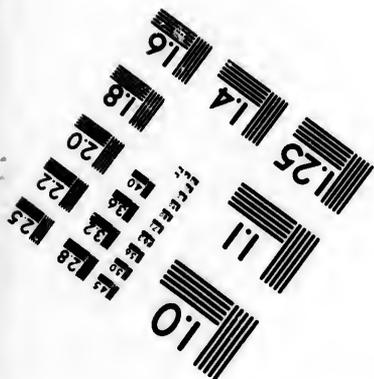
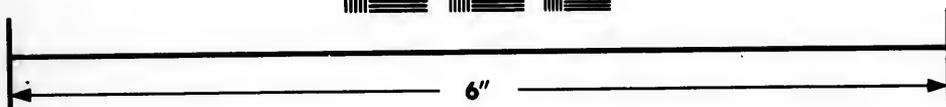
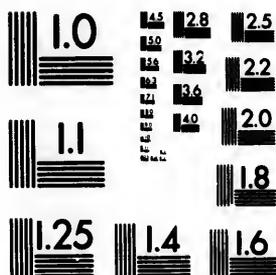


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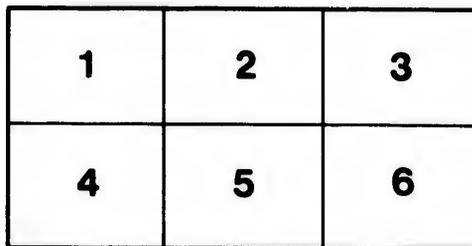
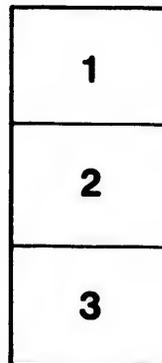
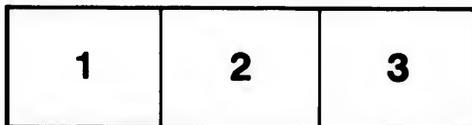
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ADVERTISEMENT.

WHILE the Editor contemplated this undertaking *at a distance*, he perceived difficulties; but they were difficulties of such a sort, as only tended to rouse the mind, and make it act with greater energy and vigour: As the time of publication drew nearer, however, difficulties of another sort occurred, which have only excited anxiety and perplexing doubts, that tend to enervate and to freeze the mental faculties. The many obliging letters he has received from persons of distinguished eminence in all quarters, while they claim his most grateful acknowledgments to their respective writers, have made a deep and melancholy impression on his mind, which it will be difficult to efface: for though he is willing to ascribe no small share of the obliging things that there occur, to that complimentary politeness every one thinks it necessary to assume on occasions of this sort; yet their general tenor is so strong and so uniform, as to leave him no room to doubt that the public hath, in general, formed an estimate of his abilities infinitely more favourable than they deserve. Conscious as he himself is, that the only claim he can justly lay

hold of for obtaining the public favour, is the sincerity of his intentions, he cannot but feel an anxious disquietude of mind, at the thoughts of making his appearance before that public which he is convinced hath formed expectations altogether disproportioned to his deserts. He would fain wish to remove, if possible, the disagreeable effects of that unjust prepossession; but how to do it, he knows not. Impressed with these ideas, he offers this his first number to the public, with doubt and hesitation. These very thoughts have depressed his spirits to such a degree, as to render his mind, feeble at the best, incapable on this occasion of even its ordinary exertions. Embarrassed too, with a number of cares respecting the executive department of a new undertaking, these perplexities have been still farther augmented on this occasion, in an extraordinary degree, so as to divert him in a great measure, at the present time, from being able to attend, as he ought to do, to the more congenial task, to him, of supervising the literary department. In these circumstances, he feels himself under the necessity of supplicating the indulgence of his readers for the defects and imperfections of this number. Should the public be disposed to receive this feeble effort with indulgence, as some of these embarrassments must

abate, his spirits may gradually regain their wonted tone, and his publication perhaps assume a little more of that energy it ought to possess. At any rate, he will submit with a becoming deference to the public decision in this case. And, after thanking his numerous and respectable subscribers for the countenance they have given him, he will only add, that it shall be his invariable study to discharge those obligations he has come under to them, and to the public, with the utmost fidelity in his power: indeed he could not give a stronger proof of his determined resolution to do so, than by publishing, while in the state of depression of mind he feels himself, these present sheets:—for nothing but a positive engagement could have induced him to do so: but a positive engagement to him is always an irrevocable deed; which nothing but an absolute *impossibility* can annul. Kind reader, farewell.

