first volume of the work, are few; and, for the most part, of easy interpretation. To the former belong *Basaltes*, (*Basalt,*) *Basanites*, (*Touchstone,*) *Obsidianus lapis*, (*Vitreous lava,*) *Pumex*, (*Pumice stone*) and *Pulvis Puteolanus*, (*Fuzzolana;*) and to the latter, *Hammonis cornu*, (*Cornu Ammonis,*) *Ostracitis*, (*Ostracite,*) *Bucardia*, (*Bucardite,*) *Lapis Judaicus*, (uncertain,) and *Dactylus* (*Belemnite*).

In a future article we purpose shortly to analyze the contents of the second volume.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VIII. *Le Malheur et la Pitié*, &c.; *i. e.* Misfortune and Pity, a Poem in Four Cantos. By the Abbé DE LILLE, one of the 40 Members of the French Academy. Published by M. *de Mervé*. 4to. pp. 228. Dulau and Co. London.

THE high reputation which has been acquired by the author of this poem makes it unnecessary for us to swell the torrent of his praise; and it would almost be presumption to suppose that we could add another laurel to a wreath already so thickly woven. The reader who is possessed of genius or taste will agree to the truth of this proposition; and, disclaiming all captious criticism, he will place this poem "though *last* not *least* in his good graces." If we accompanied M. DE LILLE with a more calm and placid satisfaction through the innocent scenes of rural life, it was not because the poet painted those pictures with a more masterly hand, for he is equally skilful in the descriptions both of the pacific and the turbulent: but we feel a reluctance to the renewed sensation of that horror which was unavoidably excited by the contemplation of revolutionary tragedies.

In the preface, we are informed that M. DE LILLE was aware of the enmity which would accrue to him from this publication: but, justified to his own heart by the motive which impelled him, namely, that of pleading the cause of humanity and justice against their oppressors, and the violators of their principles, he pays no regard to such considerations. To these motives is united an anxious solicitude to perpetuate his gratitude, and his most affectionate and loyal attachment to his august benefactors. True to the vows of allegiance, no transition of fortune could shake them; and proof against adver-

sity,—that touchstone of fidelity,—he preserved the same personal love and respect for his royal master and his unfortunate family, in their degraded state, when victims of cruelty and persecution, as in their illustrious day of splendid prosperity.—We have a beautiful outline of the picture of gratitude in this sentiment:—'*rien ne meurt pour les cœurs reconnoissans.*'

The introductory poem in this volume is an Ode to Immortality. We are told that the poet availed himself of this occasion to correct the abused and misconstructed ideas of liberty, equality, and immortality, which prevailed during the mania of the French; and being commanded to tune his lyre to these popular songs, he takes the liberty of setting them to his *own music*, and celebrates the themes on principles totally different from those which were "the order of the day." We shall give a specimen of the Abbé's powers in this species of composition:

'*Que je hais les tyrans! combien, dès mon enfance,*
Mes imprecations ont poursuivi leur char!
Ma foiblesse superbe insulte à leur puissance;
J'aurois chanté Caton à l'aspect de César.

Et pourquoi craindre la furie
D'un injuste dominateur?
N'est-il pas une autre patrie
Dans l'avenir consolateur?
Ainsi, quand tout fléchit dans l'empire du monde,
Hors la grande âme de Caton,
Immobile il entend la tempête qui gronde,
Et tient, en méditant l'éternité profonde,
Un poignard d'une main, et de l'autre Platon.

Par eux, bravant les fers, les tyrans et l'envie,
Il reste seul arbitre de son sort;
A ses vœux l'un promet la mort,
Et l'autre une éternelle vie

Que tout tombe aux genoux de l'oppresseur du Tibre,
Sa grande âme affranchie a son refuge au ciel:
Il dit au tyran: je suis libre;
Au trépas: je suis immortel.
Allez; portez dans l'urne sépulcrale
Où l'attendoient ses immortels aïeux,
Portez ce reste glorieux,
Vainqueur, tout mort qu'il est, du vainqueur de Pharsale.
En vain César victorieux
Poursuit sa marche triomphale;
Autour de la tombe fatale,
Libre encore un moment, le peuple est accouru;
Du plus grand des Romains il pleure la mémoire;
Le cercueil rend jaloux le char de la victoire;
Caton triomphe seul, César a disparu.

Que

Que dis-je? enfans bannis d'une terre chérie,
François, que vos vertus triomphent mieux du sort!
Sans biens, sans foyers, sans patrie,
Votre malheur n'appelle point la mort:
Plus courageux vous supportez la vie;
Qui peut donc soutenir votre cœur généreux?
Ah! la Foi vous promet le prix de tant de peines;
Au sein de l'infortune elle vous rend heureux,
Riches dans l'indigence, et libres dans les chaînes;
Et du fond des cachots vous habitez les cieux.
Loin donc de l'homme impie, exécrable maxime,
Qui, sur ces deux appuis ébranlez le devoir!
Il faut un prix au juste, il faut un frein au crime;
L'homme sans crainte est aussi sans espoir.
Ainsi par un accord sublime,
La céleste immortalité
S'élance d'un vol unanime
Avec sa sœur la sage Liberté.

Et vous, vous que mon cœur adore,
Faudra-t-il donc vous perdre sans retour?
Non: Si d'un jour plus beau cette vie est l'aurore,
Nous nous retrouverons dans un autre séjour.
O, mes amis, nous nous verrons encore!
Qu'en nous reconnoissant nous serons attendris!
Du haut des célestes lambris,
Sur ce séjour de douleur et d'alarmes
Nous jetterons un regard de pitié;
Et nos yeux n'auront plus à répandre de larmes,
Que les pleurs de la joie, et ceux de l'amitié.

Cependant, exilés dans ce séjour profane,
Cultivez les arts enchanteurs,
Ils calmeront les maux où le ciel vous condamne,
Ils mêleront quelque charme à vos pleurs.

Mais ne profanez point le feu qui vous anime,
Laissez-là des plaisirs les chants voluptueux
Et leur lyre pusillanime.
Célébrez l'homme magnanime,
Célébrez l'homme vertueux;
Et que vos sons majestueux
Soient sur la terre un prélude sublime
Des hymnes chantés dans les cieux!"

In the four Cantos, of which the principal poem consists, Pity has her several departments; in the first, she is painted as exercising a superintendence over the sacred bonds of social intercourse; over the servant, the relation, the friend, and indiscriminately over all created Beings of the human class, to whom misfortune gives a claim to the exercise of benevolent compassion. The Animal Creation obtains a large portion of the

poet's eloquent pleadings; and the cause of the lesser brutes was never better defended against *the greater brute, the tyrant Man.*

The second Canto treats of Pity exercised by Governments in the public establishments of Justice and Charity, Prisons, Hospitals, &c. and concludes with an affecting episode, of the troops in two French camps of la Vendée seizing on an interval of truce to embrace their friends, when the sword was but that instant sheathed which had been aimed at each other's heart. We shall present to those of our readers, who are conversant with the French language, the passage which describes this momentary admission to the temple of Peace and Concord:

'La Vendée! A ce nom, la nature frémit,
L'humanité recule, et la Pitié gémit.
La funeste Vendée, en sa fatale guerre,
De François égorgés couvroit au loin la terre,
Et le sujet des rois, l'esclave des tyrans,
De leur sang répandu confondoient les torrens.
Enfin, entre les camps la trêve se déclare:
Soudain, tous ont franchi le lieu qui les sépare,
Volent d'un camp à l'autre: à peine on s'est mêlé,
La vengeance s'est tue, et le sang a parlé.
A ces traits, jadis chers, à ces voix qu'ils connoissent,
La tendresse s'éveille, et les remords renaissent;
Les mains serrent les mains, les cœurs pressent les cœurs.
De leur vieille amitié les souvenirs vainqueurs
Leur montrent leurs parens ou leurs compagnons d'armes,
Ceux de qui les bienfaits essuyèrent leurs larmes,
Ceux qui de leur hymen préparèrent les nœuds,
Ceux qui de leur enfance ont partagé les jeux;
Dans leurs embrassemens leurs transports se confondent,
Leurs larmes, leurs soupirs, leurs sanglots se répondent.
Des banquets sont dressés, le vin coule à grands flots,
Les chants de l'amitié consolent les échos.
Tout redevient François, ami, parent et père;
L'humanité respire et la nature espère.
Mais du départ fatal le signal est donné;
Chacun d'eux aussitôt baisse un front consterné.
Aux cris joyeux succède un lugubre silence:
Tous, pressentant leurs maux et les maux de la France,
S'éloignent lentement, et, les larmes aux yeux,
D'un triste et long regard se sont fait leurs adieux.
Mais le remords redoublé au milieu des ténèbres,
Leur sommeil est troublé de fantômes funèbres:
D'un hôte, d'un ami, l'un croit percer le flanc,
L'autre égorger son frère, et rouler dans son sang.
Enfin, le jour renaît, et l'airain des batailles
Fait entendre ses sons, signal des funérailles.

Accours

Accours tendre Pitié, préviens ces jeux sanglans,
Cours, les cheveux épars, vole de rangs en rangs;
Dis à ces malheureux: "Cruels, qu'allez vous faire?
Vos bras dénaturés déchirent votre mère.
Laissez-là ces mousquets, ces piques et ces dards;
La nature a maudit vos affreux étendards!
Hélas! hier encore, assis aux mêmes tables,
Votre bouche abjuroit ces lauriers détestables!
Avez vous oublié vos doux sermens d'amour?
Le ciel à vos combats prête à regret le jour.
Et moi, si du malheur vous sentez les atteintes,
Cruels, je fermerai mon oreille à vos plaintes;
Je resterai muette, et vos justes malheurs
A mes yeux vainement demanderont des pleurs.
Et vous qui, les premiers, provoquant la vengeance,
Avez des cœurs françois rompu l'intelligence,
C'est à vous de donner le signal de la paix:
Vos barbares exploits sont autant de forfaits.
Assez, pour féconder les palmes de la guerre,
Des cadavres sanglans ont engraissé la terre.
Ah! revenez à vous, voyez la France en deuil
Pleurer de vos lauriers le parricide orgueil!
Le chemin qui conduit ces enfans aux conquêtes,
Est teint de notre sang et pavé de nos têtes;
Près d'elle sont assis, sur son char inhumain,
D'un côté le triomphe et de l'autre la faim.
Abjurez, il est temps, vos palmes funéraires;
Aimez vous en François, embrassez-vous en frères;
Et qu'aux chants de la mort succèdent en ce jour
Les cris de l'allégresse et les hymnes d'amour!"

Canto III. invites the tears of Pity over the reign of Proscription; and the author, how-much-soever he may in general purify his details from personalities, in this poem assumes more of the colouring of circumstance and locality. It was indeed hardly possible for him to refuse his eloquent pathos to the *tragical history*, which presented to his pencil so interesting a picture as the royal sufferers in *this reign of tyranny*.

The fourth Canto asserts the claims of the Expatriated Emigrants to the protection of Pity; and in the discussion of this part of his subject, M. DE LILLE takes the opportunity of testifying the gratitude due to the English nation for its benevolence towards those unfortunate people: a protection peculiarly generous, because it was denied by many other countries and states. With an allowable asperity, he reprobates those Powers which refused their asylum; and, by a contrast of the picture, he gives a just tribute of praise to the generous and kind hearts of their protectors. We shall here endeavour to convey his sentiments to the English reader:

'Others have gardens, parks, and regal domes,
Where the whole world to gaze with ardor comes;
But here no foot of emigrant we trace,
Misfortune's step might grandeur's soil disgrace.
People magnanimous—may you be blest!
Who our oppressors' crimes have thus redress'd!
Ye first, brave English!—free to love your kings,
Whose happiness from Law's protection springs.
Within your bosom, party-rage expires,
As from your shores the broken storm retires.
No more is here the Sanctuary's aid,
Where robbers hide beneath the Altar's shade:
The assassin, with his victim's blood imbru'd,
In sacred walls no more lurks unpursu'd.
No!—Albion now unfolds her gen'rous breast,
Not to the *guilty*—but to the *distress'd*.
Here sainted men, from murder's axe secur'd,
Find peaceful worship by the Law insur'd;
And antient faith, protected by her hands,
Chants Sion's holy song on foreign lands.'

We could with pleasure select many more passages from this poem: but compression, though not always our choice, is often with us a law of necessity. We therefore take our leave, sincerely wishing the author a good translating pioneer, capable of conducting him over the poetical mountain with unimpaired honour and reputation. Most of our readers probably know that the good Abbé himself is gone to

'Chant Sion's holy song in *unknown* lands.'

An emblematical frontispiece, and portraits of Louis XVI. his queen, his sister, and his children, decorate this volume; which is also elegantly printed.

ART. IX. *Annales du Muséum National*, &c.; *i.e.* Annals of the National Museum of Natural History. 4to.
[*Article continued.*]

OF the activity and perseverance with which the study of Natural History is pursued in France, we have repeated proofs; and we draw the attention of our countrymen to this circumstance, in hopes that they will not be outstripped in the race of science. We gave some account of the commencement of this work, which is conducted by the professors of the Museum, in our 43d. Vol. p. 491; and though, in resuming our notice of it, the various nature of the undertaking and the numerous papers included in each number will oblige us to be very cursory in our remarks, we regard it as a duty to make some report, even if it be with the brevity of an Index.

