

# THE Repository

OF

ARTS, LITERATURE, COMMERCE,  
*Manufactures, Fashions, and Politics,*

For MARCH, 1809.

The Third Number.

## EMBELLISHMENTS.

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## TO CORRESPONDENTS.

We earnestly solicit communications (post paid) from professors of the Arts in general, as well as authors, respecting works which they may have in hand. The evident advantages which must accrue to both from the more extensive publicity that will be given to their productions through the medium of the Repository, needs only to be mentioned, we conceive, to induce them to favour us with such information, which shall always meet with the most prompt attention.

We regret that by some oversight we neglected to acknowledge, in our last Number, the receipt of the polite letter of A Member of the Royal Corporation of Surgeons, at Manchester. His proposed communications will be thankfully received, and will, we doubt not, excite great interest.

Sigma Tau's lines are very good, but we must decline inserting them. Should he exercise his talents on a less objectionable subject, we shall be glad to hear from him.

D. G.'s two letters are received, and the request contained in them shall as far as possible be complied with.

N. Curious may be assured that the interesting Letters from Italy will not be discontinued.

Corinna has our thanks for her friendly hints. She will perceive that we had already made arrangements for the alteration which she proposed.

I. H.'s enquiries respecting the contrivances for producing the optical illusions known by the name of Phantasmagoria, shall be answered, if possible, in our next. The addition to which the question at the foot of his letter refers, cannot be made.

The Economist is particularly requested to continue his communications, as we consider the subject to be very important.

Amelia's valuable letter arrived too late for this month, but shall certainly have a place in our next; and her farther favours will be highly acceptable.

We acknowledge the receipt of an Essay on Gas Light, which shall meet with the earliest attention.

The prolific author of the paper on Female Adventurers in the Arts has our best thanks for his numerous contributions; respecting which, as we have not yet had leisure to decypher them, we are unable to form a judgment. A legible transcript would prove acceptable.

The Translation from Ludovicus Vives shall appear in our next.

The figure and description of the Canadian Mus Bursarius is likewise deferred, for want of room, till next month.

The Remarks of an Admirer on Lord Stanhope's observations on Candles, were received too late for insertion this month.

P. Humanitas, Mary, a ballad, and several others, are under consideration.

We have to acknowledge the receipt of two MS. Poems by S. B. F.

Mr. Harrison's Letter was not in time for our present Number, but will be duly noticed in the next.



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—The suffrage of the wise,  
The praise that's worth ambition, is attain'd  
By sense alone, and dignity of mind.

ARMSTRONG.

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**HISTORY OF THE USEFUL AND POLITE ARTS.**

(Continued from page 72.)

PROCEEDING with our general view of the history of the fine arts, we shall commence with that which has undoubtedly to boast of the highest antiquity.

ARCHITECTURE, considered as a fine art, was, among various powerful nations of the ancient world, as also at the foundation of the Peruvian empire, the medium which wise legislators employed to form several tribes into a well-regulated state, to give this associated nation a visible point of union, and to secure to religion and the laws permanent respect and obedience.

In the republics of Greece, where the legislature was more particularly desirous to civilize the citizens, and

to inspire them with elevated sentiments, architecture was made the means of diffusing respect for the customs and regulations of the state, love of glory, enthusiasm for patriotic virtue, and a relish for the purer pleasures of existence.

Among all the nations of the earth which have attained a certain degree of civilization and greatness, the cultivation of architecture was indispensably necessary; it was the medium by which the state distinguished, in a manner worthy of itself, the public buildings, and the objects and purposes for which they were designed. The works of architecture are, therefore, monuments, in which every nation and every

age displays to posterity, not only its power and its wealth, but likewise its genius, its understanding, and, above all, its ideas of grandeur and beauty.

The invention and diffusion of the Gothic style of architecture at the time of the Crusades, mark the epoch at which the modern European nations began to turn their attention to the arts, and to aspire to a higher degree of civilization. It was the first expression of that relish for the arts which was just then excited, and the stock from which a great part of the mechanical, and the spirit of the imitative arts, have sprung up among them.

By the discovery and the attentive examination of the remains of Grecian architecture, the modern European nations first acquired notions of the sublimer beauties of design and decoration; it was only by these that their skill and taste attained so striking a superiority over those of the more civilized Asiatic nations; and since that period, the excellence of the different nations of Europe in the productions of architecture, has invariably been proportionate to their knowledge of the principles of Grecian art, and the degree of skill with which they have applied them.

The history of architecture is, therefore, an important portion of the history of human knowledge. It is a subject that justly deserves the attention of the philosophic statesman; who discovers in the arts, not only the means of increasing the power and the opulence of the state, but also of instilling into mankind nobler sentiments, and inspiring a relish for higher pleasures.

A concise account of the history

and invariable object of architecture; its connection with the way of thinking of various nations; its origin, progress, and decline among the ancients, cannot therefore prove destitute of interest.

#### *I. Origin of Architecture in India.*

The first idea of combining an æsthetic object with architecture, could not have originated in the early ages of the world, in which we find traces of it, except in a nation abundantly supplied with the gifts of nature, and endowed with a fertile imagination. None but a fruitful country, blessed with manifold natural productions, could, in the infancy of the world, have afforded materials and leisure for the construction of edifices, which in those days were phenomena truly extraordinary to mankind; and none but a race endued with genius could have invented the elements of an art which had no original in nature.

The peninsula of India on this side of the Ganges, was probably the cradle of architecture, considered as an art. In that country, where the development of the human mind, favoured by the physical advantages of soil and climate, and the extraordinary talents of individuals, commenced at a very early period, we find not only every thing that could awaken, earlier than elsewhere, the idea of operating, by means of superb edifices, on the feelings of men; but architectural monuments are still in existence there, which at the same time bear the stamp of the highest antiquity, and exhibit all the signs of primeval skill and invention.

The notion of a superior power inculcated by the laws, was, from



the remotest antiquity, the means by which benevolent sages succeeded in reducing savage hordes under the yoke of social union and civil laws. To give this notion a visible medium and permanent influence, it was natural and necessary that the place whence the laws emanated should, by its exterior majesty, produce an impression upon the minds of uncultivated men. Prior to the invention of the arts, nothing could be better adapted to this end than forests and caverns. In India, where the mechanical arts, encouraged by the patient industry of its inhabitants, were likely to make a very rapid progress, caverns were soon imitated by art, and thus transformed into subterraneous temples, the roofs of which were supported by several rows of hewn columns. A temple of this kind, united with the awful gloom of a natural cavern, the appearance of a bold and great undertaking, and when the interior was lighted up, it would afford a spectacle which could not fail to operate with equal force upon the senses and imagination of a savage people, by its variety, its rarity, and its solemnity.

Some of these subterraneous temples still exist, and have excited the curiosity of modern travellers: Niebuhr, in particular, has described a remarkable monument of this kind, in the little island of Elephanta, near Bombay. This temple is situated on the declivity of a mountain, and the entrance into it is formed by a portico of four columns, which, like all the others, are hewn out of the rock. The depth of the portico is equal to the height of the columns, and the sides are decorated with scenes from the Indian mythology,

in relievo. The interior of the temple is a quadrangle, with thirty-six columns, regularly arranged in six rows. On either side, in the interior of the temple, is a portico, similar to the principal entrance, leading to distinct apartments; the back ground of the temple itself is adorned with a colossal representation of the chief deity of the Indians and other figures in relievo. The space between the columns is invariably equal to their height. The lower part of them consists, as in the modern Indian temples, of a polished quadrangular pedestal, as high as a man; but the upper is round, very short, and growing rapidly smaller to the top, where they terminate in a large cushion, nearly resembling, in form, the turbans still commonly worn by the Hindoos. Above the columns is a kind of architrave, composed of three small leaves and a modillon.

The skilful arrangement, and the curious ornaments of this structure, but more particularly the grand works with which its walls are embellished, forbid us, notwithstanding its high antiquity, to consider it as one of the most ancient monuments of Indian architecture: but it is impossible not to perceive in it the spirit of primitive, and even of invented art. In like manner we observe, in its embellishments, that which invariably distinguishes the first attempts of every people in the art of decoration; namely, ornaments which are not imitations of any objects in nature, but merely represent regular ideal figures.

Various descriptions of subterraneous Indian temples may be found in the seventh volume of the *Archæ-*



ologia, or *Miscellaneous Tracts relating to Antiquity*, No. 32, 34, 35; and also in the *Comparative View of the Ancient Monuments of India* (4to. 1786). The authors of those performances, indeed, assume that the monuments of Indian architecture are of far more recent date than those of Egyptian and Grecian art, and that India was unacquainted with the arts till after the expedition of Alexander. But, on the one hand, the ancient history of India is not, by far, sufficiently elucidated to enable us to determine, with any certainty, the epochs of its monuments; and on the other, the character of these productions is so different from that of Grecian art, it is so perfectly original, that we have no hesitation to ascribe the invention of this species of architecture exclusively to the Indians.

## II. *On the Introduction of Architecture into Egypt, and its Progress in that Country.*

Respecting the introduction of architecture from India into Egypt and Hither Asia, history has indeed preserved but few particulars; but the numerous traces of the commerce of those regions in the productions of India, and the popular traditions relative to the expeditions of ancient Egyptian and Asiatic heroes to that country, render it extremely probable, that it was known to the inhabitants of the shores of the Nile and Euphrates long before the time when the arts flourished among them, and that it was considered as the source of the riches of the arts and sciences.

The power, wealth, and population of Egypt depended on agriculture: it was not till after the

long conflict by which Upper Egypt was rescued from the encroachments of the Nile, and its industry and fertility were secured, till the completion of the works of the lake Moeris and the great canals, that Egypt was distinguished by that grandeur and boldness of style in architecture, for which she makes such a figure in the history of the art.

The peculiar nature of this country obliged its inhabitants to quit their mountains and dispersed dwellings at an earlier period than those of India, and to collect in towns, in the plain on the banks of the Nile. This gave occasion to various changes in the primitive system of architecture, and to some remarkable improvements in the art.

The art of hewing stones must have become known on the first cultivation of the soil in Upper Egypt, because that country is covered with mountains of granite, which in some places advance to the very banks of the Nile. No sooner, then, was Lower Egypt inhabited, and the conveyance of stone facilitated by the construction of canals, than the natives conceived the idea of building their temples and other public edifices of that material, and that with a splendour corresponding with its superiority over Upper Egypt in the arts and in opulence. In the architecture of these structures, the model of the Indian temples was so far retained, that the body of the edifice resembled, like them, a cavern of stone, the roof of which was supported by columns: but as this roof was composed of a variety of pieces, it was necessary to augment the number of the columns, and to place them nearer to each other,



than in the Indian temples. In order, however, to leave as much space as possible between them, the pedestal was rounded off to the ground, excepting a low plinth at the base.

From the great population of the Egyptian cities, and the disposition of the nation to superstition and religious pomp, the number, dimensions, and magnificence of the temples in the cities, were increased to an almost incredible degree. For the convenience of the people, large courts were erected before them, which were surrounded and intersected by colonnades, and separated from each other by magnificent gateways and avenues.

As various uses were made of columns in the Egyptian temples, so also their disposition and figure were improved in various ways. The omission of the pedestal, and the rounding off of the capital to the base, gave the columns a more elegant form, and better proportions; the architrave, which in the Indian temples is extremely low, was made higher in these, because the roof, covering the interior of the temple and the porticos, rested upon them. The front of the pieces composing the roof, which appeared externally, formed a new part of the structure, on which the signs of the zodiac were commonly painted or hewn; on which account, this part in the sequel was denominated *zophorus*. The Egyptians likewise made improvements in the capital; and by gradually enlarging it, from its commencement at the extremity of the column, to its end below the architrave, gave it a handsomer form, and an appearance of greater strength. In like manner they also

improved the architectural embellishments. They invented many new ideal figures, and first introduced decorations from the vegetable and animal kingdoms; but most of the ornaments, especially those of the last mentioned class, generally had some allegorical allusion to the structure in which they were employed.

As the power and the civilization of the Egyptians advanced, their architecture was not confined to their temples, but was extended to other public edifices and monuments; and as this nation was solicitous to transmit its history and memorable discoveries in the sciences to posterity, the Egyptians invented, for this purpose, various modes of building. But what this nation sought more particularly to eternize by indestructible monuments, was its important discoveries in astronomy; and for this reason, the Egyptians not only adorned many of their edifices with symbolical figures of the constellations, but, in all probability, they intended to exhibit the whole system of the zodiac, and the course of the sun, in the construction of the Labyrinth; an edifice whose solidity has already withstood the ravages of three thousand years.

But this very disposition to perpetuate their memory by durable monuments, was, in the sequel, the occasion that monarchs, whose genius was not fit for the discovery of great truths, and whose minds were not capable of impelling them to undertakings of public utility, nevertheless sought to eternize themselves by architectural monuments, in which the philosopher certainly admires the greatness of human powers, but la-



ments their misapplication, and the misery which the vanity of a single despot diffused, on this occasion, over a numerous class of mankind.

Magnificence and solicitude for everlasting duration, originating in the influence of the sciences, and supported by extensive mechanical knowledge and experience in the practice of the art, were the character of Egyptian architecture: the object of the inventors and promoters of it, was evidently to leave behind them durable monuments of

great power and skill; and this object they have attained. But in none of their works do we discover traces, either of a pleasing fancy, or of indulgence and respect for the softer emotions of humanity. The intelligence of the Egyptian artists is displayed in their works, merely in the mechanical parts of the art; in their skill to raise prodigious weights with facility, and to fashion their materials with accuracy and invincible perseverance.

(*To be continued.*)

### CHINESE IMPERIAL EDICT.

In our last number we presented our readers with an edict of the Emperor of China, extracted from the Peking Gazette. As we understand that this curious article has excited considerable interest in this quarter of the globe, we shall introduce another of the same stamp, and derived from the same source, which, we have no doubt, will afford equal gratification.

WE have respectfully examined the records of our imperial ancestor *Camhi*, in which is contained the following edict addressed to the tribunal of arms:

“When this empire was first established on its present foundations, martial laws and military discipline were observed with rigour and precision. The enemies of the state were attacked with unanimity and driven from their fortresses. The operations of each campaign, together with the merits and demerits of the respective commanders, were faithfully and exactly reported, without any disgraceful evasions, or credit to themselves unworthily assumed. But at present, when an army is sent on any military service, every report that is made of their operations contains an account of a victory, of rebels dispersed at the first encounter, driven from their stations, killed and wounded to a great amount, or to

the amount of some thousands, or in short, that the rebels slain were innumerable.

“These and similar reports are made to us by the commanders, in the hopes of extending the fame of their own achievements, and procuring presents and promotion. We therefore hereby issue our strict injunctions to all general officers, vice-roys, governors, and colonels, to report to us with sincerity and a scrupulous attention to truth and precision, the accounts of their future military operations; and we further declare, that should this corrupt custom above described, or claims of undeserved credit, recur in their future reports, the utmost rigour of military law shall be exerted in punishing the offence.”

In consequence of the desire of our imperial ancestor *Camhi*, to restore the vigour and promptitude of military discipline, we indeed



find, since the establishment of our empire, the most respectable instances of valour, sincerity, and diligence among our Tartar officers. By these the three foreign tribes were subdued, and the pacification of the seven provinces accomplished (alluding probably to the subjugation of China by the Tartars). *Tu Hay*, and *Chang Yung*, and other generals manifested an unshaken fidelity and determined valour, which, when accompanied by activity and diligence, can scarcely fail to accomplish the designs it undertakes. Military operations were at that time faithfully reported, and all attempts at extenuation or amplification strictly prohibited.

At present the *Pe lin Kiao* are merely a turbulent portion of our own people, the facility of restoring order among whom, compared with the difficulty of subduing the three foreign tribes, are as wide asunder as heaven and earth.

Had we at the head of our troops generals equal to *Tu Hay* and *Chang Yung*, the present contest would not long remain undecided. Five years are now elapsed since our troops have been employed on this service, and they have not yet been able to accomplish the object of their enterprise.

Were the present leaders of our armies sent against the three foreign tribes, how would they be able to complete the conquest by a given day? They indeed make a great shew and ostentation of their strength and activity, in all of which they

are left so far behind by the officers who established our empire; and with respect to the faithlessness of their representations, and reports of victories and captures, merely with a view of acquiring credit and rewards, the difference is still more remarkable. We have frequently issued our order and admonitions, that victories or defeats should be reported to us with equal fidelity; notwithstanding which this corrupt custom still prevails, and it only remains for us to oppose the evil by stronger prohibitions and severer penalties.

In future therefore a strict enquiry will be made into the military operations of each department, and if the most trifling circumstance in their reports is found to be false or misrepresented, if they follow the steps of their predecessors, their offences will be referred to the examination of the tribunal of arms, whose sentence pronounced against them will be presented for our approbation. And though there may be offences which the tribunal is not competent to investigate, yet as the events of a campaign cannot easily be concealed from the eyes and ears of individuals, the generals may rest assured, that we shall proceed with equal rigour against them when we become acquainted with their misconduct by private hands.

These general orders are more particularly addressed to the general officers commanding our armies in *Shen sy*, *Kan soo*, and *Hoo Quang*, as well as to the viceroys and tooyuens of the said provinces.



## ACCOUNT OF A LEARNED SPANIEL.

*(Continued from page 93.)*

THE spaniel replied, that she had seven : that the first purchaser took four; that is to say, three and a half *plus* one half, without killing any : that the second had taken two ; that is to say, one and a half *plus* a half : and in the last place, that the third had taken one ; that is to say, one-half *plus* a half. It now remains for us to explain how the animal, without any visible sign being made to him, could return answers to the questions proposed to him. The reader must know, that the letters and figures were placed on so many pieces of card, arranged in a circular manner round the animal; that

he moved round the circle as soon as any question was proposed ; and that levers, concealed under the carpet on which he walked, and which were made to move under his feet by means of ropes, indicated to him the exact moment when he ought to stop, to place his foot on the nearest card. He was so well habituated to hit the card next to him when he felt the levers move, and to give an affirmative or negative answer by the motion of his head, according as his master or any confederate altered the tone of his voice, that he never once erred.

## TO THE EDITOR OF THE REPOSITORY, &amp;c.

SIR,

I HAVE frequently revolved in my mind the custom of drinking healths, and endeavoured to trace its origin. To judge of the causes of its first institution, we should consider the dispositions of the institutors of this fashion ; but as these seem to be hidden in the labyrinth of antiquity, we are reduced, in our enquiry, to the consideration of its present use, or, rather, abuse. It is certain that the ancient Romans introduced this custom in their festivals ; and that, in honour of Augustus, the senate ordered his health to be drunk at all great repasts : but a ridiculous fashion, though sanctioned by ancient Roman examples,

does not alter its nature, or render it more rational.

Some modern writers are of opinion, that it was introduced into England by the Danes, on their first invasion here, as a pledge of their sincerity ; but it is assuredly of more remote origin.

If, through the medium of your instructive and entertaining *Repository of Arts*, any of your correspondents can throw any further light on this subject, it would oblige many of your readers by communicating them ; and in particular,

SIR,

Your's, &amp;c.

P. L.

King-street,

January 16th, 1809.



## ACCOUNT OF THE MERINO SHEEP, AND OF THEIR TREATMENT IN SPAIN.

THE following observations on the management of Merino sheep, the breeding of which has, within these few years, occupied the attention of the most distinguished agriculturists in the British empire, were originally written in Spanish, by an English gentleman many years resident in Spain, for his own private use. Having recently returned to his native country, he translated them, in compliance with the wishes of some of his friends, and they are here presented to the public in his own language. The value of such a communication, derived from so authentic a source, will be duly appreciated by every practical farmer.

There are two sorts of sheep in Spain: some have coarse wool, and are never removed out of the province to which they belong; the others, after spending the summer in the northern mountains, descend in winter to the milder regions of Estremadura and Andalusia, and are distributed into districts therein. These are the Merino sheep, of which there are computed to be about four or five millions, as stated underneath:

The Duke of Infantado's flocks contain about . . . . .	40,000
The Countess del Campo de Alonse Negretti . . . . .	30,000
The Paular Convent . . . . .	30,000
The Escorial Convent . . . . .	30,000
The Convent of Guadalupe . . . . .	30,000
The Marquis Perales . . . . .	30,000
The Duke of Bejar . . . . .	30,000
Ten flocks, containing about 20,000 each, belonging to sundry persons	200,000
All the other flocks in the kingdom taken collectively, about . . . .	3,800,000
	<hr/> 4,220,000

The word *Merino* is Spanish; it signifies governor of a small province, and likewise him who has the care of the pasture or cattle in general. The Merino mayor is always a person of rank, and appointed by the king: the Duke of Infantado is the present Merino mayor. The mayors have a separate jurisdiction over the flocks in Estremadura, which is called the *Mesta*; and there the king is the Merino mayor. Each flock generally consists of 10,000 sheep, with a mayoral or head shepherd, who must be an active man, well versed in the nature of pasture, as well as in the diseases incident to his flock. Under this person there are 50 inferior shepherds, with 50 dogs; five of each to a tribe. The principal shepherd receives about 75*l.* English money for his annual wages, and has a fresh horse every year: the inferior servants are paid small annual wages; with an allowance of two pounds of good bread per day for each dog. The places where these sheep are to be seen in the greatest numbers, are in the Montana and in the Molina de Arrogan, in the summer; and in the province of Estremadura in the winter. The Molina is to the east, and the Montana to the north of Estremadura, the most elevated part of Spain. Estremadura abounds with aromatic plants, but the Montana is entirely without them. The first care of the shepherd in coming to the spot where the sheep are to spend the summer, is to give the ewes as much salt as they will eat: for this purpose they are provided with 25



quintals of salt (a Spanish quintal contains 110 pounds weight Spanish, 104 Spanish pounds are equal to 112 English) for every thousand sheep, which is all consumed in less than five months; but they do not eat any salt whilst on their journey; or during the winter. The method of giving the salt to them is as follows: the shepherd places fifty or sixty flat stones, about five steps distant from each other; he strews some salt on each stone, then leads his flock slowly by them, and every sheep eats at pleasure: this practice is frequently repeated, observing not to let them feed, on those days, on any spot where there is limestone. When they have eaten up all the salt, then they are led to some argillaceous spots, where, from the craving they have acquired by eating the salt, they devour every thing they meet with, and return to the salt with redoubled ardour. At the end of July, each shepherd distributes the lambs amongst the ewes, five or six rams being sufficient for one hundred ewes: these rams are taken from the flocks and kept apart, and after a proper time are again separated from the ewes. The rams give a greater quantity of wool, though not so fine as the ewes; for the fleeces of the rams will weigh 25 pounds, and it requires five fleeces of the ewes to produce the same. The disproportion of their age is known by their teeth; those of the rams not falling before their eighth year, whilst the ewes, from delicacy of frame, or other causes, lose their teeth after five years. About the middle of September they are marked, which is done by rubbing their loins with ochre (these earths are of various colours, such

as red, yellow, blue, green, and black). It is said that the earth incorporates with the grease of the wool, and forms a kind of varnish, which protects the sheep from the inclemency of the weather: others pretend that the pressure of the ochre keeps the wool short, and prevents its being of an ordinary quality: others again imagine that the ochre acts as an absorbent, and sucks up the excess of transpiration, which would render the wool ordinary and short.