PROSPECTUS.

THE editor of this work has frequently had occasion to remark, in the course of reading, that numerous facts, and important observations, have been published many years, without having ever come to the knowledge of those classes of men who are engaged in the active pursuits of business, though it is, for the most part, by such men only, that practical improvements can be applied to useful purposes in life. From this cause it happens, that the discoveries made by literary men, too often serve rather to amuse the speculative than to awaken the ingenuity of men of business, or to stimulate the industry of the operative part of the community, who have no opportunity of ever hearing of the numerous volumes in which these scattered facts are recorded.

He has likewise observed, that among those who are engaged in arts, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, there are many individuals of great ingenuity and conspicuous talents, who, from experience and observation, have made important discoveries in their respective employments; but that these men being at present in a great measure excluded from the circle of literary intelligence, have neither an opportunity, nor any inducement to communicate their discoveries to others. Thus is useful knowledge confined to a few individuals only, at whose death it is irrecoverably lost, instead of being universally diffused, as it of right ought to be, among all men, at least of their own profession; and the progress of the nation towards perfection in useful attainments is much retarded.

He has also often remarked, with extreme regret, that clergymen*, and others in remote parts of the country, whose minds in their early youth have been delighted with the charms of scientific pursuits, must in the present state of things, unless they be possessed of affluence, reluctantly forego the pleasures that result from a familiar intercourse with the republic of letters, and suffer themselves to sink into a sort of mental annihilation. To such men the poet may be supposed aptly to allude in these beautiful lines:

“ Full many a gem of purest ray serene
“ The dark unfathom'd caves of ocean bear;
“ And many a rose is born to blush unseen,
“ And waste its sweetness on the desert air.”

GRAY.

Alike unknown indeed, and useless to the world, are the *mental* treasures which thus are buried in obscurity, as the inanimate objects here described; but not alike are the effects of neglect on the *animate* and the *inanimate* objects themselves. The gem loses none of its valuable qualities, though it should remain for ages hid in the bosom of the dark abyss; the bursting rose bud also, covered with the dews of heaven, unfolds its opening charms with equal beauty in the tan-

* This observation chiefly applies to clergymen in Scotland.

gled glade, and diffuses its balmy fragrance with the same profusion in the lonely desert, as in the polished garden, where it ministers to the delight of admiring princes. Not so the *man*. His soul, formed with a relish for the superior enjoyments of society, if suffered to pine in neglected obscurity, loses its vivifying principle: its ardent brilliancy fades; and it is soon deprived of all those valuable qualities which might render it either agreeable or beneficial to mankind. Whatever, therefore, shall have a tendency to remove this evil, and to open a ready intercourse between these valuable characters and congenial minds, will confer a very important blessing on mankind.

Such was the general train of reasoning that suggested the idea of the present work: Nor does the editor scruple to own, that the pleasure he has felt in anticipating the happiness he may thus eventually be the means of procuring to many deserving persons who are now lost in obscurity, and in contemplating the benefits that will probably result to the community at large from the revivification of so much genius, which now lies dormant and useless, have tended greatly to incite him to attempt the present arduous undertaking; and have influenced him in adopting the particular form of this work, the mode of its publication, and the price at which it is offered to the public, as being better adapted than any other he could think of, for removing the inconveniences pointed out, and for diffusing knowledge very universally among those classes of men who are at present excluded from the literary circle. Its *form* is such as will easily admit of its being kept clean and entire till it can be bound up for preservation: The *time* that will intervene between the publication of each number will be so short, as not to allow the subjects treated in one to be lost sight of before another appears: answers to queries may be quickly obtained; and contested discussions will thus acquire an interest and a vivacity that cannot be felt in publications that are longer delayed: Nor will those even in the busiest scenes of life find any difficulty in glancing over the whole at leisure hours; and the *price* is so exceedingly moderate as to bring it within the reach of even the most economical members of the community. Thus, he hopes that this performance will become an interesting recreation and an useful instructor to the man of business, and an agreeable amusement during a vacant hour to those of higher rank.