No. 4. commences with *a Notice of the* INDICOLITE *of M. Dandrada.* By M. HAÜY.—After having considered the different

ferent characters of this stone, found in Sweden, which are distinctly specified, the Professor concludes that the *Imlicolite* is a species of Tourmaline. Some parts of these specimens, broken off and heated, produced a sensible effect on the electrometer.

Memoir on the Caoutchouc, or elastic Fossil Bitumen of Derbyshire. By M. Faujas St. Fond.—No new light is thrown on this subject: but we are told that Mr. Mawe of Derbyshire, when last at Paris, presented M. St. Fond with two specimens of this fossil bitumen, and shewed him a piece discovered not long since, two feet and a half in circumference, and two inches and ½ thick, and which weighed about three pounds. This singular substance, which our own Naturalists have described, is found in the neighbourhood of Castleton, at least 450 feet below the surface, in the fissures of the strata. It is of two kinds, elastic and compressible, or solid, hard, and brittle.

Description of a new Species of Papaya, or Carica. By M. Desfontaines.—This is called *Carica monoica* (monœcia) and is thus described. *C. racemis erectis, petiolis brevioribus; foliorum lobis integris et divisis; petiolis canaliculatis; floribus monoicis.* Plants of this species, originally from Peru, are reported to have flourished for the first time in the Conservatories of the Museum, raised from seed brought from Spain.

Rare Plants which have grown in the Year 10 *in the Garden or Conservatories of the Museum:* by the Same: including *Centauria pumila* (indigenous in Egypt) *Asclepias linaria—Asclepias Mexicana—Ehretia bourreria.* This last plant, a native of the Antilles, was brought alive from Porto-Rico to the Museum, but requires to be kept in the stove.

Note relative to the Sciurus capistratus of Carolina. By M. L. Bosc.—This species of squirrel is about 2 feet long, three inches in diameter, and varies in colour from a dark grey to a perfect black. It is much hunted, being considered as excellent food. M. Bosc, indeed, prefers it to all the game which he ever tasted in Europe. This animal is thus characterized: *Sciurus cinereus, capite nigro, naso auriculisque albis.*

Description of the Vulture of Pondicherry. By M. F. M. Daudin.—This species differs from the *vultur auricularis* described by *Le Vaillant* in its caruncules being placed below the ears—in its face being furnished with stiff hairs surrounding the skin which covers the cheek, and longer than those on the neck—in its craw being covered with a silky ash-coloured down, short and thick—in the white and downy cravat which is placed on each side at the bottom of the neck,—and in the feathers on all the lower parts of the body, which are remarkably short,

and not so long and slender as those of the *auricularis*. A portrait of this vulture is given.

Observations on certain Wasps. By M. P. A. LABRIELLE.—The different kinds of Wasps here noticed are the *vespa vulgaris*, Lin.— *vespa Holsatica* (or of Holstein)—*vespa frontalis*—*vespa Gallica*—and *vespa diadema*. Their habits, and the mode of making their nests, are described; the author also promises a work on the Genera of Insects, of which the present paper is to form a part.

Description of a larva, and of an inedited species of the genus of Beetles. By the same.—We shall not detain the reader with the enumeration of the characters of this little insect.

Memoirs on the Fossils in the environs of Paris, including the determination of the kinds which belong to marine animals without vertebræ, and of which the greatest part are represented in the collection of drawings on velium of the Museum. By M. LAMARCK.—Petrifactions of marine animals found in the centre of continents and in mountains, embedded in various strata, attest, beyond contradiction, the revolutions which the surface of this globe must have experienced. These animals must have once lived in the places in which their remains are deposited in such abundance; and if this be admitted, it necessarily follows that the sea must once have covered those regions which are now dry land, and which have been in this state as long as history affords any record. If we examine those fossils and their situation, and combine the knowlege which we thus acquire with other facts, we may assure ourselves, says M. LAMARCK, that the sea has not retired to its present bed, but in obedience to a slow, yet always active, cause; and that, by the incessant operation of this cause, it is probable that those parts of the globe which are now elevated will become again, in course of time, the bed of the sea, as they once have been, and that what is now submerged will become dry land. In these fossils may be traced proofs of the changes of climate which the same spot undergoes; for, among the fossil remains of living bodies now found in Europe, many of them could not exist in a living state in the present climate and temperature of the place in which they are discovered. Remains of shell fish, inhabitants of warm seas, of the palm, and of the bones of elephants and crocodiles, discovered in France and other countries, in which they are not to be found in a living state, are thought to exemplify this fact. This naturalist is induced to believe that those revolutions in the surface of the globe, which the existence of these fossils and their locality indicate, happened in a period prior to that of the most antient history: he does not, however, say previously to the formation of man; and yet it is

a sin-

a singular fact that, amid all these monuments of the remote operations of nature, we find no trace of the operations of man. Important as the study of Fossils is, the Professor complains that sufficient attention has not been bestowed by naturalists in characterizing and describing them; and while he exempts from the censure Mr. *Brander* an Englishman, he brings the accusation home to his own countrymen by observing that, though in the small canton of Grignon, about seven leagues from Paris, an enlightened and persevering philosopher (M. *Defrance*) had collected at least 500 specimens of fossil shells, more than three-fourths of them have remained undescribed. His specimens, however, have been now beautifully and correctly copied on vellum by two ingenious artists belonging to the Museum. These fossil shells, M. LAMARCK observes, are in the best state of preservation with respect to their shape; their substance is chalk, and not flint; and they are embedded in a bank of calcareous sand mixed with a little quartzous sand. He supposes this bank to run from east to west, and to be a continuation of that which exists in Hampshire, where similar fossils, noticed by Mr. Brander, (in *Fossilia Hantoniensis*,) are found; and if this conjecture be admitted, the revolution which deposited them must have been previous to the formation of the British Channel. After this introduction, he proceeds to inform us that he purposes, in this and some subsequent memoirs, to examine these shells, or the fossil remains of marine animals without vertebræ, for the purpose of delineating their characters. For the convenience of foreigners, he has added the Latin names of the genera and species, with some concise observations.

In a series of memoirs, then, the fossil fragments which are found in the vicinity of Paris are arranged under genera and species. We shall merely name the genera: 1, *Chiton*, or *Oscabrion*; 2, *Patella*, or *Limpet*; 3, *Fissurella*; 4, *Emarginula*; 5, *Calyptræa*; 6, *Conus*; 7, *Cypræa*; 8, *Terebellum*; 9, *Oliva*; 10, *Ancilla*; 11, *Voluta*; 12, *Mitra*; 13, *Marginella*; 14, *Cancellaria*; 15, *Purpura*; 16, *Buccinum*; 17, *Terebra*; 18, *Harpa*; 19, *Cassis*; 20, *Strombus*; 21, *Rostellaria*; 22, *Murex*; 23, *Fusus*; 24, *Pyrula*.

This subject is still farther prosecuted in subsequent numbers, in Vol. 3.

The *Correspondence* includes *The substance of a Memoir from* M. *Leblond on the culture of Pepper in French Guiana*; by M. DESFONTAINES.—Though cloves, mace, and cinnamon are cultivated in French Guiana, it is here remarked that to the growth of pepper this colony and the government ought to direct their chief attention; since the pepper of Guiana is of as good a quality

as any in the Indies, yields a large return, and can be sent to Europe with peculiar facility. In describing the particulars relative to the cultivation of this plant, the author follows, in part, a treatise written by M. *Velloso* in Portuguese, for the purpose of instructing the colonists of Brazil. We find that Pepper does not like sandy soils, and succeeds best on strong clays; that it requires the warmest climates of the tropics; that it climbs to the height of 20 cubits; and that its stem is sometimes 6 inches thick. It is gathered with ease, shaking the plant being all that is necessary, and the fruit is dried in five or six days. It is calculated that three-quarters of an acre, regularly planted, will produce 3000 lbs. of pepper; which, at 40 sous per lb. will amount to 6000 livres. The author wishes to hold out the advantages of emigration to Guiana.

The other article of Correspondence in this number is *The Description of the mould-board of a Plough* (oreille de charrue) *offering the least possible resistance, and of which the operation is as easy as it is certain.* By Mr. JEFFERSON, President of the United States.—This paper merits the study of the agriculturist: but the accompanying diagrams are necessary to its full explanation.

In No. 5, we find a *Memoir on the chemical nature of Ants, and on the simultaneous existence of two vegetable acids in these insects.* By M. A. F. FOURCROY.—Ants are known to yield a powerful acid, which some have supposed to be an acid *sui generis.* By subjecting these insects to chemical analysis, M. FOURCROY and M. *Vauquelin* have obtained facts which have escaped their predecessors. It is impossible for us to detail the different experiments here described: but the most interesting result is the presence of both the acetous and malic acids in these insects, and in a considerable state of concentration; for by pounding them in a marble mortar, a vapour of the acetous acid arises so strong and penetrating that a person cannot endure to stand near it. These little animals continually transude and distil an acid, which is proved by their effect on vegetable blues. The malic acid, observes the professor, is discoverable in most vegetables, and seems, in some degree, to be the first step to acidification in the processes of nature and of art.

Memoir on the Topazes of Brazil. By M. HAÜY.—Two Topazes are here examined. To the first, which is the only one that is in a perfect state, is assigned the name *octosexdecimal*, because the sides of the prism and those of the two ends give successively the three numbers of 8, 6, and 10. It appears that the topaz is not a regular crystal, and that the sides or faces, at the two points or extremities, are of unequal number.

M. HAÜY

M. Haüy found that the resinous or negative pole belonged, in the above mentioned crystal, to the end with ten faces, and the vitreous or positive to that with six.

Memoir on a fossil Fish found in the quarries of Nanterre near Paris. By M. Faujas St. Fond.—On the authority of the plate affixed, we may pronounce this to be a beautiful petrifaction; the parts of the fish are distinctly to be traced on the stone in which it was bedded, which was found by one of the workmen 17 feet below the surface, and six feet deep in the stratum or bed of stone. The fish, by the characters here traced, is allotted to the genus termed *Coryphènes* by *Lacépède*, and particularly to the class *Coryphœna chrysurus*. It measures 6 inches and 6 lines, by 3 inches and 2 lines. No conjecture is hazarded respecting this fact.

Notes on the fructification of a Jamrosade in the Conservatories of the National Garden of Plants. By M. Andre Thouin.—This fruit-tree is the *Eugenia jambos* Lin. called in the East Indies, *Jambos*, and in the European colonies, *Rose-apple*. The variety, of which a particular account is here given, is styled by Rumphius, *jambosa sylvestris alba*. The fruit of this plant is commonly about the size of a medlar, and resembles it in shape; its taste is slightly acid, having a sweet smell, like that of a rose, from which circumstance it has obtained the name of the Rose-apple. Hopes are conceived that this beautiful tree, though a native of the Indies, will in time be naturalized in the southern departments of the Var and the Maritime Alps, and in the island of Corsica.

Description of the Nymphæa cœrulea. By M. Julius Cæsar Savigny, of the Egyptian Institute. As this plant nearly resembles the *Nymphæa lotus* Lin. they are thus discriminated:

N. L. *foliis dentatis, antheris apice simplicibus.*

N. Cœrulea—*foliis repandis, antheris apice subulato-petaloideis.*

Observations on the Lotus of Egypt. By M. Alire Raffeneau Delile, of the Egyptian Institute.—As a supplement to the preceding memoir, this paper observes that the *Nymphæa cœrulea* and *Nymphæa lotus* are both painted and sculptured on the Egyptian monuments; and that what is called the Lilly Rose of the Nile, or bean of Egypt, frequently sculptured in the symbolical pictures in the Egyptian temples, does not grow now in Egypt, but has been found in the Indies, and to which Linné has given the name of *Nymphæa nelumbo*. Many particulars, from antient authors, and from his own observations, are added by M. Delile, relative to the different species of Egyptian Lotus.

Memoir on the comparative Anatomy of the electrical Organs of the Raïa Torpedo, of the Gymnotus Electricus, and of the Silurus Elec-

Electricus. By M. E. Geoffroy. These anatomical details, which are illustrated by a plate, are too long for us to copy: but the result of the whole is, that all these animals have nerves which lose themselves beneath the skin; and that, immediately under it, they are all provided with a cellular tissue, and thus obtain something of the power of the electrical machine.

Extract of a Memoir by M. Decandolle on the genus Strophanthus. By M. Desfontaines.—Four species are here enumerated under this genus, viz. *Strophanthus sarmentosus*;—*S. laurifolius*;—*S. dichotomus*;—and *S. hispidus*.

No. 6, begins with *Chemical Researches into the Pollen or fecundating powder of the Egyptian Date-tree, (Phœnix dactylifera)*. By M. A. Fourcroy.—This powder falls in such quantities from the *antheræ*, that to a person standing at some distance at sun-rise, the date trees appear in a cloud. That which is the subject of this long paper was collected by M. *Delile* when in Egypt with the French army; and after a minute analysis, this pollen or fecundating dust is reported to contain, 1, a considerable quantity of malic acid completely formed, which may be separated by cold water; 2, Phosphate of lime and magnesia; 3, an animal matter which is soluble in water by the help of an acid; and which, being precipitated by an infusion of gall-nuts, evinces itself to be a sort of gelatine; 4, a powdery substance which seems to gather up the preceding bodies, indissoluble in water, capable of yielding some ammonia, and of being converted into ammoniacal soap by putrefaction, or by the fixed alkali, and which in consequence of these properties appears to bear some analogy to glutinous matter, or dry albumen. Some curious remarks are subjoined, on the similarity of the seminal substance in plants and animals.