Towards the end of September these Merino flocks begin their march to a warmer climate; the whole of their route has been regulated by laws and customs from time immemorial: they have a free passage through pastures and commons belonging to villages; but as they must go over such cultivated lands as lie in their way, the inhabitants are obliged to leave them an opening ninety paces wide, through which these flocks must pass rapidly, going sometimes six or seven leagues a day, in order to reach open and less inconvenient places, where they may find good pasture, and enjoy some repose. In such open places they seldom exceed two leagues a day, following the shepherd, and grazing as they go along. Their whole journey, from the Montana to the interior parts of Estremadura, may be about 155 leagues, which they perform in about forty days, being equal to eleven or twelve English miles per day.

The first care of the shepherd is to lead them to the same pasture in which they have lived the winter before, and in which the greater part of them were brought forth



this is no difficult task; for if they were not to conduct them, they would discover the grounds exactly, by the sensibility of their olfactory organs, to be different from the contiguous places; or, were the shepherds so inclined, they would find it no easy matter to make them go farther.

The next business is to order and regulate the folds, which are made by fixing stakes, fastened with ropes one to the other, to prevent their escape and being devoured by the wolves, for which also the dogs are stationed without as guards. The shepherds build themselves huts with stakes and boughs; for the raising of which huts, as well as to supply them with fuel, they are allowed to lop or cut off a branch from every tree that grows convenient to them: this law in their favour, is the real cause of so many trees being rotten and hollow in the places frequented by these flocks of sheep.

A little before the ewes arrive at their winter quarters, is the time of their yeaning or bringing forth their young, when the shepherd must be particularly careful of them. The barren ewes are separated from breeders, and placed in a less advantageous spot, reserving the best pasture for the most fruitful, removing them in proportion to their forwardness; the last lambs are put into the richest pasture, that they may improve the sooner, and acquire sufficient strength to perform their journey along with the early lambs.

In March, the shepherds have four different operations to perform with the lambs that were yeaned in the winter: the first is, to cut off their tails, five fingers breadth be-

low the rump, for cleanliness; the second is, to mark them on the nose with a hot iron; the third is, to saw off the tips of their horns, in order that they may not hurt one another in their frolics; fourthly, and finally, they castrate such lambs as are doomed for bell-wethers to walk at the head of the tribe; which operation is not executed by incision, but merely by squeezing the scrotum until the spermatic vessels are twisted and decayed.

In April, the time comes for their return to the Montana, which the flock expresses with great eagerness, and shewn by various movements and restlessness; for which reasons the shepherds must be very watchful, lest they make their escape, whole flocks having sometimes strayed two or three leagues whilst the shepherd was asleep; and on these occasions they generally take the straightest road back to the place from whence they came.

On the 1st of May they begin to shear, unless the weather is unfavourable; for the fleeces being usually piled one above the other, would ferment in case of dampness and rot; to avoid which injury, the sheep are kept in covered places, in order to shear them the more conveniently: for this purpose they have buildings that will hold 20,000 sheep at one and the same time; which is the more necessary, as the ewes are so very delicate, that if, immediately after shearing, they were exposed to the chilling air of the night, they would most certainly perish.

One hundred and fifty men are employed to shear 1000 sheep: each man is computed to shear eight per day; but if rams, only five: not



merely on account of their bulk, and the greater quantity of wool on them, but from their extreme sickleness of temper and the great difficulty to keep them quiet; the ram being so exasperated, that he is ready to strangle himself when he finds that he is tied fast. To prevent his hurting himself, they endeavour, by fair means and caresses, to keep him in temper; and with much soothing, and having ewes placed near him so that he can plainly see them, they at last engage him to stand quiet, and voluntarily suffer them to proceed and shear him. On the shearing day, the ewes are shut up in a large court, and from thence conducted into a sudatory, which is a narrow place constructed for the purpose, where they are kept as close as possible, to make them perspire freely, in order to soften their wool and make it yield with more ease to the shears. This management is peculiarly useful with respect to the ram, whose wool is more stubborn and more difficult to be cut. The fleece is divided into three sorts and qualities:

The back and belly produce superfine wool.

The neck and sides produce fine wool.

The breasts, shoulders, and thighs, produce the coarse wool.

The sheep are then brought into another place and marked; those sheep which are without teeth being destined for the slaughter-house, and the healthy sheep are led out to feed and graze, if the weather permit; if not, they are kept within doors until they are gradually accustomed to the open air. When they are permitted to graze quietly, without being hurried or disturbed,

they select and prefer the finest grass, never touching the aromatic plants, although they may find them in great plenty; and in case the wild thyme is entangled with the grass, they separate it with great dexterity, moving on eagerly to such spots as they find to be without it. When the shepherd thinks there is a likelihood of rain, he makes proper signals to the dogs to collect the flock and lead them to a place of shelter; on these occasions the sheep (not having time given them to chuse their pasture) pick up every herb indiscriminately: were they, in feeding, to give a preference to aromatic plants, it would be a great misfortune to the owners of beehives, as they would destroy the food of the bees, and occasion a decrease and disappointment in the honey and in the crops. The sheep are never suffered to move out of their folds until the beams of the sun have exhaled and evaporated the night-dews; nor do the shepherds suffer them to drink out of brooks, or out of standing waters, wherein hail has fallen, experience having taught them, that on such occasions they are in danger of losing them all. The wool of Andalusia is coarse, because the sheep never change their place, as is practised by the Merino flocks, whose wool would likewise degenerate if they were always kept on the same spot; and the wool of Andalusia would improve in quality, were their sheep accustomed to emigrate as the Merino sheep do.

Between 60 and 70,000 bags of washed wool are exported annually out of Spain.

A bag generally weighs eight Spanish arrobas, of 25 Spanish pounds



each arroba, which are equal to 214 English pounds.

Upwards of 30,000 bags of Spanish wool are sent annually to London and to Bristol, which are worth 35*l.* to 50*l.* each bag; so that England purchases and manufactures into goods, about one-half the quantity of this produce of Spanish wool, and her imports in general are of the best and of the finest quality.

This wool, when warehoused in England, is worth from 3*s.* per pound to 6*s.* 9*d.* per pound, ready money; and from 45*l.* to 55*l.* per bag.

The wool of Poular, which is the largest fleeces, though not the best in quality, is reserved for the royal manufactures which belong to the King of Spain.

The common dresses, as well as the shooting dresses of the royal family of Spain, and the dresses of their attendants, are made of the cloth of Segovia, which is an ancient populous city in Old Castile,

where the best woollen cloths made in Spain are all manufactured.

The crown of Spain receives annually, by all the duties, when added together, paid on wool exported, upwards of sixty millions of *reales de vellon*, which are equal to 600,000*l.* sterling (English money).

Statement of Spanish wool imported into London and into Bristol during the years 1804, 1805, 1806, 1807, averaging the year from September to September in each respective year:

Imported into	Bags.
London—from Sep. 1804 to Sep. 1805,	12,372
Bristol—from — 1804 to — 1805,	23,954
Total number of bags imported in one year . . . . .	36,326
London—from Sep. 1805 to Sep. 1806,	19,847
Bristol—from — 1805 to — 1806,	25,807
Total number of bags imported in one year . . . . .	36,654
London—from Sep. 1806 to Sep. 1807,	8,124
Bristol—from — 1806 to — 1807,	25,793
Total number of bags imported in one year . . . . .	33,917

## HISTORICAL FACTS RELATIVE TO EUROPEAN MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.

THE history of European manners and customs is so rich in anecdote, and so fertile in contrasts and consequences, that we have no occasion to visit the nations of Asia, Africa, and America, and to examine their customs, in order to find abundant subjects for entertainment and also for risibility. In the mean time, till some person, who is conscious that he possesses powers adequate to the Herculean task of writing their history from their earliest origin, shall arise, we will present our read-

ers with a few detached fragments, which seem likely to prove interesting.

In the remotest ages, our ancestors lived upon acorns and wild fruits. Bread was an invention of the Greeks, and from them the Romans learned the use of it. Hand-mills were long the only machines for grinding corn with which the Europeans were acquainted, till, among other inventions and improvements which they learned of the Saracens, they brought back on their



return from the first crusade, the art of constructing windmills. For many centuries a round slice of bread supplied the place of a plate at entertainments; in France it was called *pain tranchoir*, whence originates our English word *trencher*. After meals, these bread-plates were distributed among the poor. As early as the time of Pliny the naturalist, the Gauls made use of yeast to raise their bread; but in the seventeenth century, the medical faculty condemned this practice as poisonous, and an open war between the physicians and the bakers ensued. On this subject opinions are still divided. The most inveterate adversary of bread in modern times was L'inguet, but among its defenders we find Tissot.

Broccoli was not only held in high estimation, but even worshipped by the Egyptians. The Romans introduced it into Europe. The peach was sent us by Persia; transplanted into our climate, it is considered a delicacy, but in its native country it is reckoned a poison, on account of its coldness. The plumb was imported by the crusaders from Syria. In several parts of Europe, a kind of plumb is still denominated *Reine Claude*, after the queen of Francis I. of France, as another species goes by the name of *Monsieur*, because the brother of Louis XIV. was extremely fond of it.

Salt pork was formerly a dainty for the rich. Rabbits, a fashionable dish, multiplied in Spain to such a degree, that, according to report, they so undermined the walls and houses of Tarragona that a great part of them fell down.

The Gauls were accustomed to drive large flocks of geese across the

Alps, by short stages, to Rome. Instead of these we meet in modern times in France with numerous flocks of turkies, with which their owners travel from province to province.

At the time of the *Troubadours*, whales and dolphins were caught in the Mediterranean sea, and their flesh was used for food.

Oysters were considered a delicacy by the Romans, and Ausonius even sung their praises; but after the time of that poet, they all at once lost their character, and continued unnoticed till the seventeenth century, when they again came in vogue.

The permission to eat eggs in Lent, was obtained of the Catholic clergy with greater difficulty than the permission to use milk, butter, and cheese. From this rigid abstinence from eggs originated the practice of consecrating on Maundy Thursday a great number of eggs, which people distributed after Easter among their friends. Fifty years ago it was customary at Versailles, to pile up in the king's cabinet on Easter Sunday after the grand mass, lofty pyramids of such eggs painted and gilt, which his majesty presented to his courtiers.

Whoever would wish to possess a list of the different kinds of French cheese, may find it in a place where he would not expect to meet with it, namely, in a note to the French translation of Martial's *Epigrams*. The translator, the celebrated Abbé Marolles, has introduced it on occasion of a single verse in which his author alludes to that subject. Parmesan first appeared in France during the reign of Charles VIII.; that prince, in passing through Placenza, on his expedition against Naples,



was presented by the magistrates of the city with cheeses, the prodigious size of which astonished him. He sent them as curiosities to the Queen and the Duke of Bourbon; they tasted them, thought them excellent, and their reputation was established.

Among their sallads, our forefathers reckoned a dish of the feet, livers, heads, &c. of birds, boiled and prepared with parsley, vinegar, pepper, and cinnamon.

The word *tart*, derived from the French *tourte*, originally signified a common round loaf; but was afterwards applied to the finer sorts of pastry.

Among the cold pasties, those in the highest repute are the ham-pasties of Versailles; the duck-pasties of Amiens (the crust of which, however, is not very good); the lark-pasties of Pithiviers; the goose-liver pasties of Toulouse and Strasbourg; the pullet-pasties of Antwerp; the tunny-pasties of Provence; the salmon-pasties of Alsace. In the medical faculty at Paris, it was formerly customary for the licentiate, on receiving his doctor's degree, to give the doctors and professors, after the last thesis, a breakfast, the principal part of which consisted of pasties made of minced beef and raisins. The celebrated Chancellor de l'Hopital prohibited the crying of these little pasties in the streets of Paris, where incredible numbers of them were consumed as a luxury; the faculty followed the example, and a sum of money was given instead of the breakfast. The thesis, however, retained the former name, and continued till the revolution to be denominated *pastillaria*.

The use of the cakes called puffs is of sacred origin, being derived

from those destined for the holy sacrament. In some churches, they were presented, on certain days of the year, to the canons, &c.; whence they received the name of *oblats*. The laity likewise determined to have them, and accounted them a delicacy; nay, in some countries they even became a tax, which the lord demanded of his vassals; as for instance, in France, where it was termed *droit d'oubliages*. In Paris these puffs were latterly called *plaisir des dames*, and were carried about the streets for sale by women. In the seventeenth century they were sold at night in the same metropolis by men, who had upon the lid of their baskets a kind of a dial-plate, with a movable index, which being turned round by any person, pointed when it stood still to the number of puffs which he had gained. This became by degrees a very common game; people laid considerable wagers with each other respecting the number of puffs which they should win, and were continually calling the puff-sellers with their baskets to decide them. But Cartouche's gang having murdered some of these men, and disguised themselves in their clothes in order to commit depredations, the police prohibited the sale of these puffs at night, under severe penalties; and from that time the number of the dealers in them gradually diminished.

In countries fertile in wine, that liquor was formerly put not only into casks, but also into cisterns carefully constructed of masonry, from which the esquires and servants filled the canteens and flasks, that they carried with them, fastened to the pommel of the saddle.

*Bonbons* were in ancient times in



France an allowed medium of bribing judges and people of rank, of whom a favour was solicited. This practice was carried so far, that Louis IX. by a decree, forbade judges to take more than ten *sous* worth of *bonbons* in a week; and Philip the Fair limited the quantity to as much as they could use in their housekeeping in a day. Soon afterwards these sweetmeats were converted into money, and a *M. de Tournon*, instead of ten boxes of *bonbons*, paid ten gold *francs*.

As early as the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, good manners required that guests should be seated in pairs of different sexes, and that a dish should be brought for each pair. At home the whole family made use of one single bowl or goblet; and St. Berland was disinherited by her father, because, upon the pretext that he had the leprosy, she wiped his bowl before she drank out of it.

Among the Romans, the drinking of healths at table was a religious custom. It formerly prevailed very generally in Europe; but the practice of drinking to the health of the company has for some years been relinquished on the Continent. About thirty years ago, when it was still common in Germany, people drank not only to the persons present, but likewise to all their worthy families, their uncles, aunts, cousins, &c. and even to their deceased relatives, so that a stranger was almost obliged to make himself previously acquainted with the whole genealogy of those with whom he was to dine. In the works of Pasquier we find an affecting anecdote of the unfortunate Mary, Queen of Scots, who perished upon the scaffold. The evening

before her death, she drank, after supper, to all her attendants, and commanded them to pledge her in return. They obeyed and drank to the health of their mistress, at the same time weeping bitterly; so that their tears trickled into the wine.

The nations of antiquity thought it necessary to introduce dramatic and other exhibitions by way of diversion, during repasts. The Romans and Greeks amused their guests with pantomimes, and often with the bloody combats of gladiators and wrestlers. The Christian princes of the early ages were likewise fond of pantomimic dances at table; in the interludes the minstrels and troubadours, with their harps and songs, acted a conspicuous part. In the refectories of the monks, or at the tables of pious prelates, edifying books or learned works were read: singing was likewise common; and the first organ that France possessed, was intended for the table music of Charlemagne. But the most remarkable of the amusements with which the guests of the great were entertained and surprised, were the different kinds of spectacles to which the French gave the name of *entremets*: these consisted either of the combats of knights, the mechanical tricks of automata, or of theatrical or pantomimical representations of celebrated events and achievements. At an entertainment given to the ladies by Charles VI. of France, two knights, *Reynaud de Roye* and *Messire Boucicaut* rode, during the repast, round the hall, and broke a lance with each other. Having finished their combat, they were followed by several other knights, who did the same. At a banquet given by Charles V.



in 1378, the departure of *Godfrey de Bouillon* for the Holy Land, and the taking of Jerusalem, were represented during the entertainment. At the feast given by Charles VI. on the arrival of his consort, Isabel of Bavaria, the siege of Troy was exhibited. A prodigious fortress was seen, with four towers on the sides, and a fifth in the middle. The coats of arms and shields affixed to the walls shewed that this fortress was the city of Troy, and that the tower in the center was the citadel of Ilium. Not far from it was perceived a spacious tent, the arms of which denoted the Greek besiegers. Beside this tent was a ship capable of containing at least one hundred warriors. Both the fortress, the tent, and the ship were moved by wheels, but the springs and the persons who directed them, were concealed. A violent conflict took place between the Grecian heroes in the tent and ship, and the Trojans in the fortress; but it was not of long duration: for the crowd and the heat occasioned by it were so great, that several persons were suffocated, and still more crushed and otherwise hurt.

The Burgundian court manifested a decided preference for the exhibitions of automata and the representations of animals. At the entertainment given on occasion of the nuptials of Charles the Bold, with the English Princess Margaret, three *entremêts* made their appearance. A great unicorn first entered, with a leopard on his back. In one paw the leopard held the arms of England, and in the other a daisy (*marguerite*), in allusion to the name of the princess. Having paraded round all the tables, the unicorn at length stood still opposite to the

duke, and a *maitre d'hôtel*, taking the daisy from the leopard, presented it with a complimentary speech to that prince. The unicorn was followed by a huge gilded lion, on whose back rode the female dwarf of the Princess of Burgundy, superbly dressed as a shepherdess, with the arms of Burgundy. On his entrance into the hall, the lion opened and shut his mouth, as though he had been alive. This representative of brute majesty did more than the living original could have done; he sung a complimentary air to the ducal bride. The lion was succeeded by a dromedary, with a rider in the dress and armour of a Saracen. As he rode round the hall, the Saracen took out of a basket all sorts of foreign birds, which he distributed about him, and even threw upon the table. At supper, on the third day of these nuptial festivities, appeared five *entremêts*. Four wild boars blew trumpets; and four goats executed a concert on as many different instruments. Four wolves exhibited a specimen of their skill on the flute; and four asses sung a rondeau which may be found in *Olivier de la Marche*. Lastly, four monks played a mischievous trick to a tradesman who was asleep, and then shewed their agility in dancing.

All these *entremêts*, however, were eclipsed by those exhibited at the entertainment of the first day on which the Bastard of Burgundy opened his tournament as knight of the golden tree. On this occasion, two prodigious giants first entered, superbly habited and accoutred. They were followed by a whale, which, as *Olivier de la Marche* assures us, was the largest ever exhibited by way of *entremêts*. This



sea-monster was sixty feet in length, and so high, that two knights riding one on either side upon the tallest horses, could not have seen each other. The eyes of the whale were formed by two of the largest looking-glasses that could be procured. He moved his fins, his tail, and the rest of his body as if he had been alive. After he had made the circuit of the hall, the whale opened his enormous jaws, and disgorged two Syrens and twelve Tritons. The Syrens began to sing, but were soon interrupted by the sound of a drum which was heard in the whale's

belly. When it had ceased the Tritons struck up a dance with the Syrens. The Tritons soon became jealous of each other, and commenced a furious combat, which was terminated by the two giants, who drove back the Tritons and Syrens into the belly of the whale. "It was certainly a most beautiful *entremét*," observes the historian, "for there were more than forty persons concealed in the body of this marine monster."

*Entremêts* fell into disuse about the middle of the fifteenth century.

(To be continued.)

## LETTERS FROM ITALY.

### LETTER II.

Naples, April —, 1802.

Do not envy my lot, dear T. when I tell you, that an hour ago I visited the antique mausoleum of the divine Maro. I had purposely denied myself this exquisite pleasure until the season should be more advanced, and the weather more improved. When we wait on a great man, we are desirous to appear in our best attire; ought not then nature to be clad in her most brilliant garb, for me to approach the tomb of her poet? A heavenly morning had cheered my spirits into the most pleasing harmony, when I resolved, without waiting for breakfast, to enter on this classic pilgrimage.—"Your Excellency is early this morning," exclaimed Signor Don Giuseppe on entering the room; and when I acquainted him with the cause, he added, in perfect astonishment: "You will miss your breakfast, Sir, by the time you get there; and what is more, you will never find it unless I go

with you."—Giving him to understand, that this was my business, I left him muttering some observations on the singular whims *dei Signori Inglesi*, and hastened down the Infrescata and the street of Toledo towards the sea-beach. On the way, I called at my physician's, whom I found very busy in the preparation of his breakfast. "You are just in time to taste a dish of coffee, such as you will probably not meet with any where else in this city." Notwithstanding the interdict which this guardian of my constitution had, on his first visit, pronounced against that favourite beverage of mine, such was the aromatic odour attending the process, and the keenness of my desire, that I felt little hesitation in infringing the law, on the temptation of the legislator. This observation, however, I kept to myself till I had made an excellent breakfast on the forbidden fruit; and then even Dr. ——— saved his credit by assur-



ing me, that it was the deleterious ingredients with which coffee was universally adulterated at the houses in this city, that had induced him to prohibit its use to me, but that such coffee as *his* could never hurt my constitution. Bowing to this explanation, I once more set out on my journey, and walked along the beautiful shore of Chiaia towards my destination, till, from my map, I concluded that I was within fifty yards of the spot. Four or five Ciceroni in vain offered their services; I was determined to see with my own eyes alone. Whether this class of men derive their generic appellation from the eloquent manner with which they explain the antiquarian curiosities, or from the innumerable villas which their fanciful ignorance ascribes to the Roman orator, I am at a loss to decide. That Cicero's philosophy was not of so austere a kind as to induce him to renounce the sweets of this world and the improvement of his fortune, we learn from his own confession in his *Offices*; and his vanity may have prompted him to endeavour to disguise a mean descent under external splendour: but so great is the number of ruins which bear the name of Tullian villas, that, were we to confide in such tradition, we might not only justly accuse him of downright extravagance, but perhaps be inclined to think that a quaestorship in Sicily, and a proconsulate in Cilicia, were two *very good things*.

What a shocking failing, this unconquerable loquacity!—Sure of your pardon, I return to Virgil.

The Ciceronian gentlemen were highly offended at my declining their aid, but they triumphed at last. All my endeavours to disco-

ver the spot were fruitless; I was compelled to call one of them to my assistance. He immediately led me up a pretty steep causeway, turned into a private garden, and by an easy and delightful path, ushered me into the awful precinct.

"Your excellency must know," exclaimed the officious guide, after having cleared his vociferating organs for action, "I know every thing."—"Then I am silent."

Indeed the beauty of this solemn retreat, the lovely shade of the over-arching trees, the soothing stillness scarcely interrupted by the rustling of the leaves gently fanned by vernal zephyrs, or disturbed by the plaintive strains of the poet of birds—need no commentator. Methought I heard the shade of the bard whisper his "*Procul, O! procul este, profani!*" and, obeying the warning, I dismissed the guide with his fee.

Here I bow to tradition. This surely was a favourite retreat of the poet, and as such selected by his patron Augustus or his friend Pollio, to contain his mortal remains. As to those of his genius, the *then* known world could not suffice: they are read with equal admiration on the banks of the Delaware, Wolga, and Ganges, although their author had not, like Ovid in his *Jam opus exegi*, the vanity of insuring their eternity.