Nor does the editor confine his views to Britain alone. The world *at large* he considers as the proper theatre for literary improvements, and the whole human race, as constituting but one great society, whose general advancement in knowledge must tend to augment the prosperity of all its parts. He wishes, therefore, to break down those little distinctions which accident has produced to set nations at variance, and which ignorance has laid hold of to disunite and to render hostile to each other such a large proportion of the human race. *Commerce* hath naturally paved the way to an attempt, which *literature* alone could not perhaps have hoped to achieve. British traders are now to be found in all nations on the globe; and the English language begins to be studied as highly useful in every country. By means of the universal intercourse which that trade occasions, and the general utility of this language, he

hopes to be able to establish a mutual interchange of knowledge, and to effect a friendly literary intercourse among all nations; by which man shall come gradually to know, to esteem, to aid, and to benefit his fellow creatures wherever he finds them. The human heart is nearly the same at all times; and it is perhaps alike susceptible of piety, beneficence and generosity among all people, if errors that too often pervert the understanding were eradicated. The proper business of philosophy is to eradicate those errors which estrange mankind from each other, and to extend the sphere of beneficence among men wider and wider still, till it shall comprehend every individual of the human race. Should the editor of this work be enabled to establish the foundation of this system of universal civilization, he would reckon himself singularly fortunate indeed; and think that he had accomplished one of the most glorious achievements that can fall to the lot of man to perform. Animated with this hope, his exertions have been great; and he trusts they will not in future be unworthy of the object he has in view. He is happy in being able to say, that he has been more fortunate in forming connections with men of eminence in the literary world than he had any reason to expect; and were he here to mention the names of those who are to honour him with their correspondence, it is hard to say whether it would most expose him to be censured as vain, or bring his veracity in question. Suffice it therefore at present only to say, that there is scarcely a civilized nation on the globe in which he has not a reasonable assurance of having some confidential correspondents, on whose knowledge and zeal in the cause of science he can fully rely. It is indeed to that ardour for knowledge among them that he is solely indebted for the favourable countenance he has obtained. Into all nations, therefore, where the English language is in any way known, this work will probably find its way; and of course it may be expected that the useful discoveries, or literary essays of ingenious men, will have a better chance of being generally read, and the writers of them made known among men of letters, if inserted in it, than perhaps in any other publication. To give this work, therefore, the full value of which it is susceptible, the editor warmly solicits communications from ingenious men of all nations. Brevity and originality in *scientific* disquisitions, utility with respect to *arts*, accuracy and the most scrupulous fidelity in regard to *experiments*, nature and truth in the delineation of *real life*, and elegance in polite literature and the *belles lettres*, are what he chiefly wishes to obtain. Though utility shall ever be his chief aim, he is well aware, that to be able to accomplish this aim, it is necessary that the work should be as agreeable as possible. Dry and intricate details, therefore, it shall be his study to avoid. To polish the manners and to humanize the heart, he believes to be the first steps required in an attempt to inspire a taste for literary excellence, and to excite exertions for attaining the highest perfection in arts. This he hopes to be able to effect, by a careful selection of elegant dissertations, characteristical anecdotes, entertaining tales, and lively sallies of wit and humour, that shall be naturally calculated to awaken the attention of youth, and to

afford a desirable entertainment to those of more enlarged understanding, and cultivated taste.