Memoir on two new varieties of Sulphate of Iron. By M. Haüy.—This memoir requires the plate which accompanies it for its explanation; we therefore merely transcribe the title.

Description of the Mines of Turffa in the environs of Bruhl and Liblar, known under the improper denomination of the Mine of the earth of Umber, or the brown earth of Cologn. By M. Faujas St. Fond.—A visit to the mines of Bruhl and Liblar enabled this naturalist to give the true history of the pigment which they produce, and to discriminate between it and other substances which pass under the general name of the umber earth of Cologn. The substance obtained from these mines is called *Turffa*, by the Germans; a word signifying turf or peat, and thus expressing its nature; for on examination it appears to be *earthified* wood, or wood dissolved by mineral vapours and subterraneous water. It not only resembles rotten tan, but occasionally fragments of charcoal are found blended with it.

In

In the mine of Liblar, vegetable productions are found, which belong to the warm climates of the East; particularly fruit which grows on some of the trees of the Palm, and also the fragment of a stag's horn.

We can only add that the remainder of this number (which finishes Vol. 1.) contains *A Memoir on the Tabicinella*, by M. LAMARCK; *Notice on the Balanus*, by M. L. DUFRESNE; and *a Memoir on the Genus Tritonia, with the description and anatomy of the new species of Tritonia Hombergii*, by M. G. CUVIER. The anatomical descriptions are illustrated by two plates.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. X. *Statistique Générale & Particulière de la France, & de ses Colonies, &c. i. e.* The General and Particular Statistics of France, and of its Colonies, with a new Topographical, Physical, Agricultural, Political, Manufactural, and Commercial description of that State. Compiled by a Society of Men of Letters; and published by M. HERBIN, employed by the Ministry, &c. &c. 8vo. 7 Vols. With an Atlas in 4to. containing several Maps, Charts, and Tables. Paris, 1803. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 4*l.* 4*s.*

FRANCE has been of late so much an object of attention, its copious journals (while its press was free) were in such general circulation, and during the short interval of peace such multitudes visited it, that we must not wonder if, in this voluminous publication, the intelligent reader does not meet with many important facts that are new to him. Yet the account given in the preliminary discourse, of the sources whence the matter of these volumes was drawn, would lead us to conclude that, if judgment were not wanting, and if due diligence were practised, the work must be tolerably complete. The compilers, however, display so much of the characteristic vanity of the nation, and so much of the jealousy which was heretofore almost confined to the court, but which seems to be fast naturalizing itself among the people, that they greatly derogate from the dignity of the undertaking, and must materially shake the confidence in it of every man who does not share in their prejudices, nor relish the delusion in which they so fondly indulge. Our Gallic neighbours are so closely wrapt up in the physical felicities, the intellectual attainments, and the political consideration, which they conceive to distinguish their country, that, like a great Asiatic nation, they think that it is beneath them to make themselves acquainted with the concerns of other countries. Will it be credited that the person, who takes the lead in a performance which makes such pretensions

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as the present, says that the best information relative to the Statistics of Great Britain is to be found in Guthrie; of whose work he gives an account, observing that in this publication, as in those of other English authors, much confusion is to be discerned! We take leave to inform M. HERBIN, that, of all those who study the Statistics of this country, we believe not one ever looked into Guthrie; whose book is not recognized by men of science, though it may be a subject of lucrative traffic between booksellers and inferior schoolmasters. We could not read this passage in the present publication, without being reminded of the statement said to be made in a Chinese elemental treatise of geography, describing Europe as a country in which there is a large river, with a remarkable bridge across it!—This same French writer, also, in enumerating the eminent statistical authors of Europe, allots not one to Britain, and generously gives its Halley to the Germans. To him the discussions of heads of statistics, (to say nothing of Davenant, and earlier writers,) which occur in the volumes of Hume, Stuart, Smith, Price, and others,—in the Reports of counties published under the direction of the Agricultural Society,—in County Histories,—in numerous agricultural tracts, of various titles, and descriptions,—in tours and similar publications,—in the admirable work of Campbell,—in the extensive collection for the appearance of which the public are indebted to the zeal and exertions of Sir John Sinclair,—and in various obscure volumes,—are as if they never had existed; and according to him the British scholar and statesman has no source from which to derive information of this kind, superior to Guthrie! One complete View of the Statistics of the British empire is, we admit, a desideratum, and an important one, in our literature. Few countries, we believe, furnish more abundant materials for such an interesting undertaking; and we trust that, whenever it is executed, it will prove not more 'confused' than the one before us, and that it will be more modest and more authentic. Imperfections and deformities it will have to proclaim: but the authors, if animated by a British spirit, will not shrink from acknowleging them, aware that the glory of this great empire will be best consulted by a display of the whole truth.

The editor informs us that, being employed with others under the consular government, by the Senator *Abrial*, (then minister of justice,) to fix the limits of the jurisdiction of justices of the peace, he had an opportunity of perusing the correspondence of the prefects, sub-prefects, justices of the peace, mayors, and others, and also communications of various kinds addressed to the minister, and to the council of state on subjects of statistics; and that he obtained leave to transcribe from

from them into his volumes whatever matter he thought it proper to extract. We understand him also to say that he was allowed to peruse all the memoirs on the statistics of their departments, which the prefects were charged to transmit to government: but of the above memoirs, not above twenty have been committed to the press, and we are told that it is not intended to submit any more of them to the public. We think that the conjectures of Mr. Malthus, respecting this resolution of the government, as stated in his valuable publication *, are better founded than those of the author of this Preliminary Discourse. Mr. M. supposes that the memoirs in question disclose facts relative to population, the state of society, the condition of the subjects, and the effects of the revolution, which are not palatable to the new rulers; and that on this account it was decreed that they should not see the light.

The heads of the present work consist of

1. The antient divisions of France, civil, military, financial, and ecclesiastical; and the new divisions stated as they stand in relation to the old.

2. Of the superficies and extent, as well of the territory as of the national forests, whether belonging to communities or to individuals, in each department, together with the old and new admeasurements.

3. Of the climate, the nature of the soil, the state of agriculture, and the productions, vegetable, animal, and mineral.

4. Of the population, both the old and the new, and of its relations to the territory, to the sexes, to births, and to deaths; with tables of longevity.

5. Of industry, manufactures, the state of commerce in regard to imports and exports, and of commercial and political diplomacy.

6. Of the new system of money, weights, and measures, compared with the old.

7. Of the principal roads; of internal and foreign navigation; and of the course of rivers and canals.

8. Of public instruction, the sciences, belles lettres, arts, and monuments, public buildings, and mineral waters.

9. Of the existing form of government; of the administrative, financial, judicial, military, maritime, and forest systems.

10. Of the revenues, contributions, and taxes, as levied in each department.

11. Of the character, manners, and religion; and of the forces by sea and land.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. Vols. xlii. p. 337. & xliii. p. 56.

12. Of

12. Of the political, agricultural, and commercial state of each of the colonies and possessions of France in both the Indies, in Africa, &c.

The volumes are also furnished with a great number of tables; which present, under one view, all the antient and new geographical divisions, military, ecclesiastical, &c. the internal and external commerce, the situations, number, and produce of the mines, founderies, salt-works, naval and military force, &c.

The Atlas contains nineteen tables, and nine large coloured maps of France, with its various internal navigations; and its colonies and establishments in different parts of the globe.

It is justly observed in the preliminary discourse, that, till lately, nothing was more vague than the conjectures of authors on the subject of population. Diodorus Siculus, in the time of Cæsar, states that the number of men at that epoch was greatly diminished. Strabo, during the reigns of Augustus and Tiberius, attests the immense losses of humanity. Even Montesquieu asserts that the population of the earth is not more than a thirtieth of what it had been. Vulau makes the population of France, in the time of Cæsar, to have been 32 millions, while others have raised it to 37, and some to 48 millions. Machiavel's fears made him speak of French armies, consisting of 25 or 30,000 men, as of a deluge of barbarians. Puffendorf estimates the population of France, under Charles IX, at about 20 millions. Vossius, in 1685, sets it down at 5 millions! A computation formed at the close of the 17th century makes it to be 19 millions. About 50 years ago, it was usually stated by authors at from 15 to 16 millions. The calculation of M. Necker, and those which have been made subsequently, are well known. The statements recently published assert that the population of France, and of the territories lately united to it, amounts to the immense number of nearly 35 millions. If this writer justly animadverts on the indeterminate notions so long prevalent respecting the degree of population, were he to read the work of Mr. Malthus on that subject, and could he command the patience necessary to master its details, he would be sensible that to this very moment there prevails an equally surprising ignorance concerning its principle, and the causes which limit its operation. In our review of Mr. Malthus's book, we had occasion to advert to the principal facts and leading conclusions which relate to the same subject in these volumes.

Writing during the period of the late pretended peace, the author tells us that he deemed it his duty to draw a picture of the

the former possessions of France in India; in the hope, he says, that one day they will be restored to their antient owner, and that a more just partition of those countries will be made between the French and British governments!

We were not a little surprised to find that our disdainful neighbours, who have been taught by their foreign chief that we devoted islanders are fit only to be swept away from the face of the earth, should condescend to adopt the classification of the different species of their soil, made by one of our countrymen, Mr. Arthur Young, in the course of his tours in France.

Speaking of the agriculture of France, the author observes that it is the only country which yields the produce both of the South and the North of Europe. If the Spanish method, he says, were practised in managing the vines of Roussillon, they would afford wine in no respect inferior to that of Rota and Malaga. Silk worms flourish, he tells us, in the southern provinces, as well as in Italy. The oil of Aix, we are told, has the preference over those of Genoa and Sicily. In the North, are to be seen pastures as rich as any of which more northerly climates can boast. The cider of Normandy yields not to that which is produced where the vine cannot live; nor is the beer of Flanders inferior to the so much boasted porter of the English. Alas, this has ceased to afford any subject of boast! It surely cannot be below the dignity of the legislature to consult the health of the commonalty, and to see that a beverage so universal is made of the lawful materials!—He considers the territory of France as subject, according to its portion, to three different climates; and he shews the correctness of these divisions by refering to the difference in the wines which they severally yield. In the south, the returns of the vine are almost always certain; and its juice has the strength which the vertical sun alone can give. The wines of the centre, those of Burgundy and Champagne, do not in an equal degree warm the stomach and affect the head: but they have a peculiar briskness, and are extremely agreeable to the taste, though the effect of them is transient. The produce is also uncertain; since it is only on favoured spots that the more excellent sort is procured. The wines of the North are potable, but are only esteemed in countries which do not furnish that article.

Under the head of commerce, we are told that in 1787 the exports of France amounted to upwards of 22½ millions sterling, while its imports rose to nearly 25½ millions.

In treating of diplomacy, the writer very justly remarks that this science, so intricate and complicated, is of modern origin, and takes its rise from the particular constitution of the European community; which consists of a variety of states of

more

more or less extent, having different alliances and commercial relations.

'France, situated between three great powers, Spain, England, and the Empire, has more occasion than any other state to attend to external policy, in order to defend the interest of its own commerce, and that of its allies; so as to avoid war, which proves the ruin of the one, and may deprive it of the benefit of the other. Our minister of *foreign relations*, and those who act under him, ought to possess a clear knowlege of the states which surround us, of their forces, their interests, their alliances and their views, their commercial relations, the produce of their soil, and the objects of their traffic.'

The colonial system, he observes, after *Hauterive*, which blends itself with the commercial, has changed the basis of political negotiations in all countries.

France sends ambassadors only to the Holy See, the Emperor, Great Britain, Russia, Spain, Portugal, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, and the Sublime Porte; to other courts, she dispatches Envoys or Residents.

The commissaries of external relations, we are informed, always have had, and still exercise, greater authority in the Levant and in Barbary, than is allowed to persons of the same class in the ports of Europe and America. France entertains a great number of these commissaries; and it is now pretty well known what her object is in so doing.

'In casting our eyes over the vast machinery of the French military force, it is impossible not to notice the appropriation of civil edifices, archiepiscopal and episcopal palaces, and religious houses, to the use of the great officers and administrators of the cohorts of the legion of honor. The *philosophes*, when they laboured to abolish the religious establishment, did not foresee that the consequence of their success would be an increase of the military: yet the structure of this legion alone furnishes a manifest and standing proof of the bent of its institutor towards perpetual war, and universal conquest. The peace establishment of the land forces of France, including infantry, cavalry, artillery, the corps of miners, the gendarmerie, the consular guard, the national veterans, and the legion of honor, amounts to upwards of six hundred thousand men. We learn here that it has been lately discovered in that country that, in the present state of the art of war, a militia is useless; that a standing army is necessary to preserve good order at home, and to make a nation respected abroad; that this force is the completion of the edifice of the constitution; that united they form one solid unshaken whole; and that on the above force must depend the establishment and permanence of a good constitution, and the happiness of a nation.

tion. France, it is added, is so surrounded by powerful states, that peace can only be regarded as a suspension of war; and any diminution of its army must be highly impolitic.—It would seem, then, that one of the chief practical benefits, derived from the French revolution, has been the universal increase of the standing military force of empires.