It is not the situation alone of this elegant little mausoleum which proclaims it to be Virgil's; nature herself has, by a miraculous effort, asserted its authenticity: the ruinous walls are girt and strengthened with ivy and myrtle, and the top of the fabric is crowned with vigorous branches of laurel, new shoots of which have for centuries replaced the sacrilegious robberies of profane



hands. And yet, with such internal evidence before them, the learned, who question every thing but their own knowledge, have dared to utter doubts ! One of the Neapolitan literati, I am told, has valiantly combated the received tradition ; probably envying a heathen the laurel, which on the tomb of his saint (*St. Januarius*), he would have adored with superstitious devotion.

The natural beauties of this delightful spot far exceed the present appearance of the building itself, although, to judge from what remains, its design proclaims the chaste style of architecture prevalent in the Augustan age. It is a square little temple, not much larger than one of our turnpike-lodges ; the outside has suffered so much from the ravages of time, as barely to indicate its former figure. The interior is rather in a better condition. Round its four walls, are sunk various *niches*, evidently destined to contain cinerary urns ; and it is said, that in the middle of this *columbarium*, the ashes of Virgil himself were deposited in a marble vase, with the following inscription written by himself :

“ Mantus me genuit ; Calabri rapuere ; tenet nunc

“ Parthenope : eecini pascua, rura, duces.”

I should be inclined to doubt the authenticity of these lines, were it not, that possibly the poet may have sacrificed the usual harmony of his numbers to the desire of compressing in *one* distich a most laconic notice of the places of his birth, death, and interment, as well as of his principal works. After all it is an odd composition, if it is his own ; for what can be more super-

fluous than to record the place you are buried in, on your very tombstone ? But I can easily fancy that a man is not in the best of humours when he is composing his own epitaph, notwithstanding the absolute certainty he must be under, that in this instance he is writing for posterity alone.

Naples was the favourite residence of our poet. Augustus had granted him some respectable post there, exempted from the toils of official labour — “ *otium cum dignitate*.” Who knows but what it might have been some prebend, deanery, or living connected with the temples of Jupiter or Serapis at Pozzuoli, although the writers of his life have not thought proper to descend to such particulars : a sinecure it certainly was, and there we have at once classic authority in favour of sinecure places, for literary characters at least ; and to those exclusively they ought to be granted : don't you think so, T. ? This is a serious subject, which, on my return to England, shall be brought before the public in an express publication, wherein I shall prove, that the productions of the greatest geniuses, such as Horace, Virgil, Aristotle, Newton, Swift, and hundreds of others, ancient as well as modern, owe their existence to sinecure places.

But to return to Naples :—what other country could so well furnish our poet with the subject of his *Georgics*, as Campania, now even called *la Terra di Lavoro* (the land of culture, not labour, as some have mischievously translated it) ? I have seen several of the *masserie*, or farms, in the neighbourhood, and been surprised at the high state of cultiva-



tion they are in, and at the industry with which every inch of this superlatively fertile soil is brought to account.

Not only the *Georgics* are indebted for their instructive merit to the industrious example of Campania: the *Æneid* also owes some of its most beautiful passages to the intimate knowledge which Virgil must have had of the surrounding country. In the sixth book (his masterpiece in my judgment) the whole of the horribly sublime scenery, the cavern of the Sibyl, lake Avernus, Acheron, &c. is borrowed from the environs of Cumæ and Pozzuoli, the volcanic regions of which are, with characteristic propriety and infinite skill, marked out by the poet as the gloomy purlieus to the entrance into the infernal kingdom.

But I am again, dear T. running on at a wild rate. I am, you may well see, mounted on my hobby, and a wild hobby it is, prancing to the left and right, seldom disposed to follow a straight forward course; too much of the *Shandy* breed, unfit for sober travelling.

An overanxious desire to impress you with a correct idea of this classic jewel, and of the train of feelings which rushed upon my fancy at the time, has made me prolix. I shall atone for the fault by a more steady narrative of antecedent occurrences.

The day after my arrival, I looked out for a good physician: Cyrillo, the Hippocrates of Italy, the pride of his country, was no more. His unhappy fate must ever remain an indelible stain in the revolutionary annals of this country; it will form a set-off on the credit side of the account of blood against the Jacobin butchers of Paris. The ge-

nus of David (the painter) was a sufficient sanctuary to save him from a well-deserved punishment; but in Cyrillo's sentence, the balance of justice had one scale only to weigh his errors, when his transcendent talents ought surely to have been thrown into the other. But let us draw a veil over the transaction; posterity one day will remove it.—The skill of Dr. \*\*\* in chronic diseases, was highly recommended to me: he conceived frequent exercise on horseback, and a purer air than that which prevails at Mad. Gasse's, to be essential to my recovery; and pronounced the mineral waters, which had been my chief inducement for coming to Naples, unfit to be drunk for two or three months. However disappointed at this information, and displeased with the idea of quitting my inn, where I was comfortably accommodated with a good lodging and table for little more than five shillings a day, I obeyed every one of his decrees: hired a horse by the week, and moved to the very summit of the *Infrescata*, a hill of the suburbs, which derives its appellation from the salubrity of the atmosphere.

In my rambles after new quarters, tedious any where, but more so here, where no bills in the windows guide your enquiries, I was shewn to the house, or, as they called it, palace of a private gentleman. To you, as a geometrician, it will not be matter of surprise to find every house with a great gate, styled palace, in a city where, as I have already informed you, our humble *Sir* is translated into *Eccellenza*; for

*As Sir to Eccellenza, so House to Palace.*

EUCLID.



Indeed Euclid was perfectly at home in this palace, as you shall see presently. The *private gentleman* received me with Neapolitan politeness (*c'est tout dit*), regretted infinitely that his apartments were still in the occupancy of a *Signore Moscovita*; but assured me, that such was his partiality to the British nation, and his *knowledge of their generosity* and noble manner of acting, that he should contrive to put me in possession of the apartments in a week or ten days, the time necessary to give warning to the Russian gentleman. This most generous offer being civilly declined on my side, he added that, at all events, in less than three weeks, the gentleman would set off for Rome, when I might without scruple become his inmate. During this conversation, a lady, of about 17 or 18, was occupied at another table in executing an academical drawing. On admiring her proficiency, Donna Nicoletta was introduced as the daughter of the owner of the house. It was a copy of the Farnesian Hercules, the original of which I have since seen in the *Regii Studii*; and the young artist had faithfully copied rude antiquity in all its parts, owing probably to her having taken the design previously to the visit which a person of authority lately paid to the gallery of antiques now deposited in that museum; on which occasion, I have been told, an immediate and copious supply of brazen foliage, of various dimensions, was ordered to be attached, without regard to rank or distinction, whether *dii majorum* or *minorum gentium*, to all the inhabitants of Olympus, that

were found too fashionable in their attire: even poor *Kallipyga* was forced to submit to the dire commands of decorum; although, in her case, the admiration of the beholder would most probably be attracted in an antipodean direction.

"Here," you will exclaim, "is the hobby again capering from Donna Nicoletta to Venus Kallipyga! What a *saltum mortale*!" Do not, dear T. wrong your valetudinarian friend by suspecting too physical an association of ideas.

"The trifles on which you are good enough to lavish your praise," observed Sig. —, "are the fruits of my daughter's leisure hours: she shall shew you something more worthy of your attention." A Latin translation of the first canto of the *Gierusalem Liberata*, and an Italian one of two or three books of Euclid, enriched with Nicolettian notes, were now produced as the work of the philosophical damsel. Unfortunately, a rooted prejudice against very learned females not only rendered me totally insensible to the merits of her lucubrations, but even gave in my opinion to the very features of her countenance, which before had appeared attractive, an air of pedantry, that exerted its repellent power with such accumulated force, that I began to look for an opportunity of extricating myself from a society which I had not grace enough to appreciate.

What, in the name of goodness, thought I when I found myself without the walls of this place, will a man do with such a wife! if ever mortal has courage or simplicity enough to covet the possession of a woman, who will be de-



monstrating the binomial theorem when she ought to be cooking a comfortable dish of maccaroni for his dinner, or count dactyls instead of plaiting the radii of his shirt-frills into prismatic parallels. A simpleton he must be forsooth ! and indeed none but such a one will she elect, if we trust the Livian paradox, according to which, the most diametrically opposite qualifications, moral or physical, are soonest united in wedlock.

When you read this letter to Miss —, you had better skip the above ; tell her it contains private matter ; or, if you are under an absolute necessity to read it, I depend on your friendship for such an explanation of my sentiments as will convince her, that I intend by no means to exclude the lovely partners of our fortunes from the benefits of an enlightened education : 'tis a professedly literary career, an initiation in the more abstruse sciences, which I conceive utterly incompatible with the fulfilment of the important duties they owe to society.

The abode of this female sage being at no very great distance from the castle of St. Elmo, and more than half way up the mountain on which it is situated, I desired Don Giuseppe to lead the way. "Indeed the ascent is too steep for *you*, Sir ; you will be exhausted, and your curiosity ill repaid. What will you see there ? the sea, some ships, the town, a few pieces of brass cannon, all of which you have seen before : besides, I doubt whether the sentry will admit you." When all these objections were over-ruled, I learned the true cause of poor Joe's demur : he had eaten nothing

since his scanty breakfast : his services, under such circumstances, would have proved very ineffectual ; I therefore dispensed with his guidance, and reached the fortress by my own enquiries.

The *auri sacra fames*, which ere now has opened the gates of many an impregnable stronghold ; or, in plain English, three carlins delicately introduced into the palm of the corporal, procured me free access to the interior ; where, however, I met with nothing which could interest my curiosity : my attention was totally absorbed by the view of one of the most delightful prospects I had ever beheld. All Naples lay extended, like a map, at my feet ; the splendid mansion of the Carthusian monks of St. Martin, with the beautiful gardens belonging to it, directly under the walls of the castle ; the port crowded with masts ; at a distance, in the bay, two British frigates riding at anchor, as if disdaining to seek greater security from a more sheltered recess ; the marine skirts of the town lined with the mole and lighthouse ; the Castel Nuovo, Castel d'Uovo, Pizzofalcone, and the public gardens of Chiaia ; in the rear, old Vesuvius, detached from its parent, the mountain of Somma, or rather rising out of its bosom. But the scene baffles all description ; and to save myself a more minute detail, I enclose a hasty sketch, which I have since pencilled from the same point of view.

I have been told a curious circumstance which occurred when recently a detachment of our troops, in conjunction with the Neapolitans, besieged the French in this castle. The British had no sooner built



their huts at a convenient distance from the fortress, than many of the men were suddenly seized with violent vomitings, others with headache and languor, which rendered them unfit for duty. At first it was suspected that the French had poisoned the wells; but when it was found that other corps, which had used the same water, were in perfect health, it was feared that the plague, or some other epidemic disease, had infected the camp: the more so, as medicine, although administered immediately, produced no abatement in the symptoms. A sensible and skilful staff-surgeon, however, was fortunate enough to discover the true cause of the evil: the encampment being in the vicinity of a hemp field, the men had formed their huts with the stalks and leaves of that plant, the effluvia of which had exerted their intoxicating and stuporific qualities to the alarming degree above described. As soon therefore as the cause was removed, the evil ceased, without any further serious consequence.

I could have feasted my eyes for hours on the sublime scene before me, had not grosser organs reminded me of the humiliating truth, that man is not all mind. My stomach began to be in the same predicament as that of Don Giuseppe an hour ago: hunger hurried me down to the city, where I had nearly repented of the indulgence I had granted him. I totally lost my way, and became bewildered in a maze of small narrow lanes, the poor inhabitants of which answered my repeated enquiries with a good-natured, but to me unintelligible, Neapolitan *patois*. Fortunately, I met at last a Neapolitan officer, who

could speak *Italian*, and who was kind enough to conduct me to my inn, where, for the first time these four months, I dined with real appetite on the cold relics of the *table d'hôte*.

Before I close this long letter, I must give you a short description of a curious theatrical representation, at which I was present some days ago. The title of *Saul* induced me to expect a sacred oratorio; instead of which, I found the whole of the biblical narrative dramatized into a complete opera, not even omitting the incantations of the witch of Endor. The Neapolitans are more unreasonable than the ancient Romans; they would have *carnem et circenses* even in Lent-time: the former, I understand, they have been indulged with by a special, but by no means gratuitous, dispensation from the Holy See; and their eagerness for the latter has been gratified by the sacred kind of opera just mentioned, in which Signora P. made her first *debât* as a singer, in the character of David, and, I am told, attracted the particular notice of a British officer of rank. She is not yet a great singer, but bids fair to be one; her intonation is full and sweet, and her compass great: science, and an action more *dégagée*, and adapted to the stage, is all she wants; and which, at her age, she has time to acquire, for she does not appear to be more than sixteen. Add to this, a lovely face and figure, much resembling our Miss D.'s, and you will not tax me with unreasonable partiality. Mombelli, the first tenor, acted King Saul admirably: although he is *d'un certain age*, his voice penetrated every part of the



house; but it is in the recitatives he is most noble and impressive: his figure, step, and action, frequently put me in mind of Kemble. The music, Guglielmi's as I am told, has great merit; and a harp-air, in particular, of David's (not a psalm) in a minor key, was extremely affecting. Upon the whole, justice was not done to the composer by the orchestra, which was sensibly inferior to our's at the King's Theatre.

After one of the longest letters which have yet issued from my pen, I trust I may take leave of you with some degree of credit: the more so, as the pleasure I derive from writing to you has made me transgress the directions of the physician, who has most seriously cautioned me against sedentary occupation. My health, however, improves; at least my spirits are better, as you may have perceived yourself, from the preceding rhapsodies of

Your's, &c.

## BRITISH SPORTS.

(Continued from page 97.)

HAVING briefly adverted to the laws respecting animals, both wild and tame, we shall now proceed to describe the different kinds of dogs employed in the sports of the field, commencing with

### PLATE 8—THE POINTER.

The accurate representation of the pointer which accompanies our last number, renders it unnecessary to enlarge on the peculiarities of shape or colour of this species of dogs. It is supposed, and a variety of circumstances tend to confirm the conjecture, that this breed was formerly unknown in Britain; that it was first introduced into this country from Spain, not much more than two centuries since; and that the heavy awkward appearance of the Spanish pointer has been corrected by judicious crosses. These are so numerous that pointers are now to be seen of all sizes, colours, and qualifications; from the slow, short-muzzled, heavy-shouldered remains of the perfect Spanish pointer, incapable of a second day's work, to the in-and-in cross with a fox-hound,

which are never known to tire, and have frequently speed enough to catch a half-grown leveret, if it happens to start up before them.

It is not above thirty or forty years since the breed of pointers were nearly white, or mostly variegated with liver-coloured spots, except the celebrated stock of the Duke of Kingston, whose blacks were considered superior to any in the kingdom, and sold for very large sums after his death. But such has been the constantly increasing attachment to the sports of the field, that they have since been bred of every description, from a pure white, and a flea-bitten blue, or grey, to a complete liver-colour, or perfect black. After all the experiments that have been made by the best judges, and the most zealous amateurs, in respect to size, it seems at length to be a decided opinion with the majority, that when bred for every species of game, and diversity of country, it is advisable to avoid extremes; as over-grown, fat, and heavy dogs very soon grow weary, in the hot



and early part of the season ; and the smaller sort are attended with inconvenience in hunting high turnips, heath, ling, and broom fields.

Pointers, however well they may have been bred, are never considered complete, unless they are perfectly staunch to bird, dog, and gun, which implies, first, standing singly to a bird, or covey ; secondly, backing, or pointing instantly likewise, the moment one dog perceives another stand ; and lastly, not stirring from his own point at the rising of any bird, or the firing of any gun in the field, provided the game at which he made his original point is neither sprung nor started.

The natural disposition of the pointer, from its pliability and mildness, is admirably adapted to acquire these degrees of perfection ; for, independent of the attracting symmetry of his form, his unceasing attention and unwearied attachment, he possesses all those inexplicable qualities which are calculated to command the confidence of man.

The art of breaking pointers was formerly considered so difficult, that it was relinquished to a particular class of persons, who called themselves dog-breakers : but the simplicity of the method is now generally understood by sportsmen, who know that a tolerably well-bred pointer puppy may have the groundwork of all his future perfections laid in the parlour, or kitchen, before he once makes his appearance in the field. The instinct of this breed is frequently seen to display itself in subjects not more than three or four months old ; and in still and uninterrupted situations, puppies may be observed most earnestly standing at chickens, pigeons,

and even sparrows upon the ground by sight, before the olfactory powers can be supposed to have attained maturity to prompt a point by scent.

The education of a pointer may commence about the sixth or seventh month, but he should not be brought regularly into the field till full a year old. Pointers, though adequate to various kinds of sport, are principally employed in partridge, grouse, and snipe-shooting, in which their merits are more strikingly conspicuous, and can be more pleasingly enjoyed than in pheasant or cock-shooting, where the spirit of the pursuit is lost in the obscurity of the remote and wooded situation.

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#### PLATE 13.—THE SETTER.

The dog passing under this denomination is a species of pointer, originally produced by a mixture between the Spanish pointer and the larger breed of the English spaniel, which, by careful cultivation, has attained a considerable degree of estimation and celebrity, as well for its figure as its qualifications. In regard to figure, the setter is equally beautiful and attracting with any variety of the canine species. It possesses an elegant symmetry of shape, a pleasing variegation of colour, a diffidence, humility, and solicitation of notice, far beyond the power of the pen to express, or of the pencil to delineate.

The sporting department of the setter in the field, precisely corresponds with the pursuits and propensities of the pointer, but with this single variation : that, admitting their olfactory organs to be equally exquisite, and that the one can discover, and as expeditiously re-



ceive the particles of scent as the other, it is necessary for the one to effect upon his legs, what the other does by prostration on the ground. This difference is neither more nor less than the pure effect of sporting education; for as in shooting with the pointer, the game is always expected to rise, so in the use of a setting-dog and net, the game is required to lie. It must be obvious to all, how much the properties of animals depend on their education, and in confirmation of this, we may observe, that it is well known, that the gamekeeper of a gentleman near Odiham, in Hampshire, actually taught a full-grown pig to hunt the stubbles, quarter his ground, and point the birds in so high a style, as to obtain considerable emolument by repeated displays of his ingenuity, patience, and perseverance.

Although setting-dogs are in general used merely for the purpose of taking partridges with the draw-net, they are brought into occa-

sional use with the gun, and are equally adapted to that kind of sport, except in turnips, French wheat, standing clover, ling, furze, or other covert where their sudden drop and point may not be so readily observed. They may be brought into the field about the same age as the pointer, and broken in by the same means.

To this account we shall subjoin the lines in which Somerville so accurately describes the use and qualifications of the setter:—

When autumn smiles all beauteous in decay,  
And paints each chequer'd grove in various  
hues,

My setter ranges in the new-shorn fields,  
His nose in air erect; from ridge to ridge  
Panting he bounds, his quarter'd ground divides  
In equal intervals, nor careless leaves  
One inch untry'd. At length the tainted gales  
His nostrils wide inhale; quick joy elates  
His beating heart, which, aw'd by discipline  
Severe, he dares not own, but cautious creeps  
Low cowering step by step, at last attains  
His proper distance; there he stops at once,  
And points with his instructive nose upon  
The trembling prey. On wings of wind upborne  
The floating net unfolded flies; then drops,  
And the poor fluttering captives rise in vain.

## COMPOSITION FOR HEALING WOUNDS IN TREES.

WE have great satisfaction in submitting to our readers the following communication from Earl STANROPE, a nobleman whose studies have invariably been directed towards the advancement of those branches of useful science, which tend more particularly to promote the welfare of mankind in general.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE REPOSITORY, &c.

Berner's-street, Feb. 13, 1809.

SIR,

THE subject mentioned in your letter to me of yesterday's date, relative to the *healing of wounded trees*, is certainly very interesting; I will therefore (agreeably to your wish) inform you of my success, and in what manner I have obtained it.

The injury which is done to timber trees, and other trees, from the

loss of large branches, occasioned by wind, or otherwise, is much greater than people in general are aware of. Every attentive person may easily perceive the *local* injury which takes place at and near the wound where the tree becomes evidently rotten; but there is, in addition thereto, a *general* injury to the tree, which is produced in the following manner. When wet gets in at the wounded part, it finds its



way downwards, between the solid wood and the bark, through the capillary intervals where the sap rises. As the wet, so introduced, cannot get out, it frequently tends to cause the bark to decay at the bottom of the tree, just above, or at the top of the ground. The capillary attraction, which causes the sap to rise, grows gradually weaker; the tree gets sickly; the tips of its upper boughs become rotten; and that fresh injury lets in more wet, which hastens the *general* decay: so that timber trees of the first size sometimes become hollow, or otherwise unsound, though the whole injury originated, perhaps, from the loss of a single large branch.

To remedy these evils, I have applied to the wounds a composition that I discovered many years ago, and which, when properly used, has succeeded even beyond my expectation; for not only the *bark* grows over the wounds, gradually pushing off the composition, but even the *white wood*, as it is commonly called, grows under the new bark, so as to produce a radical and a complete *local cure*. Whether the local cure thus accomplished, will, or will not, stop the *general* decay, which proceeds from the united causes I have alluded to, will depend upon the degree of general injury that the tree had received previously to the composition having been applied, and likewise on the number of small branches, or boughs, broken off; inasmuch as a tree can receive, in the manner I have described, the same degree of general injury from several broken boughs, as it may from the loss of one branch of the largest dimensions. Wounds of an

uncommon size in the bark of the trunk of the tree itself, have been completely healed by the same means. I have tried this plan on a great number of different sorts of trees, and I have always succeeded, if the composition was properly applied, and in due time: one application of the composition will frequently be quite sufficient, but some trees require it to be applied more than once. The elm, when very vigorous, is, generally speaking, of the latter description, on account of the great quantity of sap which weeps from its wounds, especially when the wounds are of a considerable size.

Oak, beech, chesnut, walnut, ash, elm, cedar, fir, asp, lime, sycamore, and birch trees, are, by an act of parliament of the 6th year of his present majesty, deemed and taken to be timber trees; and by an act of the 13th of the king, poplar, alder, larch, maple, and hornbeam, are also deemed and taken to be timber trees. The trial has been made on the greater number of these seventeen sorts, as well as on yew, horse-chesnut, and apple-trees, on various fruit and other trees, laurels, and shrubs.

If it be wished to saw the limb off, either *close* to the body of the tree, or *near* to it, great care should be taken that the separated limb, in falling, does not tear off the *bark* from the tree itself. This may be accomplished by first separating from the tree the greater part of the limb, and then taking off the remaining stump, and also by sawing the bark of the limb completely all around before the wood itself is divided. If the limb be a very large one, a rope properly tied to it may



be advantageously used, to prevent its injuring the tree at the moment of its being separated from it.

After the broken limb has been sawed off, the whole of the *saw-cut* must be very carefully pared away, by means of a spoke-shaver, chisel, or other very sharp tool; and the rough edges of the bark must, in particular, be made quite smooth: the doing of this properly is of great consequence.