It is not however, on account of the dissemination of *knowledge* alone that the editor calls the attention of the public to this work; but because it is equally adapted to the extirpation of *error*. Facts, especially when they respect distant objects, are often imperfectly known, or much misrepresented by those who communicate them to the public. When this happens, in the ordinary modes of publication, such misrepresentations cannot be easily discovered. It may be long before such publications fall in the way of those who know the facts with precision: and when this at last does happen, it requires so great an exertion, in these circumstances, to put matters to rights, that few persons find themselves disposed to undertake the task. Even when this difficulty is overcome, the task is but imperfectly accomplished. Thousands may have been misled by the supposed fact, who may never have an opportunity of meeting with its refutation. These, in their turn, may reason upon the fact, and publish it in other works. Error may thus be propagated among millions who never shall have an opportunity of getting these false notions corrected. This could not happen, should the intended miscellany meet with as general a circulation as it is naturally susceptible of. In that case, the publication would soon fall into the hands of some one who would know with precision the facts that occurred in it, even with respect to very distant objects: And as errors of this sort might be rectified, in many cases, by a few lines, which would cost little trouble to write, and be attended with no expense, nor be accompanied with obloquy nor any other disagreeable effect to the writer, there seems to be no room to doubt, that the native love of truth, which is congenial to the human mind, would prompt such persons cheerfully to point out errors wherever they occurred; and as these corrections would come in succession to be read by the very persons who had been at first misled, the evil would be quickly rectified, and this great inlet to error be stopped up nearly at its source. Doubtful facts also, that occurred in other writings, might thus be ascertained; and error be at last so thoroughly ferretted out from all its intricate retreats, as to make TRUTH to reign triumphant over all the regions of science. Such, then, being the great objects aimed at in this apparently humble work, it will not be wondered at that the editor not only does not wish to conceal his name from the public, but is even proud to have given birth to such an undertaking. If his former writings possess any merit at all, they owe it entirely to an unremitting desire in him to promote the general good of mankind; and he trusts, that his efforts to render as perfect as he can, this much greater and more useful performance, may entitle him to hope for a continuance, and an extension even, of that favour, which he has, on all former occasions, so liberally experienced from an ever-indulgent public. Should he fail in this attempt, he shall regret it as a misfortune, and ascribe it to the weakness of his powers, that have not been sufficient to rouse the public attention to a subject of such universal moment; and to the accidental waywardness of the times. If, however,

he meet with the encouragement that the boldness of the attempt, and probable utility of the work, seem to merit, no exertion on his part shall be wanting. Of his own *application* at least, while health shall be continued, he can speak with a reasonable degree of certainty; on the liberal assistance of his literary friends in Britain, he can with a well grounded confidence rely; and he has every reason to expect that his communications from abroad will be valuable alike for their authenticity, variety and importance. It is not, however, on the communications from abroad that he places his chief reliance, nor on the voluntary assistance of private literary friends; he hopes for communications on interesting subjects, as they occasionally occur, from literary characters in Britain who are entire strangers to him, and will be at all times ready to make such returns as the writers of such essays shall be willing to accept, in proportion to the merit of their performances. He shall only add, that conciseness and comprehensive brevity will ever be to him great recommendations.

The editor cannot pretend to announce this work to his readers as a newspaper. It may serve, however, as a concise register of important occurrences, that admits of being conveniently bound up, to be consulted occasionally, and thus to preserve the recollection of events long after those papers that announced them more fully at the time; shall have been suffered to perish. Though this performance cannot therefore boast the merit of announcing news, it may serve very completely the purpose of an useful remembrancer to those who wish to preserve a distinct recollection of the succession of past events.

In one particular department, he proposes to adopt a method that his friends make him hope will give general satisfaction. In all the newspapers, mention is made of the several bills that are introduced into parliament; but unless it be from the debates that occur on the passing of these bills, the public are no farther informed of their contents than the name by which they are announced suggests. Many persons, therefore, have expressed an earnest wish, that a distinct and authentic account could be given of the characteristic peculiarities of each of these bills, in some performance that can easily be obtained by the public at large. This the editor intends to attempt in the present work. Instead of giving a diary of the transactions of parliament, as in a newspaper, he proposes to give a separate history of the rise and progress of each particular bill, announcing always at the beginning the particular objects of the bill, and tracing the amendments it received in each step of its progress through the house; and thus explaining the state in which it is left when passed into a law, or finally rejected; adding himself such occasional remarks as the subject naturally suggests. By this mode of procedure, the account of parliamentary proceedings must indeed be delayed till towards the end of each session of parliament, as it is proposed never to lose sight of one bill till it be finally passed into a law, or rejected. But as the daily proceedings in parliament can be found in every newspaper, this delay can be attended with little inconvenience to the reader; and it is hoped he will receive a satisfaction, in seeing the same subject discussed soon after, and