M. PEUCHET, who composed that part of this work which treats of the French colonies, speaking of St. Domingo, remarks that his countrymen first settled there in 1630, having been driven from St. Christopher's. They were a set of adventurers, who visited the island in order to hunt the cattle with which it abounded, and who also employed themselves in piratical undertakings. They belonged to that class of robbers by sea and land called Buccaneers, who at this period infested the American seas and shores. A governor, of great talents and virtues, named *Degeron*, induced this unruly race to inure themselves to habits of order and industry; and under his auspices the land began to be cleared, and the sugar cane and cocoa nut to be planted. The colony languished, however, till 1722; when certain restrictions on its trade being removed, it gradually rose to that high prosperity in which the late revolution found it. Innovating experiments must be admitted to have succeded ill in France: but, compared with their fate in St. Domingo, they may be said to have fully answered; and set against the calamities with which speculators have caused that colony to be visited, the horrors to which they have given rise in the mother country are mere *bagatelles*. Under what thraldom must the mind labour in France, when this sensible writer goes out of his way to state that Europe, as well as his own country, has applauded the firmness and moderation which marked the conduct of General *Le Clerc* in St. Domingo!

It is here represented, on the authority of *Barbé Marbois*, intendant of St. Domingo before the revolution, that in 1788 the French portion of this island contained 792 plantations of the sugar cane, 2810 of coffee, 705 of cotton, 3097 of indigo, and 69 of the cocoa nut; that the land capable of cultivation amounted to 567 square leagues, the whole territory measuring 1700, the negroe population to upwards of 405 thousand, and the white to not more than about 28 thousand, and that to these were to be added nearly 22 thousand enfranchised persons. It is also related, on the same respectable testimony, that at the same period were exported from the colony upwards of 275 millions of pounds of merchandise, which were estimated at more than five and a-half millions sterling; while it

it imported from the mother-country produce and manufactures to the value of more than two millions.

The part, which till lately belonged to Spain, is nearly twice the extent of the French; and its population was computed at 125 thousand, of which 15 thousand only were slaves. This colony, it is here said, was in the utmost state of declension, with scarcely any plantations on it; and the few that remained yielded but very scanty produce. These statements are taken from the work of a M. *Lyonnet*, and their accuracy may very justly be questioned. Having, as it were, robbed Spain of this settlement, the French may wish to represent their pillage as of little value to the lawful owner. Yet it must be admitted, on the other hand, that an assertion of the extreme decline of a Spanish colony is not *primâ facie* improbable. We only intimate that, before complete assent should be given, less suspicious testimony ought to be required.—The pillage committed by France on Spain has prospered less in its hands, than any of its other robberies. It has been forced to alienate Louisiana to the United States of North America, and the negroes have ravished from it the whole of St. Domingo. Were it not that the possession of the latter place by the French must have imminently endangered our West Indian property, we should perhaps have regretted that they had been prevented from making colonial acquisitions; since these must have increased the number and influence of commercial men in France, and thus have created among that restless people a powerful, commanding interest, which would have opposed war, and supported peace.

The island of Cayenne was occupied by the French about 1635. Certain merchants of Rouen attempted to form a colony there nearly at that period, and frequent ineffectual endeavours have been since made with the same view. The lamentable result of the ill-judged project of 1763 is well known: nevertheless, in 1788 the colony contained a population of about 12 thousand people, (of whom about 15 hundred only were whites,) and yielded to the mother-country a considerable quantity of tropical produce. By the treaty of Amiens, the southern boundary of the French colony has been extended to the Arouari, and a line drawn from its source to Rio-Bianco. North of Cayenne is situated the settlement of Sinnamari, whither the execrable Directory transported some of the best members of the two councils, to perish in an unwholesome atmosphere, and to starve from want of the necessaries of life.

Louisiana was discovered by the Spaniards, but they did not value it, and left it open to other occupiers. It was visited and occupied by the French in 1673; and ten years afterward they

they began to establish settlements in it. Little aware of the short duration of the tenure, the author exults very much in the acquisition which his government had thus lately made; and gives a very flattering picture of it. The climate, he says, though from the extent of territory various, is on the whole temperate; and that of the southern region, though it be in the same latitude with the hottest countries of Africa, is by no means subject to intolerable heat. New Orleans, which is under the same degree of latitude with the northern parts of Barbary, is of the same temperature with the south of France. Two degrees higher, where the country is more elevated, the climate is far more gentle than it is in the capital. Scarcely a day passes in which the sun is not visible at Louisiana. It never rains but in a storm, and then during the winter only: but the dew is abundant, and supplies the place of rain. The air is very salubrious, the blood is in general in a pure state; illness in the prime of life is rare; and men live to a great age. In Lower Louisiana, vegetation is most luxuriant; the grass is a foot and a half high, and in some vales grows to the height of a man's stature. It is customary to set fire to it about the end of September, and in seven or eight days it is replaced by new herbage, which fattens cattle very rapidly. The soil produces all that can render life agreeable. It presents every thing capable of rendering it a flourishing colony, and lucrative to the mother-country. A more happy destiny, however, awaited this fine portion of the globe; and it has been incorporated with a powerful rising state, to which it is contiguous. The causes which have decided its recent fortune may very probably contribute to swell its population.

The French are here said to have had settlements on the African coast from a very early period, in order to enable them to traffic with the natives for gum, gold dust, elephant's teeth, and, in later times, for negroes.

The gum trade is very profitable; that which is brought from the Levant does not supply a fifth of the consumption of Europe, and the rest is furnished by these establishments on the Senegal. The gum distils from trees, of which there are large forests north of that river; and the great bulk of it is derived from three, namely, the forests of Sahel, Eliebar, and Alfactak: which are severally in the possession of three independent Moorish tribes, originally Arabs, who still speak the Arabic tongue, and who subsist by pasturage, and the produce of their forests;—these tribes are named those of Trarzas, of Aulade-el-Hagi, and of Ebrequana. The Moors bring the gum in skins in the months of April and May to the markets of Desert and Podor, establishments on the Senegal, whither

the European dealer resorts, and trades for them with brandy, linen, hard-ware, and glass articles. The universal circulating medium on this river consists of bars of iron from 15 to 16 pounds weight, which are valued at five livres. The Moors sell the gum by the quantar, averaging about 2200 pounds, and for about 1320 livres; which when landed in France sells at two livres a pound, or an advance above the original price of 3080 livres.

France, before the revolution, imported from this coast to its colonies about 30 thousand slaves, which sold for little short of 44 millions of livres; besides gum and other articles which produced nearly two millions more. Its exports to Africa exceeded 16 millions. This commerce employed 105 vessels, amounting to more than 35,000 tons.

One hundred and sixty leagues up the Senegal, the French have a factory at Galam, which is in the country of the Mandingos, who dwell on the southern bank of the river. Commerce is their principal occupation; they form caravans which frequent the interior of Africa, bearing thither European merchandise, and bringing back in return slaves, gold dust, and elephant's teeth, for the supply of the English factories on the banks of the Gambia; the trade of which river was guaranteed to the English by the treaty of Versailles. The relation of these facts is followed by a curious statement, which shews the prodigious superiority of the commerce of the English in these regions over that of the French; the latter, we are told, disdain to share in a rich commerce in countries which may be reckoned among the most beautiful, the most agreeable, the most interesting, and the most advantageous of Western Africa!

The cultivation of the vine in the southern provinces of France rendering it necessary annually to import corn, the French government, in order to insure a preference in the market of Algiers, has been always solicitous to cultivate a good understanding with the ruling powers of that country. The trade thither is intrusted to a company, whose engagements are guaranteed by the state; and the French are allowed, on certain terms, the possession of three of the ports belonging to the Dey, for the convenience of shipping the corn which they buy, and also for the coral fishery. The author is very anxious to render consistent with the dignity of the great nation, the acknowlegements which it is obliged to make for these advantages.

An account of the settlement at the Cape of Good Hope is inserted; because, the writer says, France, by the treaty of Amiens, has a right to put into that port, and to purchase provisions

provisions in it, on paying the same duties as the Dutch themselves. The true reason, however, of his thus distinguishing it doubtless was that he regards this settlement as only nominally belonging to Holland, and as in fact completely subject to France.

In adverting to the eastern coast of Africa, we find some notice of the early settlements there of the Portuguese, and of their decline; that nation now retaining but a very few places, which its ships seldom visit, except a small number, in order to purchase slaves: the English and Dutch also frequent these parts with the same view. The author observes, that no nation can so conveniently manage the dealing in negroes at Mosambique as the French, on account of the vicinity of that place to the isles of France and Bourbon. Instead, however, of availing themselves of their advantages, his countrymen purchase their negroes for the above-mentioned adjacent isles, and for their West Indian plantations, from the Portuguese; and, instead of procuring gold, which they might obtain in the neighbouring ports, they convey that precious metal from the mother country to pay for their slaves. This is one of several instances furnished in the present work, which shew that the French are inferior to their neighbours in commerce; and that even where the field is open to them, and no opposition is made to their exertions, trade in their hands does not thrive and increase. These facts might convince them that the low state of their traffic is not caused by the jealousy or naval oppression of England. Were England to be destroyed, the trade of France, in common with that of the world, would only suffer by it; and if trade should afterward revive, it would be some other nation, and not the French, (if they continued to be constituted and governed as they now are,) which would succeed to commercial ascendancy.

France has no permanent settlement at Madagascar, but the writer strongly recommends the establishment of one at the port of Louques; as well to prevent the mischiefs which might arise to the neighbouring French islands, were any other nation to take possession of it, as for the substantial benefits which the same islands would derive from the measure.

The island of Bourbon, now called Reunion, is very fertile in corn. Its coffee is inferior only to that of Moka: but since coffee has been cultivated at Martinique and St. Domingo, this branch of its commerce has been on the decline. Its population consists of about 6 thousand whites, and 26 thousand negroes. The isle of France is less fertile, but more susceptible of cultivation, than that of Bourbon;—it yields the same

kind of produce. Its population in whites and negroes is about half that of its sister island*.

On the coast of Malabar, France has only one port, that of Mahe, which is very commodious: but it stands isolated, and is surrounded by the British conquests from Tippoo. On the side of Coromandel, she has Pondicherry, Karikal, and Chandernagor: but she is without any territory in the vast extent of India, and she holds the above places only for the convenience of a trade which she must owe to the sufferance of England. It is true, however, as is here asserted, that though the latter state has the power of preventing any other people from sharing in this commerce, yet policy enjoins it on her to respect the commercial establishments of other European nations, and to preserve to them the factories and privileges granted by the original sovereigns of the country. It is only in the prospect of a war that it exercises its extreme rights, and in tranquil times its tolerance is sure to be experienced, since it is the cause of introducing abundance of specie into its possessions: it is its interest to encourage the trade of other nations with the natives: but it will not allow them to fortify themselves in the country, or to acquire territory. The author's reflections on this state of things are more in a spirit of moderation and good sense, than is very usual with him or his countrymen when Great Britain is the subject.—An extremely able, but passionate memoir, whenever England is introduced, by *M. Brière de Surgy*, on the topic of the India trade, concludes this part of the work. That writer shews that this trade is in itself a losing concern; and that the companies which have flourished have owed their prosperity to other causes than to commerce; as the English to its territory, and the Dutch to its monopoly of spices. The French company, during the forty years of its existence, though for part of the time it possessed extensive territory and a lucrative monopoly, sunk 100 millions of livres; and he demonstrates that this trade is attended with great loss, not only to companies, but when left to private enterprize. From its very nature, however, individuals are not equal to it, since it requires vessels of 900 tons burthen, with a complement of 160 men; in which must be embarked a capital of more than a million and a half of livres, and from which no return can be obtained in less than three years. He then asks, 'are we to abandon this trade?' and answers decidedly in the negative.

* See a different account of the population of these islands from the Viscount de Vaux's History of the Mauritius, Rev. Vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 77.

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'Our taste and our necessities (he says) require the commodities of India. It is true, that they cost us in India five or six millions: but if we purchase them from the English, they will cost us twice as much; and thus we shall incur a double loss; we shall impoverish ourselves, and enrich our rivals. Policy also demands the continuance of this trade. Britain owes its ascendency in Europe to its great power in India; she thence derives the resources with which she engages neighbouring states to coincide in her views, and by whose aid she menaces the liberty of the continent. France cannot suffer England exclusively to navigate the seas of India; it cannot abandon its settlements, its forts, and factories there, by ceasing to make use of them. If it gives up India, it must also quit its islands on the coast of Africa, which are so important to it in time of war. It is by means of multiplied and permanent relations with India, that our commerce there will acquire solidity and extent. It is by this regular and continued intercourse, that we shall be able to gain a knowlege of and to consult the interests of the Indian princes, to follow the course and vicissitudes of their policy, to form advantageous connections with them, and to place ourselves in a situation *to profit by the chances of fortune, and to derive advantage from her inconstancy.*'

The plain meaning of this remark is, we presume, "by intrigues with the natives, let us undermine the power of Britain in India, and then we ourselves may succeed to the possession of it."

The next question which the author proposes is, how is this trade to be carried on? It is out of the reach of individual enterprize. Shall it then be made over to a chartered company? By no means, he replies. A new company would carry on the traffic at a still greater loss than the late one suffered. A company must appear in a manner consistent with the greatness of the state to which it belongs. 'Could it be endured,' he asks, 'that a French East India Company should be seen by the native powers to pay homage to the English Company, to receive the law from it, and to submit to such conditions as it should think proper to impose? Would they not conclude that the lot of France was equally humiliating in Europe? and would not the Indian tribute lead them to infer European superiority?' This idea animates the Frenchman to the highest rage. 'Rather,' says he, 'let us altogether renounce Indian merchandise than purchase it at the price of so much degradation! Rather let the trade perish for ever than have a Company which should not appear in Asia the equal of the English!' He advises, therefore, in order to avoid this most distressing humiliation of the Great Nation, that the commerce should be left to a voluntary association, which should receive the countenance and support of Government. In pursuance of this idea, he also proposes a scheme which appears extremely feasible, and which is, perhaps,

the best that France can adopt whenever a peace takes place. This association, he says, may treat, by its factors, with the native manufacturers, or with the English Company: but the latter mode he seems to think would be the most eligible, as tending to promote a good understanding between both nations, and as dispensing with some part of the disbursement of specie; because the English, continually wanting to make remittances to Europe, might accept of engagements in that quarter, in return for its commodities.