When the *saw-cut* is completely pared off, the composition hereafter mentioned must be laid on, hot, about the thickness of half-a-crown, over the wounded place, and over the edges of the surrounding bark: it should be spread with a hot trowel. The most convenient tool for this purpose, is a trowel some-

what similar in form to those used by plasterers, but of a greater thickness (such as of a quarter of an inch), in order to retain the heat the longer.

The *healing composition* is to be made as follows: Take, of dry pounded chalk, *three measures*; and of common vegetable tar, *one measure*; mix them thoroughly, and boil them, with a low heat, till the composition becomes of the consistency of bees-wax: it may be preserved for use, in this state, for any length of time. If chalk cannot conveniently be got, dry brick-dust, which has passed through a fine sieve, may be substituted.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

STANHOPE.

## TO THE EDITOR OF THE REPOSITORY, &c.

SIR,

OBSERVING, on the cover of your *Magazine*, your liberal offer of gold and silver medals for the best essays on different subjects relating to the *arts, manufactures, and commerce* of this country, I was happy to see, among them, one for the best *essay on agriculture*; on which subject I shall take the liberty of offering you a few remarks, queries, and observations, not as a candidate for your medal, but as an occasional correspondent, as I very much approve of the new and very useful plan of your *Repository*.

If the following lines should be found worthy of your notice, I may in future be induced to renew the subject; not as a closet farmer, but as one who has for many years repeatedly gone through all the toils

of all the various operations belonging to agriculture. As I have not spent much time in the study, you must not expect any florid periods or elegance of style; my only ambition is, to communicate my ideas in a plain intelligible way, so as to impress my subject on the minds of those readers who may have a taste for farming. If any of them should receive one useful hint from my observations, I shall be highly compensated in doing my duty as a member of that community, which must ever be interested in all that concerns the improvement of agriculture.

The ameliorations that have gradually taken place in all the modes of cultivating the various soils of the British Isles, within the last half century, have been almost innumerable. The increase of produce has



hitherto more particularly engaged the pen of the theorist, as well as the practical exertions of the farmer; but the preservation of that accumulated produce, from the time of its maturity to the period of its consumption, has not yet sufficiently engaged either the pen of the farmer, or the practice of the latter.

Whether it be that the appearance of great produce, when seen in the bulk, and, consequently, more conspicuous to the eye, fascinates men's minds, and induces them to pay more attention to increase than preservation; or that the various and imperceptible kinds of waste to which agricultural produce is incident, after arriving at maturity, are so gradual, so diversified and divided, as to appear but trifling in the aggregate, and not

sufficient to rouse their attention, I shall not presume to determine. Experience, however, seems to favour the adoption of the latter hypothesis.

If all the waste to which the produce of a farm is liable, could be seen at once, its measure and value would surprise the farmer, and its aggregate astonish the agricultural world: perhaps it might not be too much to assert, that it would far exceed the amount of our greatest importation in any one year.

I shall endeavour, in a future communication, to point out the different species of waste, and suggest some modes that may probably prevent some of the most injurious.

AN ECONOMIST.

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### TO THE EDITOR OF THE REPOSITORY, &c.

SIR,

AMONG the various articles that are daily obtruded on the public as new inventions, two instruments have lately been ushered into notice with much parade, professedly under the protection of his majesty's royal letters patent, on which I wish to be permitted to make a few remarks in your valuable *Repository*.

The instruments to which I allude are announced for sale by the patentees, under the firm of the "Instantaneous Fire and Light Company," who claim an exclusive right to their sale; and presume to tell the public, that "these instruments are of the latest invention, and pronounced, by the most eminent philosophers and chemists of the present day, to be highly useful, and a truly scientific curiosi-

ty;" and farther, "that the advantage of the machines consists in an instantaneous production of fire and light, without risk or danger, there being no combustible substance employed." Fire and light produced without the employment of any combustible substance! Excellent chemists! I suppose we shall next have them taking out a patent for transmuting, not *brass*, but *wood*, into gold.

The first of these wonderful instruments, I have no hesitation in saying, is nothing more than Volta's lamp disguised in a wooden box; an instrument as old as the writer of these remarks, and invented by the celebrated philosopher from whom it takes its name: many, indeed, call it the philosophical plaything; perhaps not a



very inappropriate term. This instrument is better known on the Continent than in this country, tho' numbers have been made years ago even here. If any gentleman doubts this, I can easily satisfy him of the fact, if he will call at my house, where Volta's lamp, or instantaneous light-machine, may be seen; its construction fully explained, and the most indubitable proof given of its having been many years ago made by an artist, whose name was ranked with those of eminence in his day, and whose scientific papers merited a place in the Transactions of the Royal Society: the artist I mean, is Mr. Nairne. The instrument thus constructed, is fully as good as the patent one, and the principle is the same.

To the natural philosopher it is unnecessary to say any thing on the merits of this machine; but to those gentlemen who have had no opportunity of devoting their time to science, a few remarks, by way of caution, may not be improper.—They may be assured, then, that no absolute dependance can be placed on the machines producing fire “by turning a key,” since the excitation, or electricity, of the electrophorus, is very often destroyed in a few hours by the humidity of the atmosphere, or other meteorological causes; so that a person having occasion for instantaneous light in a moment of peril, may be as often disappointed as assisted, and thus be plunged into inextricable distress by his credulity.

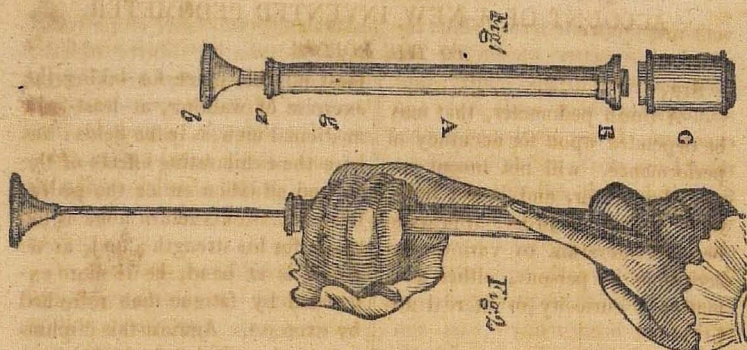
And when the patentees have the boldness to assert, “that there is no danger in the machine, nor any

inflammable substance employed,” I would take the liberty to ask, whether they have never been known to explode in a terrible manner; and whether hydrogen gas be not one of the most inflammable, and one of the most dangerous of inflammable substances? for it is this gas in the machine that is fired by the electrical spark, when it can be procured. I say when it can be procured; for this electrical phenomenon is extremely capricious; a fact but too well known to all lecturers on natural philosophy, when they have attempted to give experimental proofs of their assertions.

Enough having been said to shew that this instrument is neither new nor certain in its effects, I shall proceed to make some remarks on another instrument included in the same patent, and called “An Instantaneous Fire-cane.” From the words of the patent, it will be seen that this, as well as the other, was communicated by a foreigner to Mr. Lorentz, the person who took out the patent for the supposed inventions.

Now it has been well known to men of science for years, that condensation of air raises its temperature, and that this may be carried so far as to ignite combustible substances; an experiment which has been frequently exhibited to public auditories, as an instrument applicable to this purpose has long been in common sale. The annexed figure represents that which I have usually made and sold; and I shall give a brief description of its construction, with the mode of using it for the production of fire.





*Description of the Pyropneumatic Apparatus.*

The cylinder A, fig. 1, is about nine inches long, and half an inch in diameter: it terminates in a screw at B, on which screws the magazine C, intended to hold matches, a bougie, and some fungus. A steel rod, A, is attached to a solid piston, or plunger, not shewn in the figure, it being within the tube. This rod has a milled head, B; and at G there is a small hole in the tube to admit the air, when the piston is drawn up to the top, where a piece unscrews, for the purpose of applying oil or grease to the piston. I have found lard to answer the end best.

*Method of using it.*

Take from the magazine a small piece of fungus, and place it in the chamber at B: screw the piece C tight on B, and draw the piston up by the end B, till it stops at A. Hold the instrument with both hands in the manner represented in fig. 2; place the end B on a table, or against any firm body, either in a perpendicular, horizontal, or vertical direction, and force the piston down to B with as much rapidity as possible. This rapid compression of

the air will cause the fungus to take fire. Instantly after the stroke of the piston, unscrew the magazine C, when the air will rush in, and keep up the combustion till the fungus is consumed. Observe, in lighting a match, the fungus must be lifted up a little from the chamber, so as to allow the match to be introduced beneath it, otherwise it will not kindle.

Here it may be remarked, the instrument thus constructed, has a decided advantage over the fire-cane, where the fungus is inserted at such a depth as not easily to be got at: it is only about half the price, and it is very portable, so that a gentleman may easily carry it in his pocket, without the incumbrance of a stick, that has more resemblance to the club of Hercules, than to a fashionable or ordinary walking stick.

I am, Sir,

Your obedient humble servant,  
R. BANCKS.

No. 441, Strand.

N. B. Common tinder might be used instead of the fungus; and various other bodies may be ignited by this apparatus.



## ACCOUNT OF A NEW INVENTED PEDOMETER.

TO THE EDITOR.

Sir,

A good pedometer, that may be depended upon for accuracy of performance, will not inconvenience the wearer, and is not liable to be put out of order, appears to be a desideratum to various descriptions of persons, either as a matter of curiosity or of real utility.

Many a sportsman, after having been out for hours in pursuit of game, would be highly gratified in knowing, with accuracy, how much ground he had actually traversed.

To the scientific traveller it would often be an advantage, to know the distance from one place to another, where he cannot take an actual measurement for want of time or proper instruments, and has no resource but a random guess, or the time he has spent on the road; which must necessarily be liable to much uncertainty, from difference of ground and occasional delays.

Of the pleasantness and salubrity of the exercise of walking, there can be no question; and to all who are fond of it, a good pedometer is at least an agreeable companion: but to the valetudinarian it is more; it is an important monitor. Though this kind of exercise is extremely salutary in nervous affections in particular, and to convalescents it requires regulation, it must not by any means exceed due limits: these limits, it may be said, can always be ascertained by the feelings of the patient, who may desist from walking the moment he begins to be sensible of fatigue; but this is not true, as I, a valetudinarian myself, have often found by experience. The

most eligible place for taking the exercise of walking, at least in a medicinal view, is in the fields: but here the exhilarating effects of the air and situation entice the pedestrian on, till his return home is too much for his strength; and, as no coach is at hand, he is more exhausted by fatigue than refreshed by exercise. Against this circumstance, the effects of which I have felt severely more than once, a good pedometer would be perhaps the most effectual guard.

I have been led, Sir, to these reflections, by the inspection of a pedometer invented by Mr. Gout, for which that gentleman has a patent, and which has lately fallen in my way. As he has an exclusive right to it, a minute description of its mechanism would be superfluous; but it appears to me to be constructed on as simple and accurate principles as such an instrument will admit. It is about the size of a large pocket watch, or rather more than two inches in diameter only, worn like it in a fob; and as there is no chain to affix it to any part, and a common watch is included in the same case, it answers the purpose of a watch, and is not the least additional incumbrance. Its mode of action is by a lever, of no great length, which is affixed to the ring of the pendant, and moves with the greatest ease every time a step is taken with the foot on that side on which it is worn; a circle on the dial-plate notes every step as far as ten; another notes every ten steps as far as a hundred; and a third notes every hundred steps as far as ten thousand. The wheel-work is



very simple, and so contrived, that the hands may be set to <sup>0</sup> with as little trouble as a watch is set to any given hour; so that, when you have reached the end of your walk, or are in any part of it, you can tell at once the number of paces you have gone, without the trouble of subtracting.

An objection has been made to pedometers, which militates equally against every contrivance of the sort, however perfect in its construction. This it is proper to notice, as it has had great weight with many to decline their use, though in fact it is of trifling import. It has been said, a pedometer must be of no utility, because different people walk at very different rates. They do so; but the intention of the instrument is to measure distances, not directly, but indirectly, by the number of steps taken. Thus, one person may make a thousand and fifty paces in the distance of a

mile, at his common rate of walking; another may make twelve hundred, and a third may not make above a thousand. This each must ascertain for himself; which, when once done, he will easily compute the distance walked, as the instrument registers with accuracy the number of paces taken. It has been further said, that no man walks at all times alike: this is in some respects true, particularly when a man is in company with others; but I believe it will be found to be the fact, that a man, from mere habit, will walk pretty nearly at an average rate, especially for any distance; and any one who wishes to measure ground with some nicety by the instrument, a little practice will enable to do so with far greater accuracy than most people would suppose.

I am, Sir,

Your very obedient servant,  
TECHNOPHILOS.

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### TO THE EDITOR OF THE REPOSITORY, &c.

SIR,

THE interest which the British nation in general has taken in the contest so nobly maintained by the Spaniards against the infamous aggressions of Bonaparte, will naturally make it solicitous respecting the final result; and however earnest its wishes may be for their success, yet recent events cannot but impress upon the minds of those who reflect, the fears that he may in the end triumph over all the obstacles which a brave and loyal people can throw in his way.

It may then become an enquiry of the greatest moment, in what

way to dispose of those who, rather than reside under the sway of an usurper, chuse to quit their country, and doubtless there will be many of this description. To convey them to South America, may, from the length of the voyage and other circumstances, be impracticable; but it perhaps may be possible to point out countries which, at the same time that they might afford them an asylum, would procure Britain allies and advantages of the greatest importance to her future interests.

It is evident that new settlers will require new habitations, food, and



clothing; and they must either take with them a sufficiency of the two last, or depend upon importations for the necessary supply.

To do this, not only requires time, but is attended with an immense expence, if the number to be provided for is great; and in this instance, of a people quitting their country, the number cannot be ascertained: of themselves, they cannot be supposed to have the means, and must therefore depend upon their friends. It becomes, then, a consideration of no little moment where to place them, so as to obviate these difficulties. The situation, climate, and produce of the Delta and the Crimea, seem peculiarly adapted to receive them. The Delta produces, with little or no cultivation, grain and fruits of all kinds necessary for the sustenance of man; and a small portion of labour cultivates a large tract of ground.

Habitations, where little or no rain falls, are easily erected, and clothing is not the greatest of human wants. The Spaniards, habituated to a warm climate, would not find themselves incommoded by a heat that scarcely exceeds that of the northern provinces of their own kingdom more than two or three degrees, except at the period of the scirocco, and then for only a few hours. Indolence, to which, as in common with all the natives of hot climates, they are more or less inclined, would here still meet with its usual indulgence. Food could be readily obtained: the productions of their native clime all flourish here with, perhaps, increased luxuriance; and the rich and productive plains of the Delta would

afford pasture for their favourite sheep, and probably increase the produce of that valuable animal. As a place of residence, therefore, for the Spaniards, in the event of their abandoning their country, Egypt appears to hold out inducements not possessed by any other, except the Crimea, the paradise of ancient Greece. The productions of this country and its climate are also similar to those of Spain: besides which, it enjoys many other advantages all conducive to the comforts of its inhabitants. Considered in a political point of view, they both possess advantages that cannot be overlooked, even by the most superficial observer. Egypt, colonized by the friends of Great Britain, would form an impenetrable barrier to the French in their long-projected invasion of our East Indian territories; and would, at the same time, afford an opening for the disposal of a great quantity of our manufactures; in exchange for which they would give us safflower, natron, rice, dates, cotton, coffee, drugs, &c.

The occupation of Egypt would naturally be followed by that of the islands of Cyprus, Crete, Rhodes, &c. all productive, salubrious, and easily defensible; offering not only the productions of warmer climates, but also inexhaustible forests of valuable timber.

The Crimea, and the coasts of the Black Sea, present also, independently of their political value, sources of commerce of the highest consideration to Great Britain, as a point from which her manufactures may with ease be dispersed through all Persia, Georgia, Circassia, &c. which would return raw silk, drugs,



&c.; and, above all, as affording the best ship timber perhaps in the world, with the easiest means of obtaining it, together with all the other requisites for forming a navy. To this may be added, the finest corn in the world, and in the greatest abundance. In the event, therefore, of these two countries being occupied by the Spaniards, Great Britain might find it her interest to declare Malta a free port, and make it a general *dépôt* for her manufactures. The productions of Egypt, the Levant, Crimea, and the Black Sea, would then be brought thither to barter and form a mart of the greatest consequence: she would also, from the facility of procuring the requisites of forming a navy, find it her interest to establish, in that island, dock-yards for the building of ships of war, the cost of which would probably not exceed one half of the present expence.

Another consideration of importance is, that the adoption of this measure would prevent France from procuring the necessary supplies for her dock-yards at Toulon, except at an enormous expence, and at a very great distance. I would also propose that corn should be stored in Malta, where it would keep good for any number of years, and prove of particular utility to Britain in a time of scarcity. The local advantages of the Crimea are many: it possesses one of the most productive gold mines of the old world, called Tehedia Dagua, and which was worked by the Genoese when they were masters of the country. Its fields produce spontaneously, asparagus, grapes, melons, walnuts, and filberts of remarkable size. Seasons gradually succeeding

each other, unite with the excellence of the soil to favour the most luxuriant vegetation. The soil consists of a black virgin mould, mixed with sand, and the heat of the sun brings to perfection all sorts of grain with very little cultivation.

The Crimea seems to be the native country of quails, which, towards the end of August, collect, and making choice of one of those serene days when the northerly wind, blowing at sunset, promises a fine night, begin their flight, and complete their passage by day-break to the northern shores of the Black Sea. They thence proceed into a warmer climate; and, in their progress, afford food for the inhabitants of the countries through which they pass, who take them in nets in large quantities.

Cassa, a large and safe harbour, is situated in the most northern part of the Crimea, at the junction of the Black Sea with the Sea of Asoph. This port, besides its extent and security, is in the neighbourhood of vast forests, which would furnish excellent ship timber. Many other safe and commodious harbours are situated upon its shores, and the general face of the country, except towards the isthmus, is beautiful and productive. In the event, therefore, of Bonaparte obtaining complete possession of Spain, I think the advantages that would arise to Great Britain from having these two countries, or one of them, occupied by her friends, is so apparent as to render it a matter of serious consideration whether preparations for that event should not be immediately made by our ministers.—Egypt would, without difficulty



receive the emigrants, if, in the first instance, protected by a British force; and the Crimea, if preferred, would most probably render the Turks our real and firm friends, inasmuch as the occupation of it in that way would plant a barrier between them and the Russians, to whom it now belongs.

## HISTORY, MANUFACTURE, AND PROPERTIES OF SUGAR.

HAVING in our preceding numbers introduced some communications relative to the history and mode of preparing coffee, our readers will not think a few particulars respecting its usual concomitant, sugar, inappropriate.

The ancients were incontestibly acquainted with the sugar-cane, and the sweet juice which it yields; for Strabo observes, that in India, the cane produces honey without bees. Pliny informs us that Arabia yields sugar, but of inferior quality to that of India. Lucan also mentions it as a juice, and says,

*Bibunt tenerâ dulces ab arundine succos.*

Varro likewise tells us, that a juice resembling honey is expressed from the roots of the Indian cane. The first writer, however, who makes mention of sugar, is Dioscorides, who describes it as concrete honey, prepared from certain canes in India, and breaks to pieces between the teeth like salt. We may therefore safely conclude, that this first sugar was nothing but the juice which had exuded from the canes, and was dried by the sun to the consistence of a gum. Nevertheless, so much is certain that the extraction of sugar from the cane in the manner in which it is now practised, is a modern invention, and was wholly unknown to the ancients, as Saumaise has demonstrated.

There is reason to believe that the

sugar-cane was introduced into Europe during the crusades: expeditions which, however romantic in their plan, and unsuccessful in their execution, were productive of many advantages to the nations of Europe. Albertus Aquensis, a monkish writer, observes, that the Christian soldiers in the Holy Land frequently derived refreshment and support during a scarcity of provisions, by sucking the canes. This plant flourished also in the Morea, and in the islands of Rhodes and Malta, from which it was transported to Sicily and Spain. In Sicily, where the sugar-cane still flourishes on the sides of Mount Hybla, it appears to have been cultivated previous to 1166; for Lafitau, the Jesuit, who wrote a history of the discoveries of the Portuguese, mentions a donation made in that year to the monastery of St. Benedict, by William II. King of Sicily, of a mill for grinding sugar-canes, with all its rights and appurtenances.

Though the date of this invention cannot now be ascertained, yet we know, that for many centuries so little sugar was made, that it cannot be considered as an article of commerce, till the Spaniards and Portuguese made themselves masters of this art, and transplanted it to Madeira and the West Indies. Madeira received its name from its impenetrable forests. These being burned by



accident, the Portuguese planted the island with vines and sugar-canes, which they brought from Malvasia and Sicily.

Among the articles which Columbus carried out to the colonies of the New World was the sugar-cane: nevertheless, we are told that it was first conveyed to Hispaniola from the Canary Islands, by Aguilon, a Spaniard, in 1506. Some assert, that it grew in America long before it was employed for making sugar. Thus it was found in abundance, in 1555, near Bahia in Brasil; and even of late years, the Portuguese have been supplied with canes by the savages of that country, to stock new plantations.

About the year 1580, the cultivation of the sugar-cane was general in the West Indies, and the use of sugar grew very common all over Europe. Previously to that period, it was much used in Germany and Sweden. The art of refining it was taught the English chiefly by Germans; and indeed, even at the present day, almost all the men employed in sugar-houses in London, and called sugar-bakers, belong to that nation.

As early as the reign of Edward IV. who died in 1483, sweet-meats, in the language of that day call *suttelties*, were served up by way of dessert at the enthronization of the Archbishop George Neville. They not only represented dolphins and other animals, but whole hosts of saints, prophets, patriarchs, and angels appeared on the table in honour of the day as *suttelties* of sugar. That article, however, was still too rare and too costly to be generally employed for culinary purposes. It was only used at table, for sprink-

ling certain dishes, and sweetening wine. So late as the sixteenth century it was classed among the spices. The Turks at an early period used an amazing quantity of sugar with their sherbet; and though they might not at that time have received the whole of it from the West Indies, they could with greater facility procure it from the East, from Bengal, the native country of the sugar-cane.

Various substances have at different periods, and in different countries, been employed for the same purposes as sugar.—The sweet pleasant juice which distils from a species of cocon-tree when the blossoms are cut off, is baked by means of hot stones, till it assumes the consistence of honey; and at length, by repeating this process, it is converted into a kind of sugar. The saguer palm yields black sugar, and the jagara red. The juice of the grape, boiled to the thickness of honey, is called by the Turks *pekmes*, and by the Persians *duschap*. Both kinds are very commonly used in the East; but the latter is a mixture of the syrup of grapes with cream or butter. Of this grape-syrup, which is the honey that we are told Jacob's sons took with them to Egypt, many camel loads are still carried annually from Palestine to that country. In Mexico and New Spain, a juice is obtained from the American aloe, by cutting or breaking off the leaves near the root, from which honey, and by a further process, sugar, may also be manufactured. In Arabia, the natives make from all the species of dates, what they term *dibs* or date-honey, which is eaten with bread. In Canada, a similar syrup is extracted from the maple. Incl-



sions are made in the trunk of the tree: the juice which distils from them is received in vessels placed for the purpose, and boiled to the consistence of syrup. From this syrup, sugar is made in such abundance in North America, that considerable quantities of it are exported to Europe. No vegetable, however, that we know of, has yet been found to yield sugar so nearly resembling that of the cane in every respect, as the beet-root. This has been demonstrated by the experiments of Mr. Achard, a celebrated German chemist; but we are of opinion that the heavy expence attending the process of manufacturing sugar from that substance, will prevent it from ever being of general utility.