placed in a light somewhat new; and which, from the manner of treating it, if the execution be tolerable, should be more clear and satisfactory than the ordinary accounts of parliamentary proceedings. How far he shall succeed in this department, the public will decide: but it is extremely obvious, that few things are so much wanted in this country, as a more general publication: than at present takes place of the laws that affect individuals; and he hopes that this attempt, in a work so much within the reach of all ranks of people, will be received with indulgent candour.

The uncommon lowness of price at which this work is offered to the public, has been adopted, that its circulation might be the more extensive, with a view to render this, and other articles of useful information, accessible to the great body of the people: and the editor warmly begs leave to solicit the attention and patronage of the public at large in this attempt; for it is by an extensive circulation alone, that the general attention can be so much engaged, as to effect all the purposes this publication is naturally fitted to accomplish. His utmost zeal, however, can prompt him to go no farther, than to be anxious that those who wish well to the undertaking may have an opportunity of once seeing the work, and of judging for themselves of its merit; and if upon trial they shall find it unworthy of their patronage, it is but just and proper they should then give it up. Had private emolument been the chief object with the editor, he is well aware that he would have better succeeded by affixing a much higher price to it. The more general extension of knowledge, however, is certainly a much greater object to aim at.

Still farther to stimulate the attention of the public, and to call forth the latent sparks of genius that may lie hid from public view; it is the wish of the editor to give a set of premiums, annually, rather honorary than lucrative, for the best dissertations on literary subjects. The extent of these premiums, and the variety of subjects selected for them, must ultimately depend upon the encouragement the public shall give to this undertaking. As a beginning however, the following incitements are humbly offered to such ingenious youths as are willing to engage in the honourable contest for literary glory. It is needless to add, that it is the honour of the victory, rather than the value of the premium, that must constitute the principal reward.

To conclude, the editor will thankfully avail himself of every hint, tending to render his work more perfect in any respect; nor does he despair of being able to furnish a miscellany, that shall be entitled to some share of the public attention.

PREMIUMS PROPOSED FOR LITERARY ESSAYS, &c.

FIRST. For the best written, and the most characteristic sketch of the life of any of the great men or philosophers that follow; viz. Galileo; Columbus; Don Henry of Portugal; Tycho Brahe; Friar Bacon; Alfred; Charlemagne; Cosmo, or Lorenzo de Medici; Cardinal Ximenes; Gustavus Vasa; The Czar Peter the Great; Bacon Lord Verulam; The Bishop of Chiopa; The Abbé de Saint Pierre; or any other great statesman or philosopher who appeared in Europe between the revival of letters, and the beginning of the present century; A GOLD MEDAL,—OR FIVE GUINEAS.

In these sketches, striking characteristic traits, expressive of the peculiar genius and cast of mind of the person, contrasted with the prevailing manners of the people, and modes of thinking at the time, will be chiefly valued. Brevity and force will be high recommendations; but pompous panegyric will be viewed in a very different light. Let facts speak for themselves: For it is facts, when fairly represented, that constitute the chief, and indeed the only excellence of the kind of painting here aimed at. The firm boldness and accuracy of the touches, not the allurements of gaudy colouring, are here wanted.

SECOND. For the best and most striking characteristic sketch of any eminent statesman, philosopher, or artist now living, or who has died within the present century; A GOLD MEDAL,—OR FIVE GUINEAS.

In these sketches, originality and strength of thought, and an exact knowledge of the human mind, will be principally sought for: Brevity and elegance in the style and manner will be greatly esteemed; but without candour and impartiality, they cannot be admitted. The censure and the praise of party writers tend alike to deface all truly characteristic traits, and to disguise instead of elucidating the subject. This must be here avoided.