We have now made a copious selection from this vast mass, of such of those facts as appeared to us most worthy of attention. The writers, where they do not make sacrifices to the ruling passion of their civil and military chief, and where they are not swayed by national vanity, appear to execute their task not only fairly, but for the most part with ability. We do not charge them, in any instance, with wilful falsehoods, but we suspect them to be guilty of much concealment. If the Memoirs of the Prefects were not allowed to see the light, because they told unwelcome truths, the corresponding parts of this work would, doubtless, have undergone the same fate, had not the courtly authors suppressed, qualified, and glossed over their statements, so as to render them palatable in a certain quarter. We therefore cannot help apprehending that the production is liable to serious objections on the score of authenticity. Scarcely any of the ruinous effects of the revolution are noticed in these pages; while, if we credit other testimonies, the dilapidations with respect to roads, bridges, embankments, drainages, and the excavations under the metropolis, have been such as have produced very material consequences, and threaten others more destructive. Still, with any such imperfections, this will prove a compilation of great convenience and utility to Frenchmen generally, and to curious persons of other nations.

ART XI. *Histoire Comparée des Systèmes de Philosophie*, &c. *i. e.* A Comparative History of the Systems of Philosophy, relative to the Principles of human Knowlege. By J. M. DEGERANDO, Correspondent of the National Institute of France, &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. Paris, 804. Imported by De Boffe, London.

THE modest and unostentatious title of this publication is by no means proportionate to the importance of its objects, and to the difficulties of its execution. It was no easy task to give a faithful representation of the several philosophical opinions which have prevailed at different times; and that part of the world, which styles itself learned and scientific, is indebted, on

on this account, to the erudition and sagacity of Brucker. In these days of intellectual refinement and luxury, however, something more is required than mere register and record; something that may impart knowlege accompanied by criticism on its results, opinions with their comment, and systems with their analysis. Hence is the present work projected, and on a plan traced out by the masterly hand of Bacon; who describes a complete and universal literary history, of which the object should be to represent the sciences and arts that have flourished in different times and places; to mark their antiquity, their progress, their emigration, with the epochs of their decline and restoration: to specify, with reference to each science and art, the occasion and the origin of its invention: to state what discipline and what rules have been observed in transmitting them, and what methods have been created for their cultivation: to recall the principal sects which have divided the learned and literary world, the most celebrated controversies that have been agitated, the calumnies to which the sciences have been exposed, the praises and distinctions with which they have been honoured; and to enumerate the principal authors, the best books of each kind, the schools and literary establishments, &c.

This is part only of the comprehensive plan suggested by Bacon; and to execute the design properly would demand, as M. DEGERANDO justly observes, acquirements and a genius equal to those of Bacon himself. Something, however, may be accomplished, which, though short of perfection, may yet be very useful and instructive; and if the great chain which binds together the whole series of human thoughts cannot be completed, some links may be put together. In the vast combination of effects and causes presented by the revolutions of Arts and Sciences, some general law may perhaps be observed and detached; which, connecting itself with the principles of these revolutions, may place itself in the rank of the essential elements of the system, may simplify its study, and guide us in the immense researches which it requires.

The faithful representation of each celebrated philosophical system forms one part of the author's duty: but a part which, if it be the most laborious, is neither the most difficult, nor the most useful. The other portion consists in a critical view and examination of each system; in the disengagement of its essential points of doctrine; in connecting those points with certain fundamental questions; and in shewing how, with those fundamental questions, certain opinions relative to secondary questions were necessarily connected.

If

'If there be in philosophy, (says M. DEGERANDO,) a small number of principal questions, which, placed at the origin of all others, ought to exercise on these a natural influence, and which furnish the ultimate data necessary for their solution: if the opinions which philosophers have formed with regard to this small number of primary questions ought to determine, by a secret or sensible consequence, the entire series of their opinions in fixing the direction of their ideas; if these fundamental questions, I say, can be recognized, enumerated, and clearly defined, we shall have a simple and sure method of marking, in a general manner, the first conditions and the essential characters of each doctrine; we shall be able to seize the terms which compose one of the most essential laws of the intellectual world. Then, by comparing together the different elements of the same particular philosophical doctrine, in order to detach those which belong to essential questions; and in order to observe the relations which they hold, one with another, and with all subordinate ideas; we shall, in some sort, obtain the key of that doctrine, and the connecting chain of its parts. We shall be able to resume it more easily, to judge concerning it more surely, and almost to identify it with the spirit which gave it birth.

'Then, by thus comparing the different philosophical doctrines under the point of view which we have stated, we shall have a kind of natural method for their classification: a classification of which the characters are taken in the very germ and in the roots of each, and of which the signs would be very simple and truly generic. The same method, which served to define each system, would also serve to mark its place in the nomenclature, and to determine its relations with all the others.'

M. DEGERANDO considers the history of philosophy as divided into five periods; the commencement of each period being characteristically marked by an entire change in the course of ideas, by the appearance of extraordinary men, and by the foundation of new schools. The first period is fixed at the age of Solon, 600 years before our æra; the second, at the age of Socrates; the third, at that of the Cæsars; the progress of the Arabs under the Califs, and the restoration of learning under Charlemagne and Alfred, constitute the fourth period; and the fifth and last period is marked by the invention of printing, the discovery of America, the reformation of Luther, the fall of the old edifice of scholastic philosophy, the erection of the new systems of physics and astronomy, &c.—The author thus neatly characterizes the several periods:

'During the first of them, the principles of human knowlege were sought in the nature of things, and in their primitive elements. This object could be obtained only by hypothesis, and hypothesis therefore prevailed.

'In the second period, these principles were sought in the *very nature* of sciences: the human mind looked inwards on itself; and meditation presided at the formation of theories.

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'In the third period, the source of human knowlege was sought in illumination and extasy; and being the offspring of a contemplative enthusiasm, the systems bore all its characters.

'During the fourth period, this source was sought in axioms, in general notions, and in formulas that express their relations. A subtle logic and abstract combinations are the inevitable result of this manner of proceeding.

'In the fifth period, principles drawn both from observation and reflection are at length assigned to human knowlege. To the study of the faculties of the human mind, the processes of experience are applied, and philosophy becomes the art of methods.'

For the sake of clearness, these periods must be broken into many smaller divisions.

The true point of separation, at which commences the divergency of sects, M. DEGERANDO ascribes to the original struggle between experience and reasoning, between sense and reflection, between facts and their principles, between instinct and speculation, between the ideas of man and the testimony of nature. The divergency then always commences precisely at the diversity of the systems adopted relatively to the principles of human knowlege. Thus, the philosophers of the schools of Ionia and Italy endeavoured to explain nature: the former sought for explanation in objects submitted to their view: the latter, in the combination of what ought necessarily to happen;—the former, partially viewing things, explained all phænomena by a few, and hence naturally embraced the hypothesis of transformation: the latter moulded nature according to their conceptions, and thence naturally embraced the hypothesis of composition.

In the second chapter, the author treats of the historians of philosophy, and minutely lays down the qualifications (the rare qualifications) which an historian of philosophy ought to possess. He moreover states, and illustrates by instances, the nice and curious attention which must be paid to the meaning of words, since different philosophers do not attach the same idea to the same word; and hence, to a superficial or inattentive observer, the peculiar spirit and character of a doctrine might be entirely lost.

The third chapter is allotted to the origin of philosophy; and the fourth to the first period, the doctrines of Pythagoras and Heraclitus. It is certainly difficult, as the author remarks, to ascertain what are precisely the doctrines of Pythagoras, and what is the signification which that philosopher meant to be attached to the term αριθμος, in his system, the principle of things.

In continuing through the fifth chapter the account of the first period, the author notices Parmenides, and an equivoque of that philosopher, which was the cause of much metaphysical confusion and perplexity; 'But,

'But how could reason, with its ideas alone, and from the bosom of the abstractions to which Parmenides had banished it, pronounce on the existence, and on the reality of things? After this manner: every thing that the understanding conceives, says Parmenides, *is* something: what is something, is real; that which is nothing cannot be conceived. Here may be clearly discerned, and for the first time, on the acceptation of the word *être*, an equivoque which, frequently repeated, has caused almost all the errors of metaphysics: an equivoque which confounds the employment of that word in the identical propositions of rational logic, with the value which it takes in expressing real existence.—Departing from this principle,—*what is, is*,—Parmenides easily established that every thing, which is, is identical; and thence he soon inferred by forms of reasoning sufficiently rigorous, the eternity, the immutability, and the immensity of the one (*unique*) substance.'

In his account of Plato, M. DEGERANDO gives considerable extracts from his works; and here, as in many other instances, the author's labours tend to correct that want of reverence, which the discovery of some physical truths, and the detection of certain sophisms and frivolities, has caused too generally and unwarrantably to prevail, with regard to the Philosophers of Antiquity.

The character of Aristotle's metaphysics is ably delineated:

'Here we find ourselves on the confines of metaphysics, and we may take a glimpse of the view under which that science must have offered itself to our philosopher. Here, besides he was surrounded by all the systems of his contemporaries, and, inclosed in a circle of general ideas, he found himself less able to make a defence against the influence of these systems. To discover the inutility of the greater part of these questions, to perceive how his science,—of all sciences the most abstract,—could be attached to observation, an independence of genius, an energy of conception, and a courage, would have been necessary, which were unknown to Aristotle. Here, then, he entered into the common route; he assimilated the generation of things to the connection of arguments; and he confounded the great and the mysterious fact of existence, with the judgment formed by man concerning it. He supposed that the *general*, the *universal*, in the order of certainty, is placed before the particular; he supposed that the highest abstractions of the mind are also the first origin of realities; and he gave a real value of existence to those simple logical laws which had been established for thought;—definitions appeared to him to explain the very nature of things. He hoped to penetrate the essence of Beings, and to discover what they are in themselves: he seemed to make them the object of science. In a word, taking in some degree, as so many primitive elements of beings, the elements of his own conceptions, he passed suddenly, and without perceiving it, from regions simply ideal into the territory of positive things.'

The

The present volumes have been so lately delivered to us, that we have been unable to peruse and digest the whole of them; and it is obvious that they do not treat on subjects of easy and common apprehension. We must therefore postpone the farther consideration of them, and our final judgment, to another opportunity: only adding that we have for the present had enough to exercise our understanding, and that there remains abundance to excite curiosity, and to impel us to farther researches.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. XII. *Histoire de France depuis la Revolution de* 1789, &c.; *i. e.* A History of France from the Revolution of 1789, written according to contemporary Memoirs and Manuscripts, collected in the Civil and Military Offices. By E. EMMANUEL TOULONGEON, late a Military Officer, Ex-constituent, and Member of the National Institute of France. With Maps and Plans. Vols. iii, and iv. 8vo. Paris, 1803. Imported by de Boffe. Price 18s.

SINCE we have noticed all the more considerable histories of the Revolution which have issued from the Paris press, we feel it incumbent on us to apprize our readers of the appearance of the present narrative, and to submit to them a short account of its plan and character, though the former volumes escaped us. Those which are now before us, however, will supply materials amply sufficient for this purpose.

The author appears to have been a partisan of the Gironde: but we do not object to him on this account, because we should be glad to see historians furnished by each faction; such being the means by which the whole truth will the soonest and most completely be obtained. We should peruse with attention narratives from the pens of *Carnot*, the colleague of *Robespierre*, or the insidious *Barrere*, or the bloody *Tallien*, or the ferocious *Fouche*. However disgraceful and offensive the scenes, or however detestable the actors, philosophy claims and posterity will expect faithful representations of them.

These volumes embrace the period which elapsed between the commencement of the terrific national convention, and the fall of *Robespierre*. We have just observed that the Brissotins, or the Gironde, are the author's favourites; and we have more than once remarked that this party fares better in the accounts of this stormy period than we think it deserves. It imposed on the minds of many, by the private worth of some of its partisans, by the literary consideration of others, by its specious professions, and by that decent character which distinguished most of the individuals who composed it. When the Girondists are pre-

sented as objects of panegyric, they are pointed out as the declaimers against the massacres of the prisons, as the opponents of the murder of Louis XVI, as the decided adversaries of the terrorists, as the victims of the 31st of May, and as the martyrs of liberty. In this representation, however, it is forgotten to contrast them with the respectable nobility and gentry, whose influence and exertions had restored their rights to the people of France; who had laboured—injudiciously and unsuccessfully, it is true, but—honestly and disinterestedly in establishing a free and limited government. It is not recollected that the early and unremitting efforts of these extolled Girondists were employed to discredit that honorable and patriotic class, to rob them of their influence, to render them suspected and odious in the eyes of the people, to deprive them of popular gratitude, (the cheap reward for their services and sacrifices,) and to take from the weakened crown its sole stay and support. It is not considered that, in their early sittings in the assembly called legislative, they united with the terrorists, who afterward hunted them down, to degrade the monarch, and to dilapidate that constitution which they had been assembled, and had sworn, to maintain. Did they simply connive at the outrages on the unhappy king? Were they not the instigators, the abettors, and protectors of them? Were they not privy to the disgusting outrages of the 20th of June? and did they not set on foot the horrors of the 10th of August? Did they not commence the dreadful revolutionary war? and did they not pass the decrees of banishment against the priests? It belongs not to our province to exhaust the catalogue of their delinquencies: but we should neglect the watch which we ought to keep over historical fidelity, if we did not protest against the narratives which hold them up as pure and immaculate patriots. The share of respect and esteem which we entertain for them, we own, is small. Raised by the chances of the revolution to stations to which they were not intitled, they display all the ambition, laxity of principle, and indifference as to means, of the highest born and most hackneied statesmen; to which they add the vices belonging to the obscure and confined spheres in which they had originally moved. If *Vergniaud* charms us by his eloquence, he offends us by his fanatacism and his violence; and if at length he becomes sensible to feelings of humanity and views of moderation, this happens when it is too late. The parade of information which *Brissot* affected inspires no confidence, and commands no respect. *Condorcet*'s cold and sophistical declamations did some credit to his genius, and displayed his high literary acquirements: but they shew as little of the politician as the dreams

of

of Plato, or the chimeras of the Utopia: he sunk himself, and he sinned against the public, when he deserted the academy, and quitted his cabinet. Madame *Roland* was the only *statesman* of all the party.