The method of making sugar from the sugar-cane, is as follows: The juice is expressed by means of rollers, in mills constructed for the purpose, and received into a leaden bed, whence it is conveyed into a vessel called the receiver. As the juice has a strong disposition to fermentation, it must be boiled within twenty-four hours. This operation is performed in coppers, out of which the liquor is removed into shallow wooden vessels, called coolers. As the liquor cools, the sugar grains, that is, collects into an irregular mass of imperfect crystals, separating itself from the molasses or treacle. The contents of the cooler are then put into hogsheads, the bottoms of which are pierced with eight or ten holes, to allow the molasses to drain off into a cistern beneath. The sugar after this operation becomes pretty fair, and is called muscovado, or raw sugar. By means of repeated solution, boiling, skimming, &c. this is first convert-

ed into cassonado, a purer kind of raw sugar, and afterwards into white, or refined and double refined.

As sugar is used in so many different ways in the preparation of various articles of food, it may not be amiss to subjoin a few words respecting the properties which the best-informed physicians have ascribed to it: though on this subject, as well as on too many others, the greatest discordance of opinion prevails.

Sugar promotes digestion, and clears the stomach and intestines of viscous matters and other crudities. It expels worms, and by preventing the secretion of fatty particles from the blood, it checks a disposition to corpulence. It acts as a gentle caustic, and cleanses wounds when it is finely pulverized and sprinkled upon them; and in the same state, if blown into the eye, it removes specks and film from that organ. But by far the most important property possessed by sugar, is the antiseptic quality, which is particularly manifested in the preservation of animal and vegetable substances, and which must render it extremely serviceable in correcting the tendency to putrefaction, inherent in the juices of the human body.

Previously to the measures recently adopted by the present ruler of France for the purpose of destroying the commerce of Britain, this country supplied the greatest part of continental Europe with sugar. The prohibition of the introduction of British commodities into the ports of every country under French controul, or influence, occasioned our markets to be over-stocked with colonial produce, to the no small embarrassment of the proprietors of



West India estates. At the same time, there was every reason to apprehend, that we should be cut off from those supplies of corn, which, of late years, Great Britain has received from foreign countries, to the amount of one eighth of her annual consumption. The legislature having taken these circumstances into consideration, wisely resolved to afford some relief to the West India planters, by authorizing the use of sugar and molasses in the breweries and distilleries, and prohibiting that

of corn in the latter. This substitution has consequently permitted large quantities of grain before consumed in those establishments to be applied to other purposes, and obviated the necessity of importing to an equal amount; while, on the other hand, it has produced a considerable rise in sugars, and thus in this respect also, accomplished the end for which it was designed.

Subjoined is a statement of sugar in the warehouses on the 1st of February, 1809 :

17,776 hhds. 14,596 trs. 1,830 bls. and 9,585 chests of sugar.

## FASHIONS OF THE PRESENT AND PAST TIMES COMPARED.

### TO THE EDITOR.

SIR,

PERMIT an amateur of the fine arts, to offer his tribute of admiration at the superior taste and science with which that department of the *Repository* devoted to the existing *costume*, is executed.

It is in the contemplation of *ideal* beauty, that our taste improves and refines; and although we cannot form a conception of the perfection of the *nude*, beyond what the cold contours of the sculptured *Apollos* and *Venuses* convey to us (for with these the most perfect living human form cannot stand the test of comparison); yet a beautiful female figure, set off in an elegant dress, which conceals blemishes, and displays only attractions, by giving a full scope to the busy power of the imagination, leaves us nothing more beautiful to admire or wish for.

The present revolution in female

dress, is not of long date; it is derived immediately from our hostile neighbours, who, having laid all Europe under contribution (with the exception of the British Isles), made a judicious selection, and a truly scientific arrangement of all the precious relics of antiquity, and then threw open the superb collection for the inspection of the public. A people less acute and sensible than the French, could not fail of improving their taste by the frequent examination of such treasures; but our lively neighbours fancied that they could improve even on perfection. The exposure of a fine arm in some of the draped statues, led them to suppose that the Grecian *belles* always exposed their arms and shoulders, which was by no means the case. A Grecian lady *sometimes* suffered her right arm to escape from its cincture, which was



formed of the sleeve, or rather fold of the tunic, and confined just below the shoulder by the fibula or clasp; but this was done occasionally, and in private only, as when playing on the lyre.

By following the style of dress, and the arrangement of drapery in these fine remains of antiquity, the present taste has happily emancipated the ladies from all the ridiculous lumber of the late fashions; from systems and powder, whalebone and cork, flounces and furbelows, and pockets and pincushions; and our British fair, reverting to their native good sense, begin also to perceive, that it is quite natural to cover bosoms, shoulders, and elbows, in cold weather.

It is surprising, during the frenzy of revolutionizing, that the French, with the Brutuses and Catos constantly before them, made no efforts to effect a similar revolution in the male costume. The dress of the men, among the ancients, when the *pallium*, or Grecian cloak, and the *toga*, or Roman robe, were put off, differed in nothing from that of the women, except that the tunics or inner garments were shorter. How ridiculous would a Paris, an Alcibiades, or a Cicero in the act of pleading, appear, even in idea, braced and bandaged up to the ears in buckram and buckskin? Indeed, our Gothic apparel is so absurd, unbecoming, and inconvenient, impeding the circulation and confining the joints by ligatures and compresses, that our painters and sculptors do not dare to represent a modern hero in his modern clothes; or if the former do so, they generally strip him to his shirt, or conceal his awkward skirts in a robe. The fat

figure of Sir Clondesley Shovel, which reposes in Westminster Abbey, has been transmitted by Pope to the ridicule of all posterity, with his full-bottomed periwig, whose

“Eternal buckles wave in Parian stone.”

I have been led into this discussion, by having met, in an old and scarce book, an account of the dress of our ancestors, during the gloomy period of the commonwealth. I subjoin the extract; by which it appears, that the fashions were then to the full as capricious, and infinitely more ridiculous, than they are at present.

“Men (exclaims my author) are become absolute apes! One while, in a narrow-brimmed hat, and a long waist, his breeches to his knees, boots with boot-hose tops, and great gingling spurs; their feet as long as their legs, or at least as long again as their foot naturally, as in the years 1645 and 1646. In 1648 and 1649, a broad-brimmed hat, and no other must serve; our breeches must be long, even down to our ankles; boots with tops trailing on the ground, little spurs that must not gingle in the least. In 1650 and 1651, we tumble into short breeches again. In 1652, and the present year, 1653, we think it ridiculous to wear boots, but altogether shoes and stockings, turning down with a top, as the French ladies have used to go these many years. One while we have two long curling locks on both sides of our heads; anon all the whole side must be of a length, and short behind. Thus verifying the old proverb:—*That we English know not when a thing is well.*

“It were vain in me thus to recite

Z



the several alterations and imitations in the garbs of women, since every day produceth a new toy : wherefore I shall only name some of their darling trifles, viz. their embroidered, curled, and powdered hair ; their washings, paintings, waters, and pomatoes to their faces ; and when they have done all, their several sorts of patches, half-moons, stars, round, triangled, quadrangled, pointed, little, great, long, and short ; vainly and foolishly hereby imagining to make themselves handsomer than God has created them, or is willing they should be ; and choosing rather to please themselves than him. Nay, though it be to the displeasing of him, they must and will do it : what care they ? their face is their god, they look no further, they believe no other, they care for no more ! ”

Fifty years after, fashions became more gaudy and cumbersome,

but not more cleanly ; as appears from Swift's “ *Description of a Lady's Dressing-room*. ” The universal applause which this poem received, is of itself a proof, however just and lively the satire, of the coarseness of the prevailing taste ; like some of the satires of Juvenal, it was written with the best intentions, and no doubt contributed to effect a reform. But to the credit of the present day, the remedy would now be too disgusting to be endured.

The deterioration of the species of which Horace complains, might be made applicable to ourselves by a morose moralist ; but the reverse is perhaps true of our manners and taste :

*Ætas parentum, pejor avis, tulit  
Nos nequiores.—*

*Hor. c. vi. l. 3.*

I am, &c.

W.

## RETROSPECT OF POLITICS.

IN our last number, the retrospect of politics went no further than the time when it was known in England, that the British army under Sir John Moore had commenced its retreat. We are sure that all our readers can easily recal to their recollection the pleasing hopes which they indulged, when they heard of the movement of Sir John Moore against Marshal Soult, and of the junction formed between the armies of Sir John Moore, Sir David Baird, and General Romana. Relying much upon the military talents of these generals, on the number and bravery of the united army under their command, and on the just and

glorious cause which was then at issue, we felt, in common with all our countrymen, a strong wish and confident expectation that this army of Marshal Soult would have been attacked and defeated, and that the British army would have thus made a powerful diversion in aid of the cause of Spain, and of the civilized world. Our hopes were, however, disappointed ; and in our last number we stated with sincere affliction, that the British army, which, after a long march, had come so close to the enemy against whom they advanced, that their outposts were absolutely touching those of Soult's army, thought it prudent to commence



their retreat, in consequence of information received by General Romana, that Bonaparte had set out from Madrid, at the head of his whole army, for the purpose of cutting off the retreat of the British. This afflicting news was first communicated to the country by the insertion in the London Gazette of an abstract of Sir John Moore's official dispatches, stating the retreat of the British army to have been determined on in consequence of that information. It has been since explained in parliament, that the reason why the dispatches of Sir John Moore were not published fully, was, that he was so extremely hurried at the time he wrote them, as to be conscious that they were not fit to meet the public eye, and that he therefore left it to his majesty's ministers to publish what parts of them they should think proper. He sent an intelligent and gallant officer, General Stewart, to give the government every possible information as to the actual state of affairs in Spain. At the same time he thought, that the public would also very naturally expect that the messenger would bring with him official dispatches, to inform the nation of the situation of their army in Spain: he therefore wrote a long detailed account, confiding it to the discretion of ministers to publish what they should think proper.

It is strongly believed, that ministers had another and a better reason for not publishing the whole of Sir John Moore's dispatches. It had been generally supposed in this country, that all the provinces of Spain were actuated by one enthusiastic spirit in the defence of the king whom they had chosen, and of the

independence of their country. The British army, however, did not discover any of this spirit in those parts of Spain through which their march lay, except in the town of Corunna. It is therefore considered probable, and it is believed, that the dispatches of Sir John Moore, giving a fair account of the actual situation of things, mentioned the apathy and indifference to the public cause which prevailed in the north of Spain. These things, though very proper for government to be informed of, were not, however, proper to be published to all the world through the medium of the London Gazette. This country is still bound by all the ties of honour, and by every sacred obligation of treaty, to support the cause of Spain as long as it can be supported; and, however ministers might regret the want of zeal in the northern parts of Spain, it would not have become them to have published reproaches against their allies in the official paper of this country. Great allowances were also due to the Spanish nation for not completely answering the high expectations which had been formed of them from their glorious victories at Baylen, Saragossa, and Valencia. Although the higher orders of the Spanish nation carried their notions of honour even to a romantic excess, yet the great mass of the people were much debased in moral character by the effects of poverty and ignorance. They were united, not so much by the love of national independence, as by a hatred to the French, and an obedience to their priests. The juntas never appeared to have confidence enough in the people to trust to an actual levy *en masse* for the defence of the country,



nor did the people of Spain feel a greater desire than they shew in other countries, for joining the regular armies as soldiers by trade. This was manifested on many occasions. The army of Galicia, which was beaten early in July at Rio Seco, did not appear to have gained any additional strength in the next three months, and Castanos (except for the junction with Palafox) was hardly stronger at Tudela, than he was at Baylen. The Gallician and Andalusian armies took the field at first with a considerable proportion of regular troops among them, but the recruiting went on slowly. Although the proclamations of the different provincial juntas and other state papers, breathed the most pure and enlightened patriotism, yet we fear that those exalted sentiments were not generally felt throughout that country. We have sufficient proof, that the leading men of Spain were men of great abilities; and yet it appears that a considerable time was lost, and that no sufficient preparation had been made for the defence of the country. We fear that the cause has not been the want of abilities in the leaders, but that the apathy which General Romana and the British army found in the northern provinces, too generally pervaded that country. We shall be happy indeed if the future events of the war should allow us to change our opinion in this respect.

In our last, we expressed some doubts of the necessity of the British army commencing their retreat so early as they did. It was not that we ever supposed that the British army, even with the addition of Romana's force, could contend

with any chance of success against Bonaparte's grand army; but that we imagined that if the army of Soult (now called Duke of Dalmatia) was attacked and defeated, the retreat of the British army afterwards would have been more honourable and secure. We thought it impossible, that any very considerable body of infantry could have arrived from Madrid in time to intercept the retreat; and we still believe, that almost the whole of the great loss which the British army sustained, was owing to this very army of the Duke of Dalmatia, who became our pursuers as soon as they found the British army in full retreat. The enemy had indeed pushed forward some of his cavalry from this main army, but it does not appear that any considerable body of infantry from Madrid had arrived, or could have arrived, near enough to endanger the retreat of the British army, supposing they had attacked Soult's before the retreat commenced. This opinion is, however, only formed from the few documents which are now before the public. We are very loth to give credit to the accounts of the enemy, and they cannot be received without making an allowance for exaggeration; but as to what relates to the mere disposition of their armies in a country which they occupy, their official statements must be the most authentic documents. By those statements it appears, that when Bonaparte left Madrid for the north of Spain, he not only left an adequate force to garrison the capital, but he also left, under the command of the Duke of Belluno, a force not only sufficient to prevent the advance of the Spanish army



from Cuenca to Madrid, but even to attack a considerable body of them, upon the 13th, in the neighbourhood of Cuenca, and make above 12,000 prisoners. No other force is mentioned as marching from Madrid against the English, except the Duke of Elchingen's (Ney's) and the imperial guards. The French bulletins say, that it was to the Duke of Dalmatia that the French emperor confided the pursuit of the English, or, as they term it, the honourable mission of driving the English into the sea. We strongly suspect that the reason why this honourable mission was confided solely to the Duke of Dalmatia, was, that there was no other body of French infantry within at least three days' march. At Astorga, Bonaparte afterwards reviewed the divisions of *Laborde* and *Loison*, which, as the bulletin states, are to form the army of Portugal. This agrees perfectly with our last account, for those were the very divisions which before formed Junot's army, although we do not now hear that Junot himself is with them. It is possible that that general may have fallen into disgrace with his imperial master.

The British army suffered most extremely on the retreat. In their forced marches, they had to contend with the inclemency of the season, the badness of the roads, and the want of provisions, as well as against an enemy that pursued them most closely. It is said, that for many days together the British troops had been without any other food than turnips, which they had not even the means of dressing. This want of proper food, combined with the fatigue of the march, and

the hardship of lying out in the fields in the depth of winter, produced a great sickness in the army; and the sick and weak, who could not follow the army in its rapid retreat, were left at the mercy of the enemy. The French bulletins say, that the Spanish peasantry murdered a considerable number of them: but although our troops met with rather an inhospitable and unfriendly reception in Spain, yet we hope and believe that this assertion of the enemy is a calumny. The British army commenced its retreat in good order, and its cavalry gained, as we mentioned before, some marked advantages over the enemy: as far as Villa Franca the retreat continued in good order, and the army suffered little. It was on the forced march from Villa Franca to Lugo (a distance of about sixty English miles) that the straggling became excessive, and threatened the absolute dispersion of the army. Under these circumstances, Sir John Moore found it necessary to halt the army at Lugo, where he took a position, and remained a few days in face of the enemy, who did not feel themselves strong enough to venture a battle. On the night of the 8th the army again commenced its retreat to Corunna, and upon this march also the straggling was excessive: the stragglers, of course, fell into the hands of the enemy, who boast of having taken 5,000 prisoners, besides the number of those who died from fatigue or by the sword. On our part, we have no means of stating what was our actual loss in the expedition until the returns are regularly before parliament. The British troops at length reached Corunna, where they



were obliged to wait for several days before the transports had come from Vigo to receive them. On the morning of the 16th of January, the greatest part of the army and the artillery were embarked, and it was not until that day that the French conceived themselves in sufficient force to attack the British. Our rear guard, consisting of ten or twelve thousand men, were posted above a mile from the town of Corunna. The Duke of Dalmatia attacked them furiously with a force considerably superior in number: the British troops maintained their high reputation, and not only repulsed the enemy, but advanced above half a league in pursuit of them. The French attempted no farther interruption to the embarkation, which was completely effected during the night of the 16th and the morning of the 17th. In this battle, which completely secured the retreat of the remains of our army, the country suffered a severe loss by the death of Sir John Moore, who was killed by a cannon ball, which struck him early in the action, and tore off his left arm. Sir David Baird, the second in command, also lost an arm upon this occasion.

It has been the fate of many of the most illustrious warriors which this country has produced, to die in the field of battle and in the arms of victory. It was thus that Wolfe, Abercrombie, Nelson, and Sir John Moore, have fallen. There has been this singular coincidence in the manner of their deaths, that every one of them lived long enough after their mortal wound, to hear that the English had gained the victory. Their grateful country

has erected public monuments to their memory; their names are always mentioned with veneration, and their career is held out as an example to soldiers. Sir John Moore had certainly arrived to the highest military reputation which any British general of the present time enjoyed. We hope we shall not be thought to be speaking at all invidiously to the military talents of other gallant officers, if we say that there was no general who enjoyed a higher, or perhaps an equal, degree of the confidence of his country. In the loss of Sir John Moore, the country has lost the man who was deemed its best general — When we consider, however, the generals that we have still left; when we recollect the conduct of Sir Arthur Wellesley, or General Ferguson, the heroes of Vimeira, we are confident that the country will never want brave or skilful officers to command its armies; and the only fear we entertain is, that too rigid an adherence to military etiquette and seniority may keep out of command those officers in whom the country has most confidence. In this manner we have seen, during the last administration, the gallant Sir John Stuart, the hero of Maida, superseded by General Fox; and, lately, we have seen Sir Arthur Wellesley, superseded immediately after a victory that ought to have produced the most important advantages. It would not be very difficult to point out modes by which the country might have the services of its best generals, without wounding the pride of senior officers: this is done, in fact, in every army upon the Continent; and Lord Nelson



would never have added so much renown to our naval history, if every admiral who was older than he conceived that he had a better right to command. If Sir Arthur Wellesley was superseded in Portugal, it was from this point of military *etiquette* alone; for there is no officer that enjoys more highly the confidence of the government, as well as of the country: but it has been the custom, that an army of a given number should have so many lieutenant-generals in it; and Sir Arthur's name is so low on the list of lieutenant-generals, that government would not know how to give him the command without violating the custom of the army. It was in this manner that Mr. Windham justified the appointment of General Whitelocke in the expedition to Buenos Ayres: he said it was the custom to give the command of an expedition of that magnitude to a lieutenant-general; and that, looking over the list of lieutenant-generals who were unemployed, he did not see any name particularly distinguished above the rest. We apprehend, that the custom is one of those "more honoured in the breach than in the observance;" and we hope that no custom will ever be set up in future to deprive our brave army of those leaders who are the fittest to command them.

The victory at Corunna, and the safe embarkation of the greater part of the British army, were dearly bought. In addition to the loss of Sir J. Moore, the second in command, Sir D. Baird, was severely wounded, and lost an arm. It would be an injustice to that distinguished officer not to say that the country felt this

wound, and temporary suspension of his services, as a serious loss: he was the general who commanded at the storming of Seringapatam and at the capture of the Cape of Good Hope, and enjoys the reputation of one of the best generals in the British service. A greater number of men also perished in this rapid retreat than we could have expected to lose in the most disastrous battle. While these scenes were going on in the north of Spain, an expedition under General Sherbrook, consisting of about four or five thousand men, and destined (as is supposed) for the south of Spain, was dispersed by the storms, which we may expect at this season of the year.

Here then we may pause, and consider a little the causes of the total failure of the expedition sent to the relief of Spain. It is now most unquestionable that the public spirit in Spain was by no means so general as it had been supposed in this country. From July to November, the Spaniards could not bring an army into the field able to drive out of Biscay and Navarre the thirty or forty thousand Frenchmen who occupied that province; and as soon as this small French army was reinforced in the beginning of November, and Bonaparte had assumed the command, all the Spanish armies were dispersed before it, and never were able to rally. If Madrid had been as well defended as Saragossa, it might have stopped Bonaparte's army for a considerable time; for it does not appear that the conquest of the greater part of Spain has been affected so much by an overwhelming superiority of numbers, as by a judicious disposition of the French



armies, and their attacking the Spanish armies separately. Marshal Ney's division, which was the one principally engaged at the defeat of Blake, was afterwards brought against Castanos at Tudela; and, at a later period, this was the division which was sent from Madrid against the English. This division, together with the imperial guards, appeared the whole disposable force which Bonaparte then had to march

against them. The actual number of Bonaparte's army in Spain cannot easily be ascertained: no more reliance is to be placed upon the reports of the Spaniards than upon his own; the former would magnify it, in order to account for his successes, and he would exaggerate it, with a view to strike the world with dismay, and to be considered irresistible and invincible.

### MEDICAL REPORT.

An account of the diseases which have occurred in the reporter's own practice, from the 20th of January to the 15th of February, 1809.

*Acute diseases.*—Pleurisy, 1.... Catarrhal fever, 8.... Acute rheumatism, 6.... Continued fever, 4.... Puerperal fever, 1.... Remittent fever, 1.... Erysipelas, 1.... Gout, 2.... Hooping cough 2.... Acute diseases of infants, 9.

*Chronic diseases.*—Cough and dyspnoea, 36.... Spitting of blood, 2.... Pulmonary consumption, 3.... Pleurodyne, 2.... Asthenia, 6.... Chronic rheumatism, 5.... Cephalalgia, 7.... Scirrhus liver, 1.... Enterodynia, 3.... Gastrodynia, 5.... Dropsy, 4.... Jaundice, 3.... Dysure, 2.... Eneuresis, 1.... Dysentery, 2.... Dyspepsia, 4.... Hæmorrhoids, 2.... Hypochondriasis, 1.... Scrophula, 2.... Cutaneous diseases, 7.... Chlorosis, 2.... Amenorrhœa, 4.