THIRD. For the best original miscellaneous essay, story, apologue, or tale, illustrative of life and manners; or effusion or disquisition on any subject that tends to interest the heart, and amuse the imagination, in prose; A GOLD MEDAL,—OR FIVE GUINEAS.

An original turn of thought; a correctness and purity of language; ease and elegance of arrangement, and sprightliness of style, when devoid of affectation; will be accounted principal excellencies. Subjects that are cheerful and sportive will be preferred to those that are grave and solemn. But let not affectation be mistaken for ease, nor pertness for wit and humour: Neither should solemnity be confounded with pathos; for the truly pathetic can never fail to please.

He begs leave to repeat, that in these sketches or essays, comprehensive brevity is principally required. It is not by quantity that the editor of this miscellany means to estimate the value of the performances offered to him; but much the reverse. Those essays which comprehend much in small bounds will therefore be always deemed the most valuable. He can never be at a loss for materials to fill his pages; and therefore is anxious that the essays offered to him should be compressed into as small a space as is consistent with elegance and perspicuity.

FOURTH: For the best original essay, in verse; ode, tale, epistle, sonnet, or short poetic effusion of any kind; A SILVER MEDAL,—OF TWO GUINEAS.

FIFTH, For the most spirited translation, or elegant imitation of any select poem in foreign languages, whether ancient or modern; A SILVER MEDAL,—OF TWO GUINEAS.

The editor, when he offers these two last premiums, does it not without fear and hesitation. All the fine arts are pleasing and attractive; but none of them, he believes, is so generally seductive to youthful minds, as the allurements of poetry. While imagination is warm, and before a faculty of observing things accurately, has formed a just taste for imitative beauties, a facility in making verses is often mistaken for a poetic talent; and the seductions of self love keep up the illusion. To these causes, he is sensible, we owe those numerous uninteresting verses that are perpetually issuing from the press, which serve to disgust the man of taste, and make him turn from the sight of verse, though he would be enraptured with genuine poetry, should it fall in his way. Should these small allurements call forth a number of trifles of this sort, the editor would feel he had placed himself in very disagreeable circumstances; for if it be unpleasing even to read such things, it would become in this case extremely distressing, from the unavoidable recollection, that pain must be given by rejecting them. The pleasure, however, he would feel at calling forth, were it but a single line of genuine poetry, that modest merit might have otherwise suppressed, induced him to propose these small premiums. The effect they produce will determine whether in future they shall be continued or withdrawn.

It may not be improper also to hint, that it will be requisite that translations and imitations from the poets in foreign or dead languages, be made chiefly from such passages as have not already appeared in English. A repetition of what has already been done cannot be admitted, unless it possess very superior excellence. There is a spirit, and fire, and heroic ardour, conspicuous in "The Songs of a Prussian Grenadier," by Gleim; and a yet higher degree of artless energy in "The Songs of an Amazon," by Weisse, that would be highly captivating to most readers, were they known; and among the Lyric pieces of Metastasio, there is a brevity, a simplicity, an elegance and pathos, that has been seldom imitated in the English language. It has perhaps been thought the genius of the language did not admit of it. Neither was it thought that a sonnet could be written in English, that could possess those seductive charms that had been admired for two hundred years in the writings of Petrarch, till a lady, well known in the annals of polite literature, very lately shewed, that for this species of poetry, no language was more happy than our own. Under the plastic power of genius, language becomes an instrument capable of every thing: Where genius is wanting, it is a tool of very circumscribed powers.