The reader will find that the body of the civil part of this history is inferior in merit to some which we have had occasion to notice; yet still it deserves to be perused, on account of numerous remarks interspersed through it, which are indicative of profound reflection, and of an understanding of a superior order. The circumstance, however, on which this history chiefly plumes itself, is the neat, concise, and luminous detail of the military events of the period; and from this part it derives its principal interest and value. Let us not be misunderstood; these relations of the operations of the war are by much too succinct to satisfy professional men; and when we commend them, we consider them as destined only for political and general readers.

Neighbouring countries, at the period at which these volumes commence, were most egregiously deceived respecting the state of public opinion (or rather feeling) in France. The emigrants had obtained the ear and the confidence of all the adjoining courts; and they had holden the language which presumption and hope dictated, rather than that which observation suggested, and which even their own conduct ratified. We have reason to know that the author is well founded in saying that the great mass of the population of France hailed the decree abolishing royalty, and declaring France a republic; that it was highly acceptable to the armies; and that it was approved with fewer exceptions in the departments than in the capital. The name of Republic, we are told, captivated the young, and those who fondly looked back to the glorious æras of Greece and Rome; while its general favourable reception induced a ready acquiescence on the part of persons of more foresight; and among the soldiery it called forth fresh military ardour.

Alluding to the tyranny and usurpation of the Commune of Paris at this time, M. TOULONGEON tells us, that the deputies entered on their functions with the most determined resolution to curtail its power, and to assert their own independence: but its authority, instead of being shaken, grew the stronger in consequence of that happening which frequently takes place in large assemblies, namely, an active minority getting the upper hand over the majority. Among those who displayed honourable intentions in the early sittings of the Convention, and who inveighed against the butcheries of September, figured the dreadful *Carrier*, whose subsequent atrocities

cities in the western departments have no parallels in the annals of Crime.

The factions of the Gironde and of *Robespierre* had resolved on a deadly warfare even before the Convention met. The crafty *Sieyes* proposed to the former, in the first instance, to declare void the election for Paris, as having been carried on under the dread of the hatchets of September. The party to whom this salutary counsel had been given considered numbers rather than the men, and, relying on its strength, did not adopt the measure; which is probably the reason why the ex-Abbé never closely connected himself with this faction. The reader will recollect that Paris had returned *Robespierre*, *Murat*, *Collot d'Herbois*, *Danton*, &c. These leaders and their partisans were fully aware of the hostile intentions entertained against them, by their sworn foes, and by the deputies of the departments in general; and it was accordingly the subject of deliberation among them, how to ward off the danger. Three propositions underwent consideration: 1. To prevent the deputies from assembling: 2. To break up the assembly when formed: 3. To permit it to go on, but to get the mastery over it. The latter was adopted, and, as the sequel shews, too well accomplished.—The author blames the Girondists for not attaching *Danton* to their party.

The succeeding observations on the Republican soldiery coincide with those which are remarked in the very able and sensible tract on *the Character of the several European Armies*, which we some time since recommended to public attention *. On the antient system of Europe, the writer says, as well in France as in other kingdoms, the plan was to render the private a passive being, using only his material faculties and his physical force; and the object of military discipline was to reduce him to a mere machine. The French never completely assimilated with this method, but acted on it much less perfectly than was done in Germany. The Revolution came; the pressure was withdrawn; the genius of this people, being allowed its full spring, discovered itself; intelligence was allowed its pre-eminence; and the individual in war became a Man.

'The French character (it is remarked) naturally and readily took to this mode; while in other nations the old habits are too strong, and, accustomed only to act by signals, they could not stir without them. Enlarged ideas, which double the intellectual and physical powers, increase by mutual communication; the intelligence of one soon served for all; and the most skilful in circumstances of difficulty

* See M. R. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 540.

was

was proclaimed leader. Quickly the soldier who was capable of thought and reflection acquired knowlege by experience. The enemy inflicted or received death with passive intrepidity on the spot where he had been placed, but the French soldier learned to calculate the blow, and, amid the hazards of war, to save himself when it was becoming, in order to come forwards when it was required; he learned to retire from useless danger, in order to return at the critical moment; to expose or to save his person according to the importance of the action. The requisitions introduced into the camps many men whose education enabled them to form and combine ideas; and in whose estimation, honor and right conduct were sacred duties. In others less favoured, patriotism felt, infused, or imitated, supplied every defect. The national battalions consisted of individuals known the one to the other; men of the same district were reciprocal and unexceptionable witnesses to each other's behaviour; and cowardice would have for ever disgraced the guilty individual in his neighbourhood and family. Of this warlike population which the law sent to the camps, those who survived formed the choice troops which, being renewed by requisitions, tried by hardships, rendered steady by combats, accustomed to privations, instructed by experience, and exalted by enthusiasm, composed those indefatigable and invincible armies, which, during nine campaigns, astonished and alarmed Europe.'

The Generals, we are told, were inclined to the Gironde party: but the enthusiasm and habits of the common soldiers met with kindred qualities in the mountaineers, which linked them to that faction. The whole history of the revolution exhibits the jacobins of *Robespierre* as in possession of the armies.

Of the trial of the king, the author says:

'Whether it was that Louis was apprized before-hand of the questions which he would have to answer, or whether the habit of being every where principal and leader gives to rulers an ease of carriage and expression which resembles native superiority, and which often serves in its stead, certain it is that he preserved, in this difficult and painful juncture, a presence of mind and a composure worthy of fallen majesty. In his first replies, his tones indicated somewhat of resentment and anger: but he soon composed himself, so that his voice discovered nothing of severity or emotion. His answers were short, clear, and rarely evasive.'

All the accounts agree that *Robespierre* urged the suit against the king to divert accusations from himself and his partisans, and in order to lay a snare for the Gironde. The adherents to this faction adopted a crooked policy on the occasion, to which the king fell a victim, and which led very shortly afterward to their own destruction. They were too much attached to popularity, too ambitious of pre-eminence, to act an open and honest part. The course which they ought to have taken, in the author's judgment, should have been to insist on the incompetency of

the convention as a tribunal, and to have the question relative to the method of proceeding, in the first instance discussed and determined, in the room of that of fact. Instead of controverting the heads of accusation, they should steadily have denied to the assembly the power of taking cognizance of them, any farther than was necessary to ascertain their existence, for the purpose of submitting them to a special jury; who should have framed the charge in order finally to have it laid before a tribunal which should have assigned the punishment. Hence, he says, it would have followed that, the punishment being prescribed by no law, the delay, which the observance of forms and the slowness of legal proceedings would have occasioned, would have given time for the passions to cool, for fears to strengthen, and for the wisest party to prevail. Louis would then have been permitted to live; deprived indeed, of his throne, but of a throne which had long ceased to be desireable.—The fairness of this writer, and the tenderness with which he treats the memory of the late king, fully satisfy us that he means that the course, which he points out, was the best in the circumstances *as they then stood:* we do not impute to him the absurdity of supposing that there was any ground whatever for bringing Louis to trial in any mode.

It seems that, in his prison, the monarch had indulged the chimerical hope of being allowed to leave his degraded and unworthy kingdom, and of ending his days in the delightful plains of the Sierra Morena; where he intended to divide his time between the cares of his family, and the innocent employments of agriculture. This fond illusion is said to have cheered the early periods of his confinement; and when that pleasing idea vanished before the dreadful reality, religion came to his relief, and enabled him to bear the pressure of his situation with the composure and constancy of a martyr. The author, who takes no pains to conceal his own scepticism, admits that christian hope and belief administered support to the royal sufferer which could have been drawn from no other source, and gave to his whole demeanour a superiority which no system of philosophy could have inspired.

This candid and sensible writer thus sketches the character of the unfortunate king:

'Louis was of a stature considerably above the common size; and his large and marked features had assumed an expression which they wanted in his youth. *Ill educated*, as he himself often complained, his harsh and coarse manners, in the midst of a polished and refined court, laid a foundation for that degradation of royalty, which the levities of the queen contributed to consummate. A king, whose taste,

taste, habits, and amusements, are the subjects of pleasantry among his courtiers, is an object of respect only on days of public ceremony. In vain did excellent qualities redeem these superficial defects. Louis was humane, generous, economical; correct in his morals, a tender husband, a good father, an affectionate relative, susceptible even of friendship and gratitude: but, possessed of these virtues which are seen so rarely in the breast of kings, he wanted two qualities which very generally belong to them, resoluteness and perspicacity. Louis XI reigned and died an absolute prince; Louis XVI reigned with difficulty, and perished on a scaffold! But, in justification of Providence, be it recollected that Louis XI underwent longer and more pungent suffering at Plessis-les-tours, than Louis XVI endured at Paris.'

The following representation is certainly honorable to the national character:

'When the news of the execution of the king reached the armies, the soldier saw that every hope of peace had vanished; and he swore not to conquer or die, but to conquer, and he became victorious. The nation felt that the responsibility of the measure attached to the whole empire, and that it must become the first of nations, or suffer the penalty of being condemned to be the last. The sentiment of national dignity prevailed in the army over all other considerations; those who were most averse to the decree, and who most condemned it in their judgment, believed themselves, equally with its authors, bound to support it against foreign powers; and if peace on advantageous terms had been offered at the price of delivering to the enemy a single individual among the authors of the decree, the general indignation would have met the degrading proposal with the unanimous cry of "To Arms!" It was this point of honor that made all be borne, requisitions of men and property, terror, murders sanctioned by forms of law, privations, sufferings, famine, loss of commerce, and the decay of agriculture. The idea of being lorded over and degraded disposed all to make sacrifices.'

What a cloud of testimonies do these relations conjure up, to prove the errors which our own and other cabinets at the time committed, and how little they comprehended the genius and progress of the revolution? If Europe retains any thing like its late balance, and tranquil times ever return, the history of the revolution and its wars will be the school of statesmen, since it concentrates the events of centuries within the compass of a few years: but they will find, we are sorry to say it, in the conspicuous and important part borne in it by the British ministry, more errors to shun than examples to imitate.

The state of France in the spring of 1793 was so critical, that had it not been for the energies which are peculiar to a period of revolution, its ruin or abject humiliation must have ensued: but so hot was the war within, and so fierce were the combatants, that the dangers from without entered very little

into consideration. In the contest between the Gironde and the Mountain, we see on one side persons taken from the middle class restrained by the habits and rules which distinguish it; and on the other, low unprincipled adventurers. The multitude has ever fallen the prey of the latter, and so it happened in this instance. In overturning royalism, in vilifying the patriotic nobles and gentry, and the *haute bourgeoisie*, the Gironde had transferred all the influence into the hands of the populace; over which the audacious hypocritical leaders of the Mountain, who were liberal of promises, to whom professions cost nothing, and who were never scrupulous about means, easily gained the ascendancy. On the 31st of May, the convention was besieged; the same scene was renewed on the second of June; and no deputy was allowed to quit the hall of the assembly; the soldiery, with the point of the bayonet, resisting all the attempts of the deputies to escape, and having orders to fire, in case they persisted in them. The majority, after several vain endeavours to liberate themselves, at length declared that they would not assist in the deliberations, as not being free; on which the minority moved the arrest of the obnoxious deputies, and it was carried without opposition, the majority standing by and taking no part. Thus was the national representation, within little more than half a-year after its convocation, virtually annihilated; having employed the time during which it sat, in murdering, with a mockery of justice, its fallen monarch, and in the most disgraceful contests between its own members. Thus, also, we see, did the ambitious and weak Brissotins expiate the violation of their oaths to preserve the limited constitution, and to be faithful to their king, their treachery towards the constitutionalists, and the complicated and aggravated guilt of the crimes which they had committed, abetted, and suffered; and thus, through their perfidy and imbecility, did their country fall a prey to monsters such as the sun never before beheld.