To avoid delay in the publication, these reports in future will be continued from the 15th of one month to the 15th of the succeeding one. Since my last account, the weather, though extremely moist, has been unusually mild for the season, and to this may partly be attributed the present favourable state of health

in the metropolis. The number of inflammatory complaints have diminished; their violence has been mitigated; and, as far as my observation has extended, pulmonary affections of every kind have assumed a milder character, and have been more easily relieved, than is usual in seasons of greater severity. Not one of the acute diseases in the preceding list, presented any appearance worthy of being recorded, or occasioned much anxiety respecting their termination: the prognosis was favourable, and the event corresponded with it, for they are all convalescent or recovering. The case of hypochondriasis will probably terminate in insanity: so complete is the mental hallucination, that no argument has yet convinced the patient that her bones are not piercing through the skin; and sometimes she is tortured with the horrid sensation of falling to pieces. Whatever cause has generated this monster of the imagination, the effect is truly serious. A young woman in the prime of life, with a fine form and prepossessing appearance, has lost the rosy hue of health; her countenance no longer beams with joy; her eyes



no longer sparkle with intelligence ; her wonted animation has forsaken her ; all that combined to fascinate is gone, and nothing remains but the sad expression of woe, the fixed look of despair. In these cases it is a nice point to determine whether the complaint has been induced by physical or by moral agents ; for where the malady originates in the mind, it is in vain to administer drugs ; whilst the physician, who is conversant with the nature of human passions, who has weighed the consequences of disappointed hope upon a delicate frame, or who has attended to the vicissitudes of fortune and changes of circumstances in the checkered scene of life, may often administer to a mind diseased, and afford consolation and healing balm, where before, all was comfortless and desponding.

### AGRICULTURAL REPORT.

THE inclemency of the weather for the last month, has impeded those early operations in the field that would have taken place if the season had suited. The violent and continued succession of snow and rains, has inundated the country in some places, to a degree never remembered by the oldest man. In the Isle of Ely, in Cambridgeshire, it is estimated, that the inundation has extended more than fifteen miles in length, and that above 150,000 acres of land are completely under water ; the distress and injury to the inhabitants is almost beyond calculation, and the calamity would have extended much farther, but for the exertions made in stopping the breaches with bags filled with sand.

The arable lands are become so saturated with water, as to be totally unfit to receive the seed, until the return of dry weather.

Nearly all the turnips are destroyed, except the Swedes, whose hardy nature enables them to bear a redundancy of wet and cold. They will be a valuable resource to those farmers who are the fortunate possessors of them.

The wheat, tares, and young clo-

vers look much better than could be expected, after such severe weather ; a few dry days are only wanted to cause them to rally.

We have lately seen proposals for the establishment of a company for the purpose of insuring the lives of cattle. Many gentlemen of rank and consequence usher the proposals to the public, under the sanction of their names ; we therefore cannot doubt that the plan has been well considered and digested.

We regret that the outlines only are published, because an entire development of the plan, must necessarily be connected with many circumstances highly important to the agriculturist and breeder of cattle. We can, however, anticipate many beneficial effects from such an establishment. It is obvious that an additional security to the owner of live stock, must tend to the encouragement of the breeding of cattle. But a greater advantage to the public, will, in our opinion, be derived from the diffusion of agricultural information, which must necessarily take place when the various counties of Great Britain are interested in a company of this nature.



FAC-SIMILE OF A LINE OF A LATIN POEM FOUND AT  
HERCULANEUM.

X.  
CONSILIIS. NOX. APTA. DUCVM. LVX. APTIOR. ARNIS.

WE have the satisfaction to present our readers with a fac-simile of a line of a Latin poem, found amongst the papyri, and unrolled under the direction of a learned gentleman now at Palermo, under the patronage of an illustrious personage. For its authenticity we pledge our credit with the public, which we think cannot be doubted, when we subjoin to this great literary curiosity the comment of the learned gentleman himself.

“It is part of an epic poem in Latin. There are only nine verses in a page: in the verses a few letters are wanting: each verse is written at its full length; and as it is hexameter, and in a large character, forms an extensive line, especially as there is a full-stop after each word: the manuscript itself is very imperfect, and furnishes the latter part only of the respective pages. From this circumstance, and from the number of lost verses which appear necessary to supply the sense between the last verse of one page and the beginning of a second, I conjecture that two-thirds of a page are wanting: these, perhaps, may be found afterwards; and indeed it may not seem unreasonable to expect such an instance of good fortune, after having discovered, in a similar case, the two parts of Polystratus, as I mentioned in a former letter. The verses are about seventy: that of which the fac-simile is given is the last. This verse proves that the poem is not ended here. The cross under the first word seems to denote the number of the book. The name of the writer may be in that part of the



manuscript which is wanting, and, as is usual in the others, at some little distance from the last page. The subject of the poem is Augustus in Egypt. The verses express the name of Egypt, of Cæsar, of Alexandria, which is represented to be besieged: it mentions also the queen, and speaks of the battle near Actium as a past event. The style of the poetry is excellent: the merit of the composition, and the nature of the subject, persuades me that the poem may with great probability be attributed to Varius as its author. I need not here repeat all those passages of ancient writers, which may be seen altogether in Lilius Giraldus, on this poet: he celebrated, it is well known, the deeds of Augustus. This fact, added to the lines of Horace, is favourable to my hypothesis. I must also add, that a gentleman, extremely well versed in literature and the fine arts, the Chevalier Scratti, one of the Neapolitan secretaries of state, ap-

proves my idea. The authentic alphabet of the ancient Latin character and orthography, which is acquired from this manuscript, renders, in the opinion of every learned man, exclusively of other interesting considerations; renders, I say, this discovery invaluable.

"This is the object which the famous Mabillon traversed so many countries to find. What would Montfauçon and our Chisholm have given for such a treasure! Before the appearance of this poem, there existed, on this important subject of Latin autography, not a single criterion of classical antiquity, nor, therefore, of indisputable authority. This treasure alone more than compensates the munificence of the GREAT PRINCE who is the patron of this illustrious undertaking, and makes his royal name dear and venerable to all those who can justly value ancient learning, or appreciate the loss which this treasure has amply retrieved."

## LITERARY NOTICES AND INTELLIGENCE.

MR. TAYLOR, the Platonist, announces that he has made some very important discoveries in that branch of mathematics which relates to infinitesimals and infinite series. One of these discoveries consists in the ability to ascertain the last term of a great variety of infinite series, whether such series are composed of whole numbers or fractions. He likewise asserts that, in consequence of these discoveries, he can demonstrate that all the leading propositions in Dr. Wallis's *Arithmetic of Infinites* are false; that the *Doctrine of Fluxions* is founded on false principles; and, as well as the

*Arithmetic of Infinites*, is a most remarkable instance of the possibility of deducing true conclusions from erroneous principles. Mr. Taylor is composing a treatise on this subject, which will be published in the course of next year.

The Rev. Robert Bland, author of the *Popular Tales of Edwy and Elgiva*, and *Sir Everard*, has in the press a poetical romance, in ten cantos, entitled *The Four Slaves of Cythera*.

Mr. C. Macartney is preparing for publication, *A Set of Rules* for ascertaining the situation and relations in the living body, of the prin-



principal blood-vessels, nerves, &c. concerned in surgical operations; to be illustrated with plates.

Mr. J. Roland, fencing-master at the royal military academy at Woolwich, intends to publish, by subscription, *A Treatise on the Art of Fencing*, theoretically and experimentally explained upon principles entirely new.

The Rev. J. Girdlestone is about to publish, by subscription, all the *Odes of Pindar*, translated into English verse, with notes, explanatory and critical.

It is expected that, in a few days, a volume, entitled *Memoirs of British Quadrupeds*, by the Rev. Mr. Bingley, will be ready for publication. This work, which claims the merit of being original, and not merely a compilation from the writings of other naturalists, will be illustrated with seventy engravings from original drawings, chiefly by Howitt. The anecdotes of the habits, instinct, and sagacity, are kept quite distinct from the descriptions: the latter are thrown into the form of a synopsis, and inserted with the synonyms at the end of the volume, which it is intended to follow up with two volumes of *Memoirs of British Whales*, illustrated also with a great number of figures; and afterwards by others of the birds, amphibious insects, &c. till an entire system of British Zoology, occupying about seven volumes, is completed.

Mr. S. Ware will soon publish the first part of a *Treatise of Arches, Bridges, Domes, Abutment and Embankment Walls*. The author professes to shew a simple method of describing, geometrically, the catenaria, and to deduce his theory

principally from that line. Sections of Trinity Church, Ely; King's College Chapel, Cambridge; Salisbury Cathedral, and Westminster Abbey, will be given in corroboration of the principles advanced in the work.

Mr. Smith, of Dublin, has nearly finished his *History of the Germanic Empire*, in two octavo volumes, which will speedily be published.

Mr. Jerningham will shortly publish a work, entitled *The Alexandrian School*, being a narrative of the character and writings of the first Christian professors in that city, with observations on the influence which they still maintain over the established church.

Mr. Edgeworth's work on *Professional Education*, which will soon form a quarto volume, is far advanced at the press, and may soon be expected.

A small volume, embellished with engravings, entitled *The Stranger's Guide through Boston and its Environs*, will soon be published by Mr. P. Thompson, of that town.

Mr. Southey has in preparation, a romance in rhyme, founded on the mythology of the Hindoos, to be entitled *The Curse of Kehama*.

*A Life of the late Dr. Beddoes* has been undertaken, with the approbation of his family and friends, by Dr. Stock, of Bristol.

The long-expected *Reports of the Preventive Medical Institution at Bristol* have been left by Dr. Beddoes in some degree of forwardness: they will be completed and published as speedily as possible by Mr. König and Dr. Stock.

Mr. William Richards has issued proposals for publishing, by sub-



scription, a *History of Lynn*, civil, ecclesiastical, commercial, biographical, political, and military, from its foundation, about the first age of the Christian era, to the present time.

The Rev. Dr. Vincent is preparing for the press, *the Greek Text of Arrian's Indica and the Periplus*, with a translation, to accompany his comments on those works.

The Rev. Dr. Beloe is proceeding with the fourth and fifth volumes of *Anecdotes of Literature and scarce Books*. At the end of the fifth will be given a general index to the work.

A new, much-improved, and enlarged edition of Dr. Mavor's *Voyages and Travels*, in twenty-eight volumes, royal eighteens, is in the press. The plates will be copied from the prints published in the original works, and the maps will be numerous, and on a large scale. The text of the principal works, as the voyages of Anson, Byron, Wallis, Carteret, Cook, and Macartney, will be printed, without variation, from the original editions; and many valuable works which have appeared within the present century, will be included.

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CALEDONIAN SKETCHES; or, a Tour through Scotland in 1807; to which is prefixed an explanatory Address upon a recent Trial. By Sir John Carr.—4to. Published by Matthew and Leigh, Strand.

The character of Sir John Carr as a writer is so well known to the public from the various specimens of his talents which he has submitted to its judgment, that it would be a waste of time and space, were we here to attempt a delineation of it. We

shall therefore merely observe, that, if the *Caledonian Sketches* contain nothing particularly new, striking, or profound, still the reputation which Sir John may have obtained by his preceding performances, is not likely to suffer by the present publication.

Without adverting to the prefixed observations on a recent trial, we turn with pleasure to the more interesting subject of Sir John's *Caledonian Sketches*.—Upon leaving London, our tourist makes the following just remark upon the happy state of our country, and the progress of the common enemy—"Sealed in an island favoured by heaven, and fortified by nature against the political storms that rage around us, we view their angry progress, as the astronomer, in the calmness of the night, contemplates the erratic course of the flaming meteor, in safe and solemn meditation." He describes the objects that most engaged his attention at Cambridge, and thence on his road through Northumberland into Scotland, which he entered by Jedburgh. The most interesting objects in the Caledonian capital, its recent improvements, and the surrounding scenery, are ably delineated; and the descriptions are enlivened with so many anecdotes, that the reader is led on without being fatigued.—From Edinburgh Sir John proceeded to Stirling, Kinross, and Perth (of which, and the adjoining country, there is a charming description) along the eastern coast to Aberdeen, to Peterhead, and thence to Fort George and Inverness.—Here the work becomes more particularly interesting. The sublimity of Highland scenery, and the character and habits of the



Highlander are fully entered into. Several pages are devoted to the plan and progress of that great national undertaking, the Caledonian canal, which Sir John describes as a work of Roman magnificence.

Our author embarked from Oban and visited the Hebridean islands of Mull, Ulva, and Staffa, with the account of which we have been much gratified: he afterwards proceeded to the lochs Ketterine, Larn, Tay, to Dunkeld, and thence to Glasgow.

Every well-wisher to his country will be gratified with the proofs of the increasing prosperity of the northern division of our island, exhibited in the spirited improvements going forward, not only in the capital, but in various parts of the country. We were also much pleased with the temperate observations of our traveller on the errors into which Dr. Johnson seems to have been led in his Tour to the Hebrides, when he suffered spleen to get the better of the sound judgment and strong sense with which nature had endowed him.

The volume contains twelve engravings in aquatinta, from drawings by the author.—All those who are fond of what is denominated *light reading*, will, we doubt not, derive considerable entertainment from the *Caledonian Sketches*, and to such as are urged by pleasure or curiosity to extend their summer excursions beyond the Tweed, it may be recommended as an agreeable companion.

#### MUSICAL REVIEW.

*Three Sonatas for the Piano-forte, in which are introduced six favourite Irish Airs, with Accom-*

*paniments for the German Flute and Violoncello; composed and dedicated to Mr. E. Bunting.* By J. Woelfl. Op. 48. London, printed and sold by Preston, 97, Strand.

We regret that our limits will not allow us to enter into an analysis of the merits of the above three sonatas, which will be found extremely brilliant, and written with the usual taste and judgment of their celebrated author, without being difficult as to execution. We were much pleased with the manner in which the Irish airs are introduced, the simple but beautiful melody of which has lost nothing by being transplanted into a foreign soil; a commendation which we have not at all times had it in our power to bestow upon some other foreign composers, under whose hands the originality of national song has been sacrificed by too studied and artificial accompaniments. The flute part, in which the character of the instrument is happily preserved, may be executed by a moderate performer: and the whole of this work is well calculated to afford an evening's treat to a musical family.

*J. Woelfl's Cuckoo Concerto for the Piano-forte, with the Accompaniments of a full Band.* Printed and sold by Goulding. Op. 49.

Mr. Woelfl's Piano-forte Concertos are deservedly ranked among the first compositions of the present day for that instrument, both in point of musical science and originality; and the present work certainly does not detract in either respect from the author's fame: on the contrary, if we were inclined to form a comparison, we should





WALKING DRESS.



PLATE 12.—HARDING, HOWELL, & Co.'s GRAND FASHION-  
ABLE MAGAZINE, No. 99, Pall-Mall.

THESE premises, together with the two adjoining houses, formed, upwards of a century ago, the residence of the Duke of Schomberg, a Dutch general, who, at the revolution which placed the crown on the head of William the Third, accompanied that monarch to England, and fell by the fire of his own troops at the battle of the Boyne.

The house is one hundred and fifty feet in length from front to back, and of proportionate width. It is fitted up with great taste, and is divided by glazed partitions into four departments, for the various branches of the extensive business which is there carried on.

Immediately at the entrance is the first department, which is exclusively appropriated to the sale of furs and fans. The second contains articles of haberdashery of every description, silks, muslins, lace, gloves, &c. In the third shop, on the right, you meet with a rich assortment of jewellery, ornamental articles in *or moulu*, French clocks, &c.; and on the left, with all the different kinds of perfumery necessary for the toilette. The fourth is set apart for millinery and dresses; so that there is no article of female attire or decoration, but what may be here procured in the first style of elegance and fashion.

This concern was founded twenty-five years since, by Messrs. Dyde and Scribe, and has been conducted for the last twelve years by the present proprietors, who have spared neither trouble nor expence to ensure the establishment a superiority over every other in Europe, and to render it perfectly unique in its kind.

Forty persons are regularly employed on the premises in making up the various articles offered for sale, and in attendance on the different departments; while the number of artisans engaged in supplying the concern with novelties, almost exceeds belief. Their exertions are rewarded by a successful introduction of all articles of merit among the first circles, by which they receive a certain stamp of fashion, and a consequent wide and general circulation through the country, to the great advantage of the manufacturer.

There is scarcely a manufacturing town in the kingdom but what it is laid under contribution by this establishment, the attention of whose spirited proprietors is not confined to native productions, but extends to every article of foreign manufacture which there is any possibility of obtaining.



## FASHIONABLE FURNITURE.

## PLATE 14.—LADIES' SECRETAIRE.

This elegant appendage to the drawing-room or *boudoir*, should be made of rosewood, rich and varied in its grain. The female figures supporting the secretaire, and the lyres on the upper part, may be carved in wood, and finished in burnish and matt gold, to imitate *or moulu*. The ornaments on the drawers may be of metal, water gilt. The bottom part has a mirror on the back, placed on a shelf, carved in the front, and ornamented with *or moulu* mouldings, supported on vase feet. The front of the secretaire drawer is decorated with *or moulu* handles, formed as wreaths of foliage; a star in the center, concealing the key-hole of the lock.

## PARLOUR CHAIRS.

This pattern, of Grecian form, is supposed to be of mahogany; the ornaments and the frame are made out in an inlay of ebony. The continued line from the top of the back, to the gilt ornaments on the front feet, should be pannelled out betwixt two beads. The ornament in center of the back may in part be carved, and the rest in ebony. The seat and back of the chair are stuffed and covered with red morocco leather, on which are printed Grecian ornaments in black.

## GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.

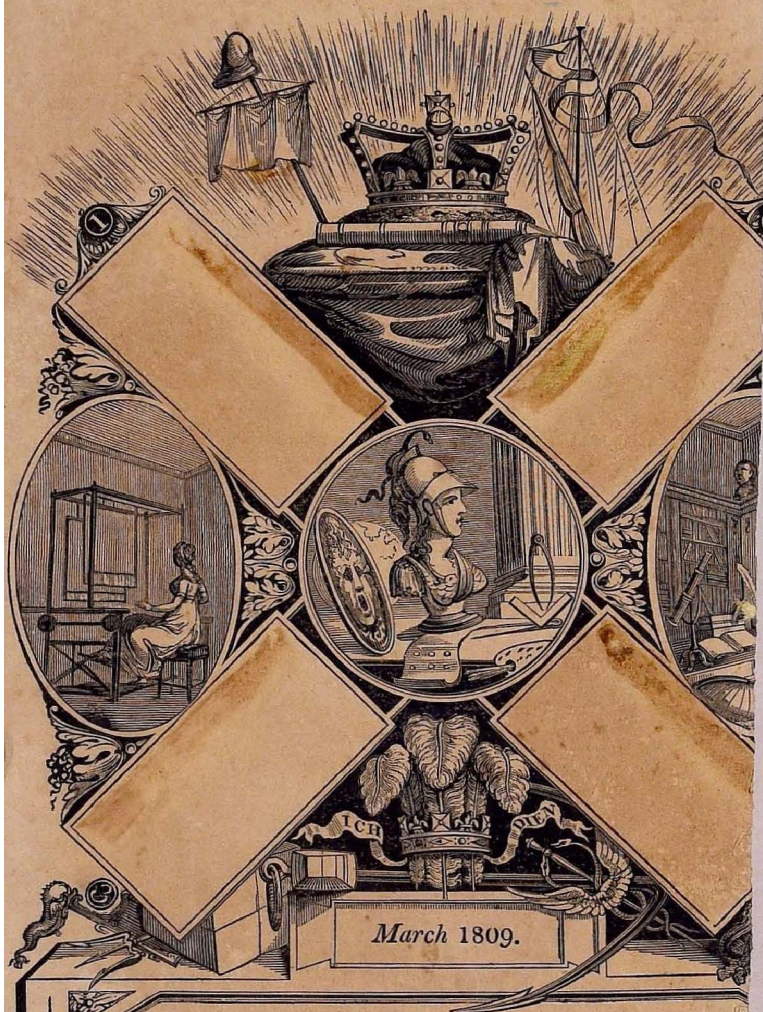
A considerable alteration has taken place in the style of fitting up apartments within these few months. Instead of a gaudy display in colouring, a more pleasing and chaste effect is produced in the union of two tints. This has been happily

managed in calicoes, producing an appearance equal to silk, particularly in the richer and more brilliant colours. We have witnessed this effect in a full crimson damask pattern, lined with a blue embossed calico, the manufacture of Messrs. Dudding and Nelson. A similar taste has been followed with some success in paper-hanging, exhibiting a rich appearance, when finished with gold, or black and gold mouldings. Carpets, especially for principal apartments, have partially fallen into the same good taste. This mode of furnishing, producing in the predominant features a composed and uniform effect, aids greatly the *meubles* of grand rooms, especially where gilding is introduced. Should silk become objectionable from its expence, we strongly recommend the use of these new patterns. They need only be seen to become approved, and are particularly calculated for candle-light effect.

## DINING PARLOUR.

In this apartment more continue still in use, and the more so where economy is requisite; which article also has experienced an improvement by being embossed in a variety of patterns. This process, however, renders it less appropriate for drapery, unless there should be sufficient extent to form it with boldness. The coverings for floors are of crimson drugget, milled to a proper substance, and pannelled with a border of black furniture cloth, producing a warm and rich appearance. The same arrange-





March 1809.

## The Repository

*Of Arts, Literature, Commerce, Manufactures, Fashion, and Poetry.*  
 MANUFACTURERS, Factors, and Wholesale Dealers in Fancy Goods that  
 within the scope of this Plan, are requested to send Patterns of such  
 Articles as they come out, and if the requisites of Novelty, Fashion  
 Elegance are united, the quantity necessary for this Magazine  
 will be ordered.  
*R. Ackermann, 101, Strand, London.*

No.

REPOSITORY OF ARTS, SCIENCE, &c.



ment is to be seen in the drawing-rooms of many of the *haut ton*, in various colours. Chandeliers of cut glass, on a metal framework, with ornaments of *or moulu* and bronze, are generally used for illuminating rooms, affording a brilliant and diffused light from the center of the ceiling.

For the preceding observations, we acknowledge ourselves indebted to Mr. G. Smith, whose classic taste in this line is evinced in his splendid work on furniture and decoration.

## ALLEGORICAL WOOD-CUT, WITH PATTERNS OF BRITISH MANUFACTURE.

THE four patterns of British manufactures for ladies' attire for this month, have been furnished by Messrs. Harding, Howell, and Co. of Pall-Mall, of whose extensive establishment we have introduced a representation and description in a preceding part of this number.

No. 1. Anglo-Merino cloth. This article, five quarters and seven quarters wide, nearly as fine as muslin in its texture, and highly elegant in its appearance for full dress or evening wear, is manufactured from the fleeces of the Merino flock of His Majesty, to whom the nation is not only under the greatest obligation for the original introduction of these useful animals, but whose unwearied and patriotic efforts for their increase and diffusion, are likely to be productive of the most beneficial results. His illustrious example has been successfully followed by the Duke of Bedford, Lord Somerville, Dr. Parry, Messrs. Coke, Tollet, and many other public-spirited agriculturists.

This new and curious article, which may be had of various colours, is the closest imitation of the real India shawl fabrique ever produced in this country, and reflects the highest credit on the skill, in-

genuity, and industry of the manufacturer, Mr. Smith, of Norwich.

No. 2. This is a new and rich article, called Queen's silk, much worn for dresses and pelisses; it may be had of all colours, and produces a very good effect. It is the manufacture of the Spitalfields weavers; and we have great satisfaction in observing, that our ladies of fashion vie with each other in affording encouragement to those industrious and ingenious artisans, who for some years past have been very much neglected.

No. 3. A new satin twilled silk. This beautiful article, very elegant for dresses and pelisses, displays a variety of shades according to the reflections of the light, and possesses considerable advantage, in respect of durability, over common silk. It is manufactured of a great variety of colours.

No. 4. The Persian double silk derives its name from its imitation of the shawls made in that country, on the principle of which it is manufactured. Our pattern, yellow and purple, is extremely fashionable for mantles and pelisses: it is, however, made of many other colours.

These three silks are, as usual, half yard wide.



# Poetry.

## ADDRESS

To ALEXANDER DUNDAS C. *an Infant*  
*apparently near Dissolution.*

Go, lovely babe, in meekness rob'd,  
Go, ere thy feelings have been prob'd  
By falsehood's stings, or keen regret,  
Go from a world with ills beset;  
Go from the pure maternal breast,  
To which thou art so fondly prest;  
Go from thy father's dear embrace,  
Go to thy better biding-place;  
Go from this restless speck below,  
This scene of perfidy and woe!  
Go from this sin-fraught, mad'ning earth,  
And burst into immortal birth;  
Go wash'd in thy Redeemer's blood,  
Go and partake with him the good,  
Which, ere this globe's foundation, he  
Prepar'd in heaven, sweet boy, for thee.

Such counsel reason strives to give—  
But, oh! thy sire would have thee live!  
If there be in Lavater's rules  
More than the baseless dreams of schools,  
The grand formation of thy head  
Would have thy steps to glory sped;  
Thy tow'ring front, thy marking eye,  
Express a mind, a courage high,  
Supreme in council or command,  
A blessing to thy native land.  
Thou might'st have liv'd like Pitt to rule,  
Like him disinterested, cool,  
Decisive, firm, serenely great,  
Stay and preserver of the state;  
Or else, like Rosslyn, dealt our laws,  
And justly judg'd the righteous cause,  
All eloquent, like him, have mov'd  
Thy hearers' souls, and truth approv'd;  
Or, like thy other namesake\*, shone,  
Th' unshaken bulwark of the throne,  
Devoting with a patriot's zeal,  
Time, talent, to the public weal,  
Diffusing good on all around,  
The friend of worth wherever found.

\* Lord M.

Or had dread war thy service claim'd,  
Thou might'st in fight have foremost  
flam'd,

Perhaps some act sublimely bold,  
Had down the tide of ages roll'd  
'Mongst Britain's bravest sons thy name,  
Emblazon'd by the hand of fame,  
Thou might'st like them have France  
defied—

Like Wolfe, like Abercrombie, died!  
Like Nelson, or like Moore, their grate-  
ful country's pride.

Delusive visions!—but last night  
These fancies fill'd me with delight!  
Now—sad reverse!—convulsive pains  
Rack thee, and writhe thy tortur'd veins;  
Thy life and death are in the scale,  
And who can say which will prevail?  
God, God alone!—Here let me rest—  
Whatever he ordains is best.

## THE HEAVY HEART.

Go, lie thee down, old man, and die!

For fate prepares th' unerring dart:  
Come then, thou last expiring sigh,

And prove the warning of my heart!

My heart is such a changeling grown,

It weighs so heavy in my breast,  
I scarce can think it is my own—

Some other is my bosom's guest.

But whose it is I do not know:

Mary, I'm sure it is not thine;

For not one joy does it bestow,

To no one good does it incline.

No, 'tis not thine—I would it were,

For then I never should complain;

Then I should all those virtues share,

Which in thy gentle bosom reign.

Then I the tender thought should know,

The wish from sordid int'rest free,

The sigh that heaves for others' woe,

And friendship's faithful sympathy.



These once were mine, but far away  
 From my poor bosom they are flown:  
 In this cold heart they will not stay;—  
 This heart can never be my own.

It does not throb with anxious fears,  
 Nor has it strength to heave a moan;  
 It does not fill the eye with tears:  
 It surely cannot be my own;

My heart was ever stout and bold,  
 Whatever demon cross'd my way;  
 But now, alas! 'tis icy cold,  
 Nor cheers me once throughout the day.

Not a gay thought finds entrance there;  
 Not a warm feeling makes it glow;  
 Nor is it yet o'erwhelm'd with care—  
 But in my breast it sinks so low,—

So low—it makes my life-blood creep  
 In chilling current through my veins;  
 Till night comes on, and friendly sleep  
 Throws its dark mantle o'er my pains.

But when I wake from busy rest  
 (For dreams unceasing round me fly),  
 I hear the echo of my breast—  
 "Lie down, old man, lie down and die!"

Could I that kind command obey,  
 It would my drooping spirits cheer;  
 How should I haste to flee away,  
 For I am sick of being here!

Thou sad, desponding, dreary guest,  
 Leave me with all thy gloomy train!  
 Oh! quit the mansion of my breast—  
 Let my own heart come back again.

But if, malignant, thou wilt stay,  
 Oh! may thy currents freeze and dry!  
 O Time, arrest them on their way—  
 "Let the old man lie down, and die!"

---

*To the Memory of Sir J. MOORE, K. B.*  
 WHILE France her plund'ring Myrmidons  
 disgorg'd,  
 And deluged Europe with her blood-  
 stain'd hordes;  
 Britain, to burst the chains a tyrant forged,  
 To guard the rights of Spain—her aid  
 affords.

Her *Patriot King*, to cheer the land dis-  
 tress'd,

Sent his brave warriors to Iberia's shore;  
 To save a prince by tyranny oppress'd,—  
 To give them *victory*,—he gave them  
 MOORE.

Led by their gallant chief, the troops ad-  
 vance,

Till unsustain'd by those they fought to  
 save;

Alike the *friend* of Spain and *scourge* of  
 France,

The gallant MOORE retreated to his  
 wave.

Foremost to lead his danger-scorning band,  
 The *budding laurels* o'er his temples  
 wave;

(When the bold chieftain, on the Spa-  
 nish strand,

'Midst victory fell!) *those laurels* deck  
 his grave.

The marbled column and the sculptur'd  
 bust

May give to infamy a deathless name;  
 But nobler trophies shade the hero's dust,  
 And nobler feelings consecrate his fame.

'Tis not the title royalty imparts,

'Tis not the monument a Senate rears;  
 But 'tis those "*sacred shrines*," the *peo-  
 ple's hearts*,

Whose *grateful incense* is a *nation's  
 tears*.

As when the forest's pride fierce light-  
 ning rends,

Struck by the sacred fire of Heaven it  
 lies;

Yet from its root a kindred *oak* ascends,  
 With native grandeur tow'ring to the  
 skies.

Thus shall "*his spirit*," hov'ring o'er our  
 shores,

Inspire compatriot youths like *him* to  
 bleed;

While future ages boast their vet'ran  
 MOORES,

And future MOORES to future MOORES  
 succeed.



## MARRIAGES AND DEATHS,

*Arranged in the Alphabetical Order of the Counties.*

**BEDFORDSHIRE.**—*Died.*] Miss M. Odell, of Bedford.—Mr. Mawby, of Bedford.—The Rev. J. Devy, D. D.

**BERKSHIRE.**—*Married.*] George Keylock Rusden, B. A. to Miss A. Townsend.—M. B. H. Beach, esq. to Miss C. J. Mount.

*Died.*] At West Hanney, Miss E. A. Godfrey.

**BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.**—*Married.*] At Aylesbury, T. Tindal, esq. to Miss Anne Chaplin.

*Died.*] The Rev. P. Stanhope Smelt, M. A. of Aston Abbots.—At Aylesbury, Mr. T. Bell.—At Walton, the Right Hon. Lady Augusta Bennett.

**CAMBRIDGESHIRE.**—*Married.*] T. Lindsell, esq. of St. Ives, to Miss Margaret Hunt.

*Died.*] Mr. Wm. Dayly, of Cambridge, aged 78.—At St. Ives, Mr. Robert Amas.

**CHESHIRE.**—*Married.*] J. Price, esq. of Mona Lodge, to Miss Lloyd.—Mr. Joseph Howell, to Miss E. Billington.—Mr. J. Okell, of Stutton, to Miss Stanley.

*Died.*] W. Mackey, esq. of Handbridge, aged 76.—Mr. H. Gregory, of the Woodhouses.—Thomas Cash, of Morley.—Aged 88, Mr. T. Spence, of Chester.—Aged 83, Mr. T. Nailor.

**CORNWALL.**—*Married.*] Captain Hamilton, of Falmouth, to Miss P. Duckworth.

*Died.*] The Rev. C. Powlett, aged 81, rector of St. Martin's, near Looe.—At Bodmin, the Rev. John Lake, M. A.—At Falmouth, Mr. B. Incedon, aged 92.—At Redruth, Sergeant T. Broad.—At St. Tudy, Lieut. Barnsley.

**CUMBERLAND.**—*Married.*] The Rev. J. Waller, to Miss Wade, of Appleby.—Thos. Parker, esq. to Miss Spedding, of Whitehaven.—Mr. J. Beattie, to Miss M. Holmhead.

*Died.*] At Coatham Hall, Garth, Mr. Thos. Porthouse.—At Penrith, Mrs. J. Relph, aged 81.

**DEVONSHIRE.**—*Married.*] At Woodbury, Captain A. R. Hughes, to Miss Jane Huckell Lee.

*Died.*] At Bishops-Lidyard, Miss S. Yea.—The Rev. W. Kitson, aged 68, of Exeter.—At Barnstaple, H. Gribbles, esq.—S. Stevens, esq. of Beerferris.—At Saltash, R. Hickes, esq. aged 90.—At Plymouth, Major A. A. Campbell of the 42d Royal Highlanders.—Lieut. Parkins, of the 1st West York militia.

**ESSEX.**—*Married.*] W. Nolas, esq. to Miss M. C. Brimwin, of Bradwell Hall.—C. Bonner, esq. to Miss A. Colthrop.

*Died.*] At Belchamp Hall, the Right Hon. the Countess of Dundonald.—The Rev. Wm. Henry Reynell, vicar of Horncchurch.—At Great Ilford, E. Goodhart, esq.—Wm. Coleman, esq. of Maldon, aged 81.

**GLOUCESTERSHIRE.**—*Married.*] Sir Edward Sygne, Bart. to Miss Welch, of Gloucester.

*Died.*] At Nailsworth, in consequence of a fall on the ice, Mrs. Day, relict of Daniel Day, esq.

**HAMPSHIRE.**—*Married.*] J. Moore, esq. of Newport, to Miss Isles.

*Died.*] At Tangier Park, Thomas Limbrey Schinter Matthew, esq.—Lieutenant-General Hilbert, formerly commander in chief of the

East India Company's forces in Bengal.—H. Harwood, esq. justice of the peace for this county.

**HERTFORDSHIRE.**—*Died.*] Wm. Milward, of Hoddesdon, in his 80th year.—At Tring, Mr. G. Claydon.

**HEREFORDSHIRE.**—*Died.*] At Hereford, James Woodhouse, esq.

**KENT.**—*Married.*] At Maidstone, W. Scudamore, esq. to Miss Davies, of Mortlake, Surry.—H. Willmott, esq. to Miss G. H. Gregory.—At Littlebourne, Mr. Franklin, aged 88, to Miss Mary Dewel, aged 17.

*Died.*] J. Anderson, esq. surgeon R. M. Woolwich.—At Barton, Allen Grebell, esq.—At Beckenham, G. W. Dickes, esq.—At Eythorn, the Rev. Philip Papillon, rector of that parish and vicar of Tunbridge.—At Troy-Town, the lady of Captain Alexander Anderson, of the Royal Marines.

**LANCASHIRE.**—*Died.*] Mr. W. Danson, of Sunderland, aged 79.—The Rev. Mr. Baldwin, justice of the peace for this county.—Mrs. Vanbrugh, aged 83.—The Rev. J. Griffith, M. A.—At Hulme, Mrs. Leatherbarrow, aged 106 years.—At Liverpool, Mrs. Stanley.

**LEICESTERSHIRE.**—*Died.*] At Seagrave, the Rev. R. A. Ingram.—At Stapleford, Miss Waddington, aged 22.

**LINCOLNSHIRE.**—*Died.*] At Broughton, Mrs. Radcliffe.—At Ulceby, Mrs. Field.

**MIDDLESEX.**—*Married.*] Captain Pulteney Malcolm, R. N. to Miss Elphinstone.—A. Hawkes, esq. to Miss Barradaile.—Captain J. G. Peters, to Miss Read.—Captain P. Parker, to Miss M. Dallas.—George Wills, esq. to Miss Sophia Griffin.—B. T. Claxton, esq. to Miss L. A. Anderson.—The Rev. H. H. Barber, of the Bristol Museum, to Miss Smith.

*Died.*] In Old Burlington-street, aged 78, his Excellency Count Bruhl, many years minister of the Elector of Saxony to his Britannic Majesty, knight of the order of the White Eagle.—At his house in Whitehall, aged 82, James Duff, Earl of Fife, Viscount Macduff, Baron Braco, of Kilbryde, in Ireland.—John Sealy, esq. aged 76.—John Francis Moore, esq.—In Argyle-street, Lady Lumma.—Lieut. Colonel Bothwell.—Wm. Montague, esq. of the Grove, Camberwell.—Mrs. E. Hervey.—Dr. John Hunter, F.R.S.—Miss Langham.—L. D. Campbell, esq.—The infant daughter of Lord Milton.

**NORFOLK.**—*Married.*] At Feltwell, the Rev. Wm. Newcome, to Miss Catherine Clough.—M. C. Horsley, esq. to Miss Isabel Philips.

*Died.*] At Lynn, Captain Baxter.—Arthur Branthay, esq. of Stiffkey.

**NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.**—*Married.*] At Carlton, Brig.-General Montresor, to the Right Hon. Lady Sondes.

**NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.**—*Married.*] The Rev. J. Robinson, to Miss Maria Stanser, of Bulwell.—At Nottingham, the Rev. J. Grundy, to Miss Ann Haneock.

**OXFORDSHIRE.**—At Headington, the Rev. Wm. Perry, to Miss Harriet Finch.



**SHROPSHIRE.**—*Married.*] Charles Bage, esq. of Shrewsbury, to Miss A. Harding.—The Rev. G. W. Marsh, to Miss S. C. Hart.

**SOMERSETSHIRE.**—*Married.*] At Bath, the Rev. E. N. Vansittart, to Miss Ann Spooner. At Clifton, near Bristol, the Rev. R. Hoare, to Miss Purofoy.

*Died.*] At Taunton, the Hon. Sir Jacob Wolff, Bart.—At Bath, W. H. Jeffreys, esq.—Rev. D. Currie.—Sir J. Miers, Bart.—At Marlborough House, Weston, near Bath, Mrs. Browne.

**STAFFORDSHIRE.**—*Married.*] T. Bramall, esq. of Lichfield, to Miss S. Robins.

**SUFFOLK.**—*Died.*] At Beccles, the Rev. Dr. Temple.—At Linstead, Mr. R. Denny: he scarcely allowed himself the necessaries of life, though he died worth 15,000*l*.

**SURREY.**—*Died.*] At Broad Green, A. Caldeagh, esq.—At Richmond, the Viscountess de Cambis.

**SUSSEX.**—*Married.*] The Rev. Mr. Baldwin, to Miss A. Riggs, of Eastbourne Cottage.

*Died.*] At Woodbiding, Sir Francis Vincent, Bart.—Mrs. Peyton, of Wakehurst-place.—At Arundel, Mrs. Swinbourne.

**WARWICKSHIRE.**—*Died.*] J. Barnard, esq. banker, of Cornhill.

**WILTSHIRE.**—*Married.*] At Heytesbury, the Hon. Wm. Eliot, to Miss A. Court.

*Died.*] Mrs. Bakerville, of Poulton House, near Marlborough.

**WORCESTERSHIRE.**—*Married.*] The Rev. Mr. Martin, to Miss Duckworth.

**YORKSHIRE.**—*Married.*] At Bradford, L. Halstead, esq. to Miss Anna Preston.—At Ayton, John Overend, esq. to Miss Martha Richardson.

*Died.*] At York, Henry Raper, esq. senior alderman of that city, for which he served the office of lord mayor in 1765 and 1782.

**SCOTLAND.**—*Married.*] At Edinburgh, J. Wentworth Sturgeon, esq. to Miss Barbara Skene.

*Died.*] At Montrose, Lieutenant J. Ouchterlony, aged 83.

**IRELAND.**—*Married.*] At Parturlington, Major Grey, to Miss Vignolles.—At Killala, the Rev. W. Burrows, to Miss Stack, daughter of the Bishop of Killala.

*Died.*] At Shanabel, Waterford, the Hon. Mrs. O'Grady, aged 80.

*Deaths abroad.*] Captain Eustace, at Lisbon.—At Stonyhill barracks, Jamaica, Lieutenant T. B. Bedford.—At Upper-Park barracks, Jamaica, Lieutenant-Colonel Honyman.—The Rev. Wm. Cooley, attached to the horse brigade under Lord Paget.—In the Crescent frigate, on his passage to Gottenburgh, Arthur Branthwait, esq.—On board the Mary transport, on his passage from Corunna, Lieut. Col. Symes, of the 76th regiment, formerly ambassador to the kingdom of Ava, and author of an interesting account of that country.—At Corunna, of a fever, occasioned by excessive fatigue, Captain F. J. Darly, of the 10th light dragoons.

## ALPHABETICAL LIST OF BANKRUPTCIES AND DIVIDENDS.

### BANKRUPTCIES.

*The Solicitors' Names are between Parentheses.*

**ALLEN** Daniel, Newgate street, shoemaker (Jones and Roche, Church yard, Covent garden).

**Allen** William, Chandos street, shoemaker (Pitches and Sampson, Swithin's lane).

**Aspland** William, Kensington, cheesemonger (Popkin, Dean street, Soho, and Knight, Kensington).

**Atkinson** James, Clevely Mill, Lancashire, miller and corn dealer (Parker, Lancaster, and Caton and Brunell, Aldersgate street).

**Baumer** George, Cambridge Heath, Middlesex, stock broker (Aspinall, Quality court, Chancery lane).

**Bentley** Peter, College Hill, Thames street, stone mason (Luckett, Wilson street, Finsbury square).

**Billing** John, Ravensthorp, Northampton, woolcomber (Baucott, Long Buckby, Northampton).

**Boardman** Thomas, the younger, late of Manchester, but now a prisoner in Lancaster castle, liquor merchant (Foulkes and Creswell, Manchester, and Foulkes and Longdill, Gray's inn).

**Brown** John, Little East Cheap, cheesemonger (Gregory, Clement's inn).

**Brown** William, Wormwood street, London wall, victualler (Taylor, Craven street).

**Brown** Joseph, Liverpool, merchant (Griffith and Hinde, Liverpool, and Windle, John street, Bedford row, London).

**Carter** John, Bishopsgate street, merchant (Palmer, Tomlinsons, and Thompson, Copthall court, Throgmorton street).

**Cattell** Henry, Duke street, Worship square, silk manufacturer (Cooke, Austin Friars).

**Cheldren** George, Dover, saddler (Barnes, Clifford's inn, and Shipdorn, Dover).

**Choyce** William, Chilvers Coton, Warwickshire, innkeeper and maltster (Tebbutt and Shuttleworth, Gray's inn square, and Cropper, Market Bosworth, Leicestershire).

**Clay** Ralph, Hackney, merchant (Warrand, Castle court, Budge row).

**Connop** Joseph, and Coleman Levy Newton, Red Lion street, Spitalfields, dyers (Alliston, Freeman's court, Cornhill).

**Darby** William, Hexton, Hertford, butcher (Towansend, Staples inn).

**Davenport** Joseph, and John Finney, Aldermanbury, merchants (Warrand, Castle court, Budge row).

**Davenport** Thomas, Derby, linen draper, (Warrand, Castle court, Budge row).

**Davies** David, Carmarthen, ironmonger (James, Gray's inn square, and Morgan and Livett, Bristol).

**Davis** George, Kingsland road, cow keeper (Taylor, Old Street road).

**Dean** Joseph, Birmingham, Warwick, japanner (Kinderley, Long, and Luce, Gray's inn, and Berwick, Birmingham).

**De Prado** Josue, Lime street, lead merchant (Pearce and Son, Swithin's lane).

**Dewar** Andrew, Stroud, Kent, millwright (Gibbs, Rochester, and Aubrey, Took's court).



Eastwood Jonas and John, Saddleworth, York, dyers (Ingham, Dobercross, York, and Meredith and Robbins, New square, Lincoln's inn

Edmonds Elias, Monument yard, wine merchant (Savel, Surry street, Strand

Ele Stephen, Cannon street road, St. George, Middlesex, mason (Burt, Gould square, Crutched Friars

Elstob Henry, Sunderland, Durham (Blackiston, Symond's inn, London, and Thompson, Bishopwearmouth

Eustace William, Little Carter lane, Doctors' Commons, cabinet maker (Sweet, King's Bench walk, Temple

Evans Sarah, Wolverhampton, carpenter (Smart and Thomas, Staple's inn

Fairbridge William, Gough square, Fleet street, dealer and chapman (Brace, New Boswell court

Fisher Benjamin, Dudley, Worcester, wine and spirit merchant (Kinderley, Long, and Ince, Gray's inn, and Smith and Arnold, Birmingham

Fox Richard, Rugby, Warwick, scrivener (Kinderley, Long, and Ince, Gray's inn, and Palmer, Coleshill, Warwick

Frow Thomas, Mablethorpe, Lincoln, innholder (Baldwin, Lincoln, and Spencer, Lamb's Conduit street, London

Gane Job, Trowbridge, Wilts, carpenter (Timbreil, Trowbridge, and Debary and Derby, Inner Temple, London

Gillam John, Cambridge, merchant (Gee, Cambridge, and Sundys and Horton, Crane court, Fleet street

Glover William and John, Poultry, haberdashers (Mason, St. Michael's Church yard, Cornhill

Gorton Richard, Pendleton, Lancaster, cotton sizer (Edge, Manchester, and Ellis, Curator street, London

Grater Robert, Stoke Damarell, Devon, scrivener (Santer, Chancery lane, and Hurley, Gaddon, near Cullumpton, Devon

Greenwell John, South Shields, Durham, butcher (Bambridge, South Shields, and Bell and Broderick, Bow lane, Cheapside

Hund, Joseph, Wormwood street, London, warehouseman (Marson, Church row, Newington Butts

Heckford William, London street, Ratcliffe Cross, victualler (Lingard, Lower Chapman street, St. George's East

Hetherington David, Low Crosby, Cumberland, drover (Birkett, Bond court, Walbrook, and Bond, Carlisle

Hickson Thomas, Leicester square, bootmaker (Jones and Roche, Covent Garden church yard

Hoare Thomas, and William Allen, Waltham Lane, Herts, calico printers (Bond, East India Chambers, Leadenhall street

Hoare Thomas, Waltham Lane, Herts, victualler (Bond, East India Chambers, Leadenhall street

Horsfall William, Hampstead road, victualler (Warne, Old Broad street

Howe J. Walcut, Somerset, grocer (Shepherd and Adlington, Bedford row, London, and Shephard, Bath

Hunter James, Whitehaven, Cumberland,

meicer and draper (Adamsen, Whitehaven, and Clennell, Staple's inn, London

Ireland John, Ramford, Barr street, East Smithfield, and Lower Thames street, coal factor (Mayhew, Symond's inn