In this place we meet with a passage which, for its singularity, well merits insertion. The mayor, *Pache*, of whom Madame *Roland* has given so hideous a portrait, and who certainly acts a part in these dreadful days corresponding very well with her account of him, visited one of those usurping bodies, which had been engaged in planning the subversion of the convention. On his being introduced, he found rebellion not merely recommended, but methodically organized. The assembly signified to him, in his official character, that the citizens, re-united, had declared themselves to be in a state of insurrection, and that they were going to shut the barriers of Paris. They also sent deputies to notify to the council-general of the commune

commune of Paris, that, by virtue of the unlimited power which they held from the people, they had declared that city to be in a state of insurrection, and all the constituted authorities annulled; that consequently the mayor, the municipality, and the council-general, were broken; and that they had appointed a new council. The old council made place for the new, but it pleased the latter to unite the former to itself, as a reward for its cheerful submission. A few bands of this sort, most irregularly constituted, compelled the representatives of all the people of France to obey their commands; those representatives being dastardly enough to submit, and their constituents remaining quiet under the outrage;—and those constituents forming that very sovereign people which allowed to lawful kings no other name than despots, and which designated their subjects by the opprobrious term of slaves!

The author thus describes the political and moral effects of this change:

'The representation was without respectability, and existed only in name, while in fact it was inert and mutilated. A few individuals exercised the exclusive privilege of giving at the tribunes the signal for passing decrees; there was no opposition, no discussion; each member felt that he must give his vote at the peril of his life; each found his excuse in the weakness of others, and his justification in the general slavery. The people complained of their representatives for leaving them under a yoke of iron, and the representatives reproached the people for not rescuing them from the hatchets of assassins. To contempt of life was added a self contempt; stoicism was the sole weapon that was opposed to tyranny; self-defence was disdained; courage displayed itself in dying without weakness, and in falling without dignity; the victims acted as if they considered themselves as propitiatory sacrifices required and marked out by divine vengeance; they regarded their judges as only the executioners of sentences passed by an invisible tribunal; and they waited till the offended divinity, appeased and satisfied, should withdraw its arm;—the excess of the evil alone gave them the hope of its coming to an end.'

M. TOULONGEON informs us that the fortunes of the proscribed deputies, who fled into the departments, only became desperate in consequence of disagreement among themselves; scarcely any two of them entertaining the same views. He here relates a singular trait which we cannot pass over; and in which he is not to be suspected of fabrication, because he every where shews his predilection for the party to which these individuals belonged.

'If one did not know, (he says,) the extravagance to which disappointment, injustice, and, above all, party-spirit, are capable of betraying characters formed in revolutions, and irritated by disgrace, it would not be believed that *Petion*, in concert with *Buzot*, formed the design of setting fire to the city of Caen, in order to charge that crime

on the mountaineers of the convention, and thus to determine the inhabitants to march against Paris. They employed persons to get together combustible materials, and persisted in their horrible scheme till they were discovered by some of their well-wishers, who obliged them to desist, and quickly to depart from the place.'

At the time when Prussia shewed her inclination to make peace, Austria, the author contends, had no good reason for not adopting the same line of conduct. He demonstrates that the party, which had the greatest interest in continuing the war, was that of the authors of the internal horrors of France, whose ruin must have been effected by peace. He then shews how well they were seconded in their views and schemes by the cabinets of Vienna and London; which made such sacrifices of blood and treasure to carry on the contest, and thus prolonged the existence of these vile miscreants. The country, he says, would have risen against them, and the armies would have recoiled on them, but for the dangers arising from the external war. From his statements, it may be collected that the coalesced armies eminently contributed to save France from sinking under civil commotions, and internal dissensions.

It remains for future histories to throw farther light on the closing scenes of the reign of terror. The relation here given does not satisfactorily account for the fall of *Robespierre*; we do not recognize in it the man who, from the utmost obscurity, had ascended almost to the very summit of power; and some facts, we doubt not, yet remain to be brought to light, in order to clear this important chapter in modern annals. It is past all doubt that, for some time previously to his downfall, he had absented himself from the committees, that he appeared rarely at the tribune, and that he caused innocent blood to flow in greater torrents than ever: but the ends at which he aimed in this conduct are not stated to us. We are told, and that truly, that he concerted the death of his colleagues of the committees, and that he did not appear sufficiently solicitous to keep his secret. In the naked state of these relations, we no longer see in him the man who brought his sovereign to the scaffold, who triumphed over the Gironde, over the Cordeliers headed by the terrible *Danton*, and who deluged France with the blood of its most considerable and powerful citizens. A list discovered in the possession of a victim, who once had been in his confidence, but whom he afterward delivered to the guillotine, in which were inscribed the names of those whom he had resolved to destroy,—as well as papers found on *St. Just*,—apprized his savage associates of the fate which awaited them, and hastened the crisis for which the interests of humanity so loudly called;—a crisis which inspired the timid

timid with courage, which impelled the languid to enterprize, and in which, though all was ventured, yet nothing was risqued. The tyrant was surprized, his presence of mind and his address appear to have deserted him with his good fortune, and his creatures were taken in the same unprepared state, and were thrown into irreparable confusion by the boldness and activity of men hardly less guilty than themselves; who, in struggling to save their own lives, rendered services to the cause of humanity and innocence which they little meditated, and which they afterward regretted.

This performance, if not free from considerable faults, discloses several new facts; and it can boast of more able and profound political observations on passing events, than any of the histories of the French revolution through which it has been our business to toil.

ART. XIII. *Dictionnaire Historique, Litteraire, & Bibliographique,* &c. *i. e.* An Historical, Literary, and Bibliographical Dictionary of French Women, and also of Foreign Women naturalized in France, who have been made known by their Writings, or by the Protection which they have given to Men of Letters; from the Establishment of the Monarchy to the present Time. By Madame FORTUNEE B. BRIQUET, of the Society of Belles Lettres, and of the Athenæum of Arts at Paris. 8vo. pp. 346. Paris, 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

THE fair author of this publication observes that Science and Literature reckon so great a number of women, among native and naturalized French writers, who have flourished since the foundation of the monarchy, that it becomes proper to collect their memoirs together in a work which shall be solely devoted to this object; yet she thinks that it is no more than justice to associate with them those French women, who did themselves honor by the countenance and encouragement which they gave to literary persons. As a national repository of this nature did not exist, she was induced to embark in the present undertaking; on the accomplishment of which she has bestowed the labour and attention of four years. We highly commend her for the pains which she has taken to render her design complete. She has read, she tells us, the best productions of the persons whose memoirs she details, and she has consulted the opinions of the ablest judges with respect to their merit: but she has been indebted to no one for a single article in her book, each account being her own. There is indeed internal evidence of the truth of these declarations; since the notices are all composed in the same style and manner, and

the whole is in as great a degree original as any performance of this nature can be. The public will also be grateful to her for her endeavours to attain accuracy in dates. Altogether, we find so much neatness, conciseness, and sound judgment displayed in these narratives, that we only wish that the design had been planned on a larger scale: for the accounts, though drawn up with great good teste, are too brief to be satisfactory. The sketches of character are merely outlines, though they are all in nature, and the likeness is striking; and the criticisms on works are too short, though pithy and correct.—Yet the volume brings the reader acquainted with a profusion of the lighter publications in French literature.

It is, we think, with great propriety that the author in her introduction, treats of the advantages and benefits likely to result to society, and to the sex, from mental cultivation. To those who ridicule knowlege in women, and who regard their virtues as more secure while under the safeguard of ignorance and idleness, she answers in the words of *La Fontaine:*

"*Laissons dire les sots; le savoir a son prix**."

She coincides with the antient writer, who remarked that virtue is not so much the gift of nature as the effect of study. Ignorance and idleness are the parents of one half of human crimes; and more knowlege renders persons capable of more pleasures. The graces reside rather in the mind than in the countenance; and women who distinguish themselves in literature and science do not become *men*, as the vulgar pretend, but more amiable women; since the sex is not rendered unnatural by being rendered more perfect. Science, she continues, is the attainment least affected by the caprices of fortune; why then are women, she asks, to be debarred from acquiring such a possession? 'Do we not share the ills of the men? Why interdict us the good? If in our portion of the latter, nature has acted rather the part of a stepmother towards us, why deprive us of the consolations of study?—Study would serve as an aliment to the active imaginations of females; it would render them domestic, and would make society more delightful, because less constantly essential; it preserves from low occupations, and contributes to good manners; it guards against melancholy; and it gives us, instead of hours of *ennui*, with which life must otherwise abound, those that are most delicious.'—If our females of distinction would carefully reflect on the remarks which are here submitted to their consideration, and not disdain the rich resource to which the fair pleader

* Let fools say what they will, knowlege has its value.

would

would draw their attention, they would find it more certain and substantial than those to which they are now wont to have recourse; the trivial amusements of gay life, or a dog, a cat, or a bird, would be less necessary to their happiness, and engross a less share of their partiality. This idea reminds us of a neat monumental inscription in the canine cemetry at Oatlands, in which the august mistress of that charming place commemorates her obligations to a favourite dog, for hours which passed pleasantly away in the company of the guileless, faithful, and affectionate creature; and which, says the illustrious personage, would otherwise have hung heavily on her hands. Literature, in this view of it alone, would be well worth the cultivation of females in the higher situations of life.

'Let it not be supposed, (the fair writer remarks,) that a love of knowlege can ever occasion any persons to neglect their duties, since nothing more strongly disposes to the due performance of them. The Queen of England, wife of George II. who served as umpire between the greatest metaphysicians in Europe, Clarke and Leibnitz, and who was capable of judging between them, never on that account neglected the cares of a Queen, of a wife, and of a mother.'

Madame B. considers *Moliere* as having rendered great service to the sex by overwhelming pedantic and conceited women with ridicule; for affectation, she says, appears to as little advantage in society as it does in the fine arts. His comedies, *les Femmes Savantes*, and *les Precieuses Ridicules*, ought to encourage women to cultivate science and letters. This is a sea on which there is the less danger of suffering shipwreck, now that a skilful pilot has pointed out the principal rocks. Women may learn from *Moliere* that they are never to overstep nature, and that modesty is to learning what decorum is to the graces. Anacreon, (says Madame B.,) that amiable poet, that charming philosopher, that painter whose exquisite colours the graces seem to have prepared, in his ingenious allegory of love chained by the muses, points out to women one of the most powerful means of fixing the attachment of their husbands, and of rendering the marriage union delightful; in opposition to that maxim of *La Rochefoucault*, "there are good marriages, but there are none delicious."

It is also truly observed that women ought to remember that education, in its primary stages, is entrusted to their care and direction.

'Is it not their province to give to their children the earliest lessons of courage, and of elevation of soul? Are they not to inspire them with the first sentiments of virtue, and to guard them against prejudices

prejudices fatal to humanity? Agrico.a owed to his mother the possession of that stayed wisdom which is so rare, and of such difficult attainment. Louis IX., Francis I., and Henry IV., are instances which shew the importance of the education given to children by their mothers. Louis caused justice and humanity to reign; Francis was the patron of letters; while Henry was the father of his subjects, and France never had a greater or a better king.

'The sort of education which is assigned to most women, especially in high life, would lead us to suppose that they never were to grow old; for nothing is taught them that can give them interest in advanced years. Every season of life has its inconveniences to such as have no resource in themselves. Letters are the best support of old age. They embellished the latter days of Madame *Dubocage*. When upwards of ninety years old she had a brilliant society; her conversation was agreeable, and full of grace; and a little time before she died, she wrote charming verses. The old age of a literary person is the evening of a fine day.'

Madame B. furnishes a sketch of the services rendered by eminent women to France, and of the attainments which at different periods have distinguished them. An article in a treaty between Hannibal and the Gauls shews their ascendancy: "If any Gaul has cause to complain of a Carthaginian, let the matter be brought before the Carthaginian senate established in Spain; if a Carthaginian finds himself injured by a Gaul, let the affair be determined *in the Supreme Council of the Gallic women.*" Though the Druids are said to have encroached very much on the power of women, they retained to the last a share in the administration. Private differences were referred to their decision, and the art of divination was in their hands; they had also schools in which young women were prepared for the exercise of these functions. It was to a woman, Clotilda, the wife of Clovis I., that the Franks owed their christianity.—The author also adverts to the ten years' regency of the wise and virtuous Ratilda, widow of Clovis II., at the end of which she retired to the abbey of Chelles, which had the honour of furnishing learned men to certain kings in Britain, who rendered such good service as to enable that country, shortly afterward, to present France with an Alcuin. In the reign of Charlemagne, *Henault* informs us, the taste for letters was so much in vogue, that one of the fair sex was found who distinguished herself in astronomy; and Giselle, the sister of that Emperor, protected men of letters.

The great consideration in which women were held in the days of chivalry is duly noticed. Constance of Arles, married to king Robert in 998, introduced to his court the most celebrated Troubadours of the time; and it was she who first made rhyme known there, the only circumstance which then distinguished

guished poetry from prose. The *Romance*, an uncouth mixture of Latin, of Celtic, and of Gothic, had become the vulgar tongue, but no one wrote in it. The Troubadours adopted it, and their songs ensured a preference to this idiom. France owes to them the first improvements of a language, which has given to it a sort of supremacy among the European states. In the Parliaments, or Courts of love, as they were called, where the Troubadours contended for the prize of victory in song, the women presided, and adjudged the contested meed; and in those times, females, as possessors of lordships, exercised all the feodal prerogatives, and administered justice to their vassals. The Troubadours having become extinct, Clémence Isaure founded the floral games which kept poetry alive, and materially favored its progress. Mary of Brabant, the benefactress of the votaries of the Muse, who assisted in the arrangement of the romance Cléomades,—and Jane of Navarre, the protectress of the learned, and the foundress of the magnificent college which bears her name,—must not be overlooked. Joan of Arc, Mary of Anjou, the Queen of Charles VII., and Agnes Sorrel his mistress, next pass in review. The virtue of Ann of Brittany is then celebrated; she patronized letters; and *Marot* had the title of poet to the magnificent Queen. She had begun to draw women to the Court, but they did not appear there with *éclat* till the reign of Francis I. *Clément Marot* derived from his converse with them that simplicity of thought, that ease of expression, those lively turns, in a word that elegant *badinage*, which constituted the charm of his poetry.