James John, Bristol, cooper (Stephens, Bristol, and Sweet, King's Bench walk, Temple

Jenkins David, Llantrissant, Glamorgan, linen draper (James, Gray's inn square, and Cook, Bristol

Jones Jane, Dolyddhyryon, Carmarvon, tanner (Edmunds, Exchequer office of pleas, Lincoln's inn, and Williams, Casnarvon

Jones William, Reading, nurseryman (Saunders, Reading, and Holmes, Great James's street, Bedford row

Knight Samuel, Whitecross street, cloth-factor and woollen draper (Vizard, Lincoln's inn

Lancaster Benjamin, Scarborough, ship owner (Barber, Chancery lane

Lewis Thos. Bedminster, Somerset, bacon factor (Frowd and Blandford, Mitre Court buildings, Temple

Lloyd Thomas Hughes, Poultry, London, and Walworth Common, Surry, slate merchant (Rippon, Bermondsey str. Southwark

Machall Thomas, Criggleston, York, butcher (Batty, Chancery lane, and Brooke, Wakefield

Mackenzie Roderic, King's Arms yard, London, merchant and factor (Blunt and Bowman, Old Pay office, Broad-street

Mawson William, Kendal, cotton spinner, (Chambre, Chapel street, Bedford row, Richardson and Fall, Kendal

Merry Jonathan Hatfield, West Smithfield, London, oilman (Russen, Crown Court, Aldersgate street

Miall Samuel, Wapping, brewer (Cooper and Lowe, Southampton buildings, Chancery lane

Morris John, Greenwich, builder and carpenter (Allens, Clifford's inn, and Parker, Greenwich

Morton Richard, Manchester, drysalter (Johnson and Bailey, Manchester

Murton Joseph, Hull, dealer and chapman (Cottsworth, Hull, and Exley and Stocker, Farnival's inn, London

Parker William Rigg, Hebden, York, cotton twist spinner (Scofield, Skipton, York, and Spale and Heelis, Great Ormond street, or Staple's inn, London

Payler Thomas, Greenwich, merchant (Pearson, Temple

Phillips John Coates, Bank house, Keighley, York, cotton spinner (Hardsere, Colne, Lancaster, and Wriglesworth, Gray's inn

Powell Henry John, Oxbridge, builder and carpenter (Mills, Ely place

Proctor William, Great Ealing, Middlesex, dealer in hay and straw (Gale and Son, Bedford street, Bedford row

Richards George, Cornhill, bookseller (Bolton, Lane, and Lane, Lawrence Poultney Hill Riddelstorffer George Augustus, Whitechapel, haberdasher (Hurd, Temple

Row William, St. Peter's Quay, Northumberland, ship builder (Atkinson, Chancery lane, and Bainbridge, Newcastle upon Tyne

Salter John, Bermondsey New road, Surry,



carpenter (Heymott, Burrow's buildings, Blackfriars road

Scott J. Gray's inn lane, builder (Winckley, Elm court, Temple

Scott Thomas, Manington, Kent, victualler (Elwyn, Canterbury, and Dyne, Serjeants' inn, Fleet street

Scott Thomas, the elder, Thomas Scott, the younger, and Dowson Scott, Carthorpe, York, grocers and merchants (Rigg, North Allerton, and Lodington and Hall, Temple

Simpson William, Sheffield, innkeeper (Parker and Brown, Sheffield, and Blagrove and Walter, Symond's inn, London

Skyring Zachariah, Bucklersbury, carpenter (Bond, East India chambers, Leadenhall street

Stanley Sarah, Derby, grocer (Warrand, Castle court, Budge row

Stenner Thomas, Bristol, carpenter and joiner (Bush and Prideaux, Bristol, and Bleasdale, Alexander, and Holme, New inn, London

Symonds John, Ramsdon, Oxford, horse dealer (Attwood, Ensham, Oxford, and Edmunds, Exchequer office of pleas, Lincol. inn

Taylor Michael, John Latham, and Elijah Belcher, Liverpool, merchants (Keighley of Orred, Liverpool, and Cooper and Lowe, Chancery lane

Tonkins Samuel Mather, Stanton St. John, Oxfordshire, dealer and chapman (Walsh, Oxford, and Townsend, Staple's inn, London

Tucker John, and Richard Rothwell, Manchester, cotton manufacturers (Redheads, Manchester, and Milne and Parry, Temple, London

Watson William, Tothill street, Westminster, linen draper (Hurd, Temple

Watts William, Bristol, hosier (Bigg, Hatton Garden, and Beaver, Wakefield

Webster Michael, Witham, York, builder (Prickett, Hull, and Watkins and Cowper, Lincoln's inn

Wilkinson John Henry, late of Bond court. Wallbrook, factor, but now in the King's bench (Brown, Pudding lane

Willis George, Bath, cabinet maker (Edmund, Chancery lane, and Miller and Sheppard, Bath

Winnard James, Ormskirk, Lancaster, brewer (Blackstock, St. Mildred's court, Poultry, and Wright and Palmer, Ormskirk

Wood Thomas and George, Kirkby, Malzeard, York, butchers (Coates, Ripon, and Lodington & Hall, Secondaries office, Temple

# DIVIDENDS.

Altham W. Tokenhouse yard, London, broker, March 7—Ballantyne W. Savage gardens, Tower hill, merchant, Feb. 25—Barton Horatio, Manchester, dyer, March 7—Beeton H. G. Gray's inn square, money scrivener, Feb. 11—Bird H. Bristol, tea dealer, March 25—Bishop, Mulliner, Robert and William, Cambridge, woollen drapers, May 2—Bland, J. and J. Satterthwaite, Fen court, London, brokers, Feb. 25—Bland J. Fen court, insurance broker, Feb. 25—Bowers W. Cannon street, comb maker, March 20—Bowers N. W. Cannon st. comb maker, March 20—Bowers N. W. and W. B. Cannon street, comb makers, March 20—Bowmant J. Water lane, brandy merchant,

May 2—Carttar J. Bread street, Cheapside, warehouseman, March 7—Child G. A. Bristol, scrivener, Feb. 11—Clarke J. Dorset street, Manchester square, jeweller, Feb. 25—Clarke A. Liverpool, merchant, March 1—Clemence M. Craven street, Strand, tailor, March 10—Collip J. Great Portland street, upholsterer, March 4—Croft W. Leeds, York, and James Manks, Hunslet, merchants, Feb. 25—Crossley J. Halifax, York, and King street, London, merchant, Feb. 28—Curtis J. F. Minorics, linedraper, Feb. 28—Davies P. Little St. Andrew street, Seven Dials, medicine vend. Feb. 21—Davies W. Holborn, linen draper, March 4—Davis S. Bury street, St. Mary Axe, April 25—Deating T. and M. F. Lichfield street, Soho, tavern keepers, Feb. 7—Delany J. Liverpool, draper, March 15—Dunn J. and C. Robinson, Wood street, London, factors, Feb. 28—Farbridge R. Paragon place, Kent road, timber merchant, March 25—Foggan R. Salford, Manchester, cotton manufacturer, Mar. 11—Gill J. Brownhill, Gloucester, clothier, Apr. 7—Goodwin W. King's Arms stairs and Westminster bridge road, timber merchant, Feb. 2—Greenwood J. and W. Grimaldi, Old Bond street, auctioneers, March 7—Hart H. Great Coram street, Brunswick square, broker, Feb. 7—Hilton W. and J. J. Oxford road, linen drapers, Feb. 15—Hubbersty J. L. Lincoln's inn, barrister, March 11—Husey C. and N. Newgate street, linen drapers, June 27—Joel M. High street, Shoreditch, dealer in glass and earthen ware, March 11—Johnson E. Bleeding hart yd. Charles st. Hatton garden, cabinet maker Jan 28—Kennion J. the elder, Nicholas lane, brokers, Feb. 28—King J. and W. E. King, Covent garden, silk mercers, Feb. 18—King J. Covent garden, silk mercer, Feb. 18—Mylne G. Jeffrey's square, merchant, Feb. 18.—Nantes H. Warrford court, Throgmorton street, merchant, Feb. 18—Ogilvy W. G. Mylne, and J. Chalmers, Jeffrey's square, merchants, Feb. 18—Parr J. O. Suffolk lane, London, insurance broker, March 14—Peacock R. Turnmill st. Clerkenwell, currier, Feb. 24—Price G. Tottenham Ct. rd. liquor merchant, Feb. 25—Shepherd W. Boswell court, scrivener, Feb. 18—Soanes R. Mark lane, London, and New Cross, Deptford, provision merchant, March 7—Spottiswoode Robert, Austin Friars, scrivener, Feb. 18—Stainbank C. Old Bond street, print seller, March 11—Sutton James, Cheapside, goldsmith, Feb. 28—Tennant J. Oxford street, wine and brandy merchant, March 14—Thompson W. Dean street, Southwark, merchant, Feb. 21—Tutlar G. Houndsditch, slopseller, April 18—Vinn T. Clement's inn, Lombard street, dealer, Feb. 18—Ward J. Bermondsey, brewer, Feb. 21—Watson W. Great Cambridge street, Hackney road, builder, Feb. 28—Weston J. Pall Mall, vintner, Feb. 18—Wilkinson J. R. Three Oak lane, Horsleydown, cooper, May 2—Wilson, J. and W. St. Martin's le Grand, warehousemen, Feb. 18—Winwood E. and S. Thodey, Poultry, Scotch factors and glovers, Apr. 18—Wood J. Midfield, Sussex, victualler, Feb. 11—Wright C. Aldgate, tobacconist, Apr. 8—Wrigley J. Pitt street, Blackfriars road, hat manufacturer, Feb. 25—Zachary H. Lawrence lane, Cheapside, Irish factor, Feb. 25.



## LONDON MARKETS.

Return of Wheat from Jan. 30 to Feb. 4.

TOTAL, 4,979 quarters, from 88s to 100s per quarter.  
Average, 93s 10d per quarter, or 0s 3d lower than last return.

Average of England and Wales, Feb. 4.

	s	d	s	d
Wheat	92	4	Barley	45 9
Rye	60	2	Oats	33 9
			Pease	72 9

## CORN, SEEDS, &amp;c.

	s.	s.	Tares, per bush, per	s.	s.
Wheat, white per quarter	80	90	Turnip	15	18
red	68	78	Mustard	12	15
foreign	—	—		—	—
Barley, English	38	45	brown	15	17
Malt	70	76	white	8	10
Oats, Feed	30	33	Canary, per qr.	110	150
Friesland	32	34	Hempseed	110	135
Poland	38	40	Linsseed	220	240
Potatoes	39	41	Clover, red,	220	240
Foreign	—	—	per cwt.	80	100
Beans, Pigeon	57	63	white	100	145
Horse	50	55	foreign,	70	100
Pease, Boiling	130	146	red	—	—
Grey	52	55	white	—	—
Flour, per sack	—	85	Trefoil	28	35
Seconds	75	80	Caraway	40	48
Scotch	75	79	Coriander	13	15

American Flour 0s 4s (nominal) per barrel of 160lbs.

Rapeseed, per last — — — £30 s 53, 56.

Lined Oil Cakes, per thousand £19 19s

## SUGAR, &amp;c. per Cwt.

	s	s	COFFEE, Bonded,	s	d
Muscovade, fine	84	a	Dominica, Surinam, &c.	—	—
good	81	a	Fine	115	0
ordinary	77	a	Good	110	0
East India, white	84	a	Good	110	0
yellow	77	a	Ordinary	100	0
brown	77	a	Triage	75	0

MOLASSES 39s, 6d.

## REFINED SUGAR.

Double Leaves	138	a	145	Good	100	0	a	109
Hambro' ditto	112	a	120	Ordinary	90	0	a	94
Powder ditto	710	a	116	Tringe	70	0	a	80
Single ditto	108	a	114	Mocha	378	0	a	0
Canary Lumps	105	a	112	Bourbon	112	0	a	120
Large ditto	102	a	105	St. Domingo	90	0	a	100
Bastards, whole	75	a	80	Java	112	0	a	115
— faces	85	a	90	COCOA, Bonded,				
— middles	78	a	82	Trinidad and				
— tips	74	a	76	Curacao	110	0	a	0

## GINGER.

	s	s	Spices and Pepper, per lb.	s	d
Jamaica, white	100	a	Nutmegs	28	0
Barbadoes, ditto	85	a	Cloves	3	0
black	65	a	Cinnamon	9	0
	—	—	Mace	60	0
RICE, Bonded	—	—	Pepp. white	4	0
Carolina	60	a	black	2	0
Brazil	45	a	Pimento	2	0

Average price of Raw Sugar, exclusive of duty, 51s 0 1/2d.

Refined Sugars are scarce, and a little demand must raise the prices considerably, as there are so few goods coming forward.—Coffee are rather better.

## HOPS in the Borough.

BAGS.	£	s	£	s	Pockets,	£	s	£	s		
Kent	3	10	a	14	Kent	-	4	6	a	5	12
Sussex	3	3	a	15	Sussex	-	3	3	a	4	8
Essex.	3	10	a	14	Farnham	-	7	0	a	8	0

## CORN, &amp;c. per Quarter.

	February	Wheat,	Barley,	Oats,	Beans,	Peas								
		s s s	s s s	s s s	s s s	s s s								
Lewes	11	84	a	94	16	a	51	30	38	a	a			
Newcastle	11	79	a	94	36	a	46	28	30	58	a	60	35	a
Canterbury	11	70	a	96	43	a	48	40	44	72	a	74	56	a
Chesterfield	11	86	a	110	48	a	58	27	43	—	—	—	—	—
Ashborne	11	90	a	108	52	a	58	32	44	74	a	80	—	—
Lynn	14	84	a	96	34	a	44	26	38	56	a	57	60	a
Gainsboro'	14	89	a	108	42	a	46	28	38	68	a	75	—	—
Louth	15	90	a	100	42	a	50	31	30	53	a	63	—	—
Sandwich	15	89	a	98	40	a	48	35	43	—	—	—	—	—
Newark	15	90	a	106	54	a	58	30	44	56	a	62	—	—
Uppingham	15	94	a	102	46	a	53	39	37	56	a	80	—	—
Newbury	16	79	a	105	36	a	50	42	50	80	a	58	—	—
Devizes	16	63	a	99	33	a	54	17	59	76	a	80	—	—
Reading	74	a	106	35	a	51	33	40	53	a	75	48	a	—
Swansea	90	a	—	18	a	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Henley	72	a	107	34	a	49	36	45	60	a	78	61	a	—
Maidenhead	78	a	103	14	a	48	37	40	63	a	84	60	a	—
Salisbury	7	80	a	96	35	a	53	35	46	70	a	88	—	—
Penrith	7	90	a	102	43	a	—	33	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hull	7	85	a	105	40	a	43	27	36	66	a	74	—	—
Buxingstoke	8	86	a	94	11	a	50	35	40	68	a	74	—	—
Wakefield	10	90	a	105	11	a	47	36	42	53	a	60	—	—
Andover	11	75	a	96	10	a	51	34	42	60	a	72	—	—
Warminster	11	81	a	97	11	a	55	34	42	64	a	84	—	—

## SPIRITS, per Gallon.

	s	d	s	d	s	d	s	d			
Brandy, Cog.	23	0	a	23	0	0	Molasses Spirits,	—	—	—	—
— Spanish	0	0	a	0	0	0	British	15	0	a	0
Holland's Gin	22	6	a	23	0	0	— Irish	15	4	a	0
Rum, Jamaica	16	9	a	17	9	9	— Scotch	15	3	a	0
Low, Isl.	15	9	a	16	0	0	Spirits of Vines	24	0	a	25



## PRICES OF STOCKS.

Days.	Bank Stock.	3 P. Ct Consols.	3 P. Ct Red.	Cons. 4 pr. Ct.	Navy 5 pr. Ct.	Long Ann.	Omnium	Impl. 3 pr. Ct.	Impl. Anns. 5 pr. Ct.	Irish 5 pr. Ct.	S. Sea Stock.	S. Sea Anns.	India Stock	India Bonds.	Exchq. Bills.	St. Lottry Tickets.	Cons. for Ac.
Jan. 21	—	65½ a 1	66½	81½	97½	18½	1½ Dis.	64½	7½	95½	—	65½	181½	11 Pm.	14 Pm.	21½ 19s.	65½
23	—	65½ a 1	66	81½	97½	18½	1½ Dis.	65	7½	95½	—	—	—	10 Pm.	14 Pm.	21½ 19s.	65½
24	241½	65½ a 1	66½	81½	98	18½	1½ Dis.	—	—	—	—	—	—	10 Pm.	13 Pm.	21½ 19s.	66
25	242	65½ a 6½	66½	82	98	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	182	9 Pm.	13 Pm.	—	66
26	243	65½ a 7½	67½	83	98½	18½	1 Dis. 1 P.	65½	7½	95½	—	66½	183	9 Pm.	13 Pm.	—	66½
27	243½	66½ a 7½	67½	83½	99	18½	1 Dis. 1 Pm.	66½	7½	—	—	67½	185	9 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67½
28	244	67½ a 6½	68½	83½	99½	18½	1 Dis. 1 Pm.	—	7½	—	—	—	—	10 Pm.	15 Pm.	—	67½
30	Hol.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
31	244	66½ a 1	67½	83½	98½	18½	Par. 1 P.	66	7½	—	—	67	183½	10 Pm.	15 Pm.	—	67
Feb. 1	—	66½ a 2½	67½	83	99	18½	1 P. 1 Pm.	66½	—	96½	72 a ½	67	183½	10 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67
2	—	66½ a 2½	67½	83	98½	—	Par. 1 P.	—	—	—	—	—	—	10 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67
3	243½	66½ a 2½	67½	83	98½	18½	Par. 1 P.	66½	7½	96½	72½	67	183½	10 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67
4	—	66½ a 2½	67½	83	98½	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	—	—	—	183½	11 Pm.	16 Pm.	—	67½
6	—	66½ a 2½	67½	83	99	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	—	—	—	183½	12 Pm.	15 Pm.	—	67
7	243 a ½	66½ a 2½	67½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	97½	—	—	183½	12 Pm.	15 Pm.	—	67
8	Hol.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
9	244	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99½	18½	1 Pm.	67	7½	97½	—	—	—	11 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	68
10	244½	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99½	18½	1 Pm.	67	7½	—	—	—	185	12 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67½
11	—	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99½	18½	1 Pm.	—	—	—	—	67½	—	13 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67½
12	—	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	—	—	—	72½	67½	—	13 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67½
13	—	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	97½	—	—	—	12 Pm.	13 Pm.	—	67½
14	244	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
15	—	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	97½	—	—	184	11 Pm.	13 Pm.	—	67½
16	244	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	97½	—	67½	—	10 Pm.	13 Pm.	—	67½
17	—	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	97½	—	—	185	10 Pm.	14 Pm.	—	67½
18	—	67½ a 1	68½	83½	99	18½	1 Pm.	66½	7½	—	—	—	—	11 Pm.	13 Pm.	—	67½
20	245	67½ a 1	68½	83½	97½	18½	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	11 Pm.	13 Pm.	—	67½

Highest and lowest prices of 3 per cent consols, others highest only.—HORNSEY and Co. Stock Brokers, 20, Cornhill, and St. Margaret's Hill, Borough.



## METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL,

Kept by R. BANKS, Mathematical Instrument-Maker, Strand, London.

1809 JAN. Day of	BAROME- TER. 9 A.M.	THERMOMETER.				WEATHER.	
		9 A.M.	3 P.M.	High- est.	Low- est.	Day.	Night.
23	29.67	22	31	33	30	Fair	Sleet
24	29.40	32	32	40	33*	Rain	Rain
25	29.43	35	33	39	32	Cloudy	Ditto
26	29.22	44	44	46	40	Fair	Ditto
27	29.51	48	48	40	46	Rain	Close
28	29.59	48	58	50	46	Fair	Ditto
29	29.26	46	47	48	45	Rain	Fine
30	29.32	45	46	48	43	Ditto	Rain†
31	29.76	42	42	44	40	Fair	Close
FEB.							
1	29.77	46	50	52	48	Fair	Ditto
2	29.52	48	49	51	47	Rain	Rain
3	29.21	50	45	52	42	Ditto	Fair
4	29.45	44	42	46	42	Ditto	Ditto
5	29.38	43	43	46	42	Ditto	Ditto
6	29.42	44	26	48	35	Ditto	Rain
7	29.89	38	35	40	31	Ditto	Close
8	29.90	32	38	34	33	Cloudy	Rain
9	29.39	42	48	50	44	Rain	Ditto
10	29.28	47	47	50	44	Ditto	Close
11	29.21	44	46	48	41	Ditto	Ditto
12	28.83	44	48	49	40	Ditto	Ditto
13	28.81	44	46	49	42	Ditto	Ditto
14	29.26	45	47	49	42	Ditto	Ditto
15	29.70	46	46	51	41	Ditto	Rain
16	29.83	44	47	49	45	Fair	Ditto
17	29.58	46	49	53	44	Ditto	Close
18	29.60	48	40	55	38	Rain	Fair
19	30.46	42	46	48	44	Fair	Close
20	30.27	46	40	50	34	Cloudy	Fair

\* At eleven heavy snow. † Tremendous wind. ‡ At eleven Orion and the moon brilliant.  
 § At eleven fine, inclining to frost. || And hail. ¶ Fine till eight. Halo circumscribing  
 the moon, indicating moisture.

## PRICES

Of Fire-Office, Mine, Dock, Canal, Water-Works, Brewery, & Public  
 Institution Shares, &c. &c. for FEBRUARY 1809.

Albion Fire & Life Assurance £60 per sh. pm.	Golden-Lane Brewery - - - 80 0 per sh.
Atlas Fire and Life - - - Par.	Lancaster Canal - - - 17 0 ditto
Eagle ditto - - - Par.	East London Water-Works 46 0 per sh. pm.
Globe ditto - - - £113 0 per cent.	South London do. - - - 30gs. to 31gs. pm.
Hope ditto - - - 18s. per sh. pm.	West Middlesex ditto - - - 26 0 ditto
Imperial ditto - - - £4 per ct. pm.	River Lea Bonds - - - £73 a 75 per cent.
Rock Life Ass. - - - 4s. to 5s. per sh. pm.	London Institution - - - 84 0 per share
Commercial Road Stock - - 114 0 per cent.	Surrey ditto - - - 32 0 ditto
East India ditto - - - 125 0 per cent.	Commercial-Road Stock - 114 0 per cent.
West India ditto - - - 170 0 ditto	Vauxhall Bridge Shares - Par.
London ditto - - - 118½ 0 ditto	Kent Fire Office - - - 50 0 per sh. pm.
Grand Junction Canal Shares 133 0 per sh.	Hope Cattle Insurance - - - Par.
Grand Surrey ditto - - - 260 0 ditto	Drury-lane Theatre £500 renters sh. £300
Kennett & Avon ditto - - - 4 0 per sh. pm.	Covent Garden new Theatre £500 sub-
Thames & Medw. do. new sh. £10 0 pm.	scription share - - - 30gs to 37gs pm.

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Change Alley.