In reprobating the atrocious conduct, the fair biographer still does justice to the vast abilities of Catherine de Medicis; and she equally pays an elegant tribute to the misfortunes of Mary Queen of Scots. The Duchess de Rétz furnished an instance of surprising female erudition; and she made the fortune of her husband in the several reigns of Charles IX., Henry III., and Henry IV. She was the only person in the Court of Charles IX. who spoke all the living languages of Europe; and this prince consulted her on all state affairs where the knowlege of languages was necessary. She answered in Latin to the ambassadors who came to announce to the king the election of the Duke of Anjou to the crown of Poland. Mother of ten children, she devoted part of the day to their education. Her son the Marquis *de Belle-Isle*, on the death of Henry III., joined the League, and resolved to get possession of his father's property: but the Duchess drew together an armed force, placed herself at its head, terrified and dispersed the troops of the League, saved her possessions, and maintained her vassals in allegiance to Henry IV. The influence of females at the epoch of

the

the Fronde was so great, that the war is known to have been their war.

Henrietta of England next figures in Madame BRIQUET's page. This Princess, she says, educated in the Court of France, introduced there a politeness and a grace at that time unknown in Europe; and the Court, observes *Racine*, regarded her as the arbitress of manners. It is from this Princess that Louis XIV. learnt to temper his pleasures with dignity, and to cover his gallantries with the veil of decency. The name of Henrietta of England also swells the brilliant list of the female protectors of men of letters: she strove to make amends for the oversight of the monarch, who astonished the learned of the North by his benefactions, but who neglected *La Fontaine*. There was not a man of genius in this reign who had not *sa providence*. *Quinault* found it in Mesdames *de Thiange* and *de Montespan*, *Lulli* in Mademoiselle *de Montpensier*, *Racine* and *Boileau* in Madame *de Maintenon*. The *Hôtel de Rambouillet*, that of the Duchess *de Maine*, and the house of *Ninon de l'Enclos*, may be regarded as the residence of the Muses and Graces. We cannot speak, observes Madame B., of the age of Louis XIV. without alluding to the performances of its learned women. We are charmed with the fertile genius of Mademoiselle *de Scudéry*, with the style and taste of Madame *Lafayette*, with the simple graces of Madame *Sevigné*, (the *La Fontaine* of prose,) with the pure morality of Madame *Lambert*, with the profound erudition of Madame *Dacier*, and with the interest which enlivens the memoirs of Mademoiselle *de Montpensier* and Madame *de Motteville*. The idylls of Madame *Deshouliéres* paint the manners of the golden age.

Under the dissolute reign of Louis XV. occur female names dear to letters; those of Madame *Geoffrin*, Madame *du Deffand*, and Mademoiselle *Lespinasse*. The learned works of Madame *du Châtelet*, and the romances of Madame *Riccoboni*, are known to all; and we read with pleasure the prose and poetical works of Madame *Duboccage*, who preserved through a long and glorious career the manners of the age of Louis XIV. Her society consisted of *Clairault*, *Fontenelle*, *Gentil-Bernard*, *Helvetius*, *Condillac*, *Bailli*, *Condorcet*, the abbé *Barthélemi*, and *Pougens*.—Among those who shine in the present day, are named *les Dames Genlis*, *Stael*, *Flahaut*, *St. Leon*, *Cotin*, *Keralio-Robert*, *Beauharnais*, *Pipelet*, *Viot*, *Laferandière*, and *Joliveau*.

We shall now submit to our readers one or two of the articles contained in this volume; as specimens by which they may judge of the plan of it, and of the manner in which it has been executed.

'*Rambouillet*, (Catherine de Vivonne, Dame d'Angennes, Marquis de,) married in 1600, Charles Marquis *de Rambouillet*, &c. She rendered herself celebrated by the protection which she afforded to letters. The house which she inhabited at Paris, known by the name of the *hôtel de Rambouillet*, was as it were the sanctuary whither all persons of note resorted to pay homage to her merit. She received there a crowd of visitors distinguished by their talents and their breeding; and persons of all ranks, of all ages, of each sex, and of every country, were anxious to be admitted. It was frequented as a school of virtue and of taste; virtue appeared there with all its most winning attractions; and taste was accompanied with that delicacy which gives all its value to knowlege. The *hôtel de R.* was a tribunal where the merit of persons and performances received final judgment. —Society was deprived of this illustrious lady, who united the qualities of the mind to those of the heart, in 1665.'—

'*Geoffrin*, (Madame) a protectress of men of letters, was born in 1669. She employed the considerable fortune left to her by her husband in collecting around her, and in succouring, learned men and artists. To bring to notice obscure merit, to induce men in power to make amends for injustice, or to relieve misfortune, constituted her fond employment. She founded her happiness on her judgment, and derived her pleasures from her goodness. A lover of children, she was interested by the innocence and weakness of infancy. "I wish (said she) that the question were put to all who are convicted of capital offences; *Did you love children?* I am sure that they would answer, no."—Her taste led her to prefer simplicity in all things; and she had even caused the plane to pass over the sculptured parts of her rooms. *Nothing in relief* was her motto.—The name of *savante*, which foreigners acquainted with her celebrity and connections sometimes gave to her, seemed to startle her; and she respectfully declined the distinction, candidly avowing that she was not worthy of it. A lively imagination inspired her with happy expressions; she compared her mind to a folded roll, which is gradually laid open; "and probably at my death," said she, "the roll shall not have been wholly unfolded."

'Perhaps no person ever possessed a mind that could better accommodate itself to all situations. Struck with the palsy, and confined to her bed for more than a year, she appeared as tranquil as if she had never known any other kind of life. In this state, she employed herself in acts of beneficence; and this was the only one of her antient habits which she would have found it difficult to renounce.—She closed her career at Paris in 1777. There appeared in the same year three eulogiums on her, written by *d'Alembert*, *Thomas*, and *Morellet*.'

We have selected the two preceding notices, because the species of female to which the subjects of them belong is little known in England; at least it has escaped our knowlege if many females of *haut ton* in this country admit men of letters to their private parties. If a few of these fine personages permit certain favoured literati to lose themselves in the multi-

tudes with which they are ambitious of crowding their apartments twice or thrice in the winter, they think that they do them great honor.

The present work may prove convenient to the labouring class of literary men, as pointing out sources which may furnish the means of assisting and abridging their toil; and whence they may pillage with a fair chance of not being discovered.

ART. XIV. *Inscriptionis Phœniciæ Oxoniensis novæ Interpretatio. Auctore* J. D. AKERBLAD. 8vo. pp 31. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

THE inscription which is the subject of this learned dissertation is copied from one of the Oxford Marbles, and may be found among the XXXIII Phœnician epitaphs given by Dr. Pocock, in his Description of the East (Vol. ii. p. 213); and a *fac simile* of the stone, on a diminished scale, exhibiting the shape and arrangement of the characters forming the inscription, is given in a copper-plate at the end of this pamphlet, together with a Phœnician alphabet. This curious morsel of antiquity has long attracted the attention and exercised the ingenuity of scholars, but they are very far from being unanimous in their reading and interpretation of it; which is indeed no matter of surprize, where so much obscurity and uncertainty prevail.

Four different modes of explication are presented to the reader in these pages; the first is that of the Abbé *Barthélemy*, which was published in the History of the Academy of Inscriptions, Tom. xxx. p. 405, and which is exhibited in Hebrew characters corresponding to the Phœnician on the marble. It is as follows:

אנם עבראסר בן עבדססם בי חד מצבת
שלם בחיי ..... נאת על משכב נחתי לעלם כלא
שחת אשתי מתרח בת תאם ..... בן עבדמלך

'*Je dors* d'un sommeil eternel, moi *Abdassar fils d'Abdssissim fils de Chad*, (de la ville) *de Tsabeth, Après avoir passé tranquillement ma vie, je ne suis reposé dans le tombeau pour la suite des siècles. Mathrath mon pouse, fille de Tham....fils d'Abdmelec, a poeé* ce monument.'

It appeared, however, to our countryman Mr. Swinton, that the Abbé had completely misunderstood the meaning of this epitaph, and in the Philosophical Transactions, Vol. liv. p. 411, he reprobates the interpretation of it in the Abbé's memoir, and substitutes a new one of his own. Our readers will not expect us minutely to point out the variations of the two explications of these learned men; it is sufficient to remark

mark that they differ at the very threshold. The first word which *Barthélémy* read אכם, and apprehended to signify *dormiam* or *dormio*, I sleep, Mr. Swinton reads אנך *anac* or *onac*, and supposes to mean *onyx* or *marble*; and he exhibits the inscription in four breaks or sections, annexing also his translation, thus:

אנך עבראסר בן עבדסמם בן חר - מצבת
למב חיי כ שנאת עלם מכב - נחתי לעלם כלא
מתי לאמת - בם חרת בת תאם בן עבדמלך

'Quæ latinitate donata significare ait Swintonus: *Marbor Abdasari filii Abdesami filii Hhuri — Lapis sepulcralis Lembi* (vel *Lembi*) *qui vixit vicenos annos sæculi doloris* (id est, *vitæ infeliciter actæ*) — *descendunt in æternum carcerem sepulchri mortui hi Amathuntis* (seu potiùs *occisi* hi *Amathusii*) — *monumentum structura* est *domûs* (vel *familiæ*) *Tami filii Abdmeleci.*'

With this analyis and explication of Mr. Swinton, M. Akerblad is as little satisfied, as Mr. Swinton was with that of the Abbé; and it is remarkable that this new interpreter differs from both his predecessors in the outset. He neither reads אנם nor understands אנך as meaning *marmor*, but considers it as the same with the Hebrew word אנכי *ego*, which the Phœnicians after the Egyptians pronounce *anoc*, the final *jod* being omitted. After having gone word by word through the inscription, he places it, according to his hypothesis, entire before the reader, in Hebrew characters; adding occasionally a *jod* or a *vau*, which may be supposed to have been omitted in a Phœnician epitaph:

אנכי עבראסר בן עבדסמם בן חר מצבת
למי בחיי יפנאת על משכב נחתי לעולם כלא
שתי לאשתי עשתרת בת תאם בן עבדמלך

'Quæ, nullâ habitâ ratione latinitatis, ad verbum ferè reddi possunt: *Ego Abedasarus filius Abedsusami filii Churi, monumentum illi quæ, me vivente, discessit à placido meo thalamo in æternum, posui,* (nempe) *uxori meæ Astarti filiæ Taami filii Abedmeleci.*'

M. Akerblad says that this inscription is written in the Hebrew dialect, or in one nearly approaching it; and that almost all the words, excepting only יפנאת, are to be found in the Hebrew bible. He observes, also, that all those inscriptions which were discovered by Pocock in the isle of Cyprus, at least those which he can understand, are in the Hebrew language; and that the Phœnician coins, the reading on which is undisputed, have on them Hebrew words. Indeed it is maintained by *Bochart* that, in antient times, the Phœnician and Hebrew languages were nearly the same; and the monu-

ments discussed in the work before us, but not known to him, are supposed to give force and strength to this opinion.

The three lines composing this epitaph are supposed to be in some kind of metre or rhythm.

As to the age of the inscription, M. AKERBLAD conjectures that it was executed before the taking of Cyprus by the first of the Lagides, viz. full CCC years before the Christian æra. 'Should any one, (says he) on account of the extreme antiquity of the language, be disposed to assign to it an earlier period by a hundred years, I shall not dispute the point with him.'

At the end of this dissertation, is subjoined an amended explanation founded on new conjectures by the Abbe *Barthélemy*, contained in his *Lettre à M. le Marquis Olivieri, au sujet de quelques monumens Phéniciens ; Paris* 1766. It is as follows:

"*Moi Abdassar fils d'Abdsissem fils de Char* ou *de Hhour . . . . je me suis reposé sur le lit* (ou *dans le tombeau*) *pour la suite des siècles.* (Moi) *Astarté fille de Tham fils d'Abdmelec, ai posé* (ce monument.")

Having exhibited, as briefly as we were able, the substance of this pamphlet, we shall not longer detain the reader *in his tædiis Phœniciis:* but shall dismiss him with the address of M. AKERBLAD: 'Thou hast here four different interpretations; take thy choice; or, if neither pleases, give a new one of thy own.' Another pamphlet by this author, on the Ægyptian inscription at Rosetta, was intended for notice in this place, but want of room obliges us to postpone it.

ART. XV. *La Veuve de Catane, i. e.* The Widow of Catania. By M. CORDIER DE LAUNAY. 8vo. pp. 90. Berlin. 1803. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2s. 6d.

A YOUNG widow of Catania may be supposed to "consume with more than Ætna's fire;" or, in plain English, to be desperately in love with a handsome French Emigrant, whom the storms of the Revolution had driven into Sicily: but is it honourable gallantry to receive the favours of the Sicilian lady, and then to expose her frailty? Supposing this intrigue to be founded in fact, M. DE LAUNAY is open to reproof from the fair sex; and he seems indeed aware of this; for towards the end he endeavours to throw over the narrative the flimsy veil of a fairy tale. As a love story, it is of the common kind; *save and except* that the author makes the Sicilian widow to carry her jealousy to so wild an excess as to poison the lover's dog, and that too in a very tender moment.

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