* Essays intended for this competition, written in the English language, will be received any time before the 1st of May* 1792, addressed, post paid, to the Editor, at the printing house of Mundell and Son, Edinburgb. To each essay must be prefixed a few words as a motto; the same motto, in the same hand writ-

* The editor considering that many persons have not had an opportunity of seeing the Prospectus who may wish to become competitors, has enlarged the time for receiving papers beyond what was at first proposed.

ing, being inscribed upon the outside of a sealed paper accompanying it, containing the name and address of the competitor, or such name and address as he pleases to put in its stead, if he wishes to remain unknown. The sealed paper belonging to each of those essays to which the premiums shall be adjudged, will be opened when the premiums are awarded, and the essays be published in this miscellany. The other essays will be returned if desired; or they will be severally published, if approved by the judges to whom this matter shall be referred, and if agreeable to the writer. At any rate, however, none of the sealed papers, unless it be those belonging to the essays to which premiums are adjudged, shall be opened; but will be returned, if desired, to any person who shall call for them: Or, if not called for within six months after the premiums shall be adjudged, they will then be burnt, in the presence of respectable witnesses, who shall attest that the seals were unopened. The strictest honour in this respect may be depended on.

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THE BEE,
OR
LITERARY INTELLIGENCER.

FOR

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 22, 1796.

*Cursorfory Hints and Anecdotes of the late Doctor
WILLIAM CULLEN of Edinburgh.*

Amicus Plato, sed magis amica veritas.

A life of Doctor Cullen, with a full account of his writings, being now preparing for the press by a masterly hand, on the authenticity of whose information the public may rely,—the editor of this miscellany finds it unnecessary, and would be improper in him to offer to his readers, in these circumstances, any thing farther than a few hints and anecdotes, illustrative of the character and disposition of that great man; most of which have fallen under his own observation, but which could not with propriety have found a place in a regular biographical article. Requesting, therefore, that the curiosity of the public may be suspended till that more perfect work shall appear,—the following hints are offered merely as a tribute of gratitude in the writer, and in compliance with the engagements he has come under to the public. If they have no other merit, their authenticity may be relied upon.

It is a melancholy consideration to the Editor, that he has occasion to begin his work with a posthumous account of the most eminent preceptor and disinterested friend he ever had in the world. Short is the period that man is suffered to tread this transitory stage

VOL. I.

A

of existence ; nor is it in the power of man to arrest the stroke of death : But it is sometimes in his power to preserve a few faint memorials of those he loved ; and he finds a pleasure in attempting to perpetuate the remembrance of those amiable qualities which have contributed, in an essential manner, to augment his own happiness and that of others. These are the motives which induce the writer of this memoir to take up the pen on the present occasion.

To speak of Doctor Cullen in his professional quality as a physician, would require talents that do not belong to the writer of these pages : His writings are well known, and will be more justly appreciated by others. It is Cullen as a man ; as a member of society ; as a man of letters, and a promoter of scientific knowledge ; we mean here to contemplate.

The most striking features in the character of Doctor Cullen were, as a man of letters, great energy of mind, and vigour of enterprise, a quick perception, a retentive memory, and talent for arrangement : as a man — as *a member of society*, beneficence and warmth of heart, candour and sociability of disposition, vivacity of temper, politeness and urbanity of manners. These peculiarities of character were perceptible in every transaction of his life ; had an influence on his conduct on all occasions ; and gave a tinge to his studies, his reasoning, his pursuits, and his practice, through every period of his life.

To most men who have made attainments that could in any respect be compared with those of Doctor Cullen, study is a serious, often a severe, and seemingly a burdensome employment : To *him*, it never seemed to be more than an amusement ; an amusement too of such a sort as never occupied his mind so much as to prevent him from indulging, with perfect freedom, those social dispositions which made him at all times take particular delight in the company of

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his friends ; so that to those pupils and friends who had access alike to perceive his singular exertions in his literary capacity, to converse with him in his own house, and to know his mode of living, it has often afforded matter of wonder, how he contrived to obtain that knowledge they found he possessed. For more than thirty years that the writer of this article has been honoured with his acquaintance, he has had access to know, that Doctor Cullen was in general employed from five to six hours every day in visiting his patients, and in prescribing for those at a distance who consulted him in writing ; and that during the session of the college, which in Edinburgh lasts from five to six months, he delivered *two* public lectures of an hour each, sometimes *four* lectures a day, during *five* days of the week ; and towards the end of the session, that his students might lose no part of his course, he usually, for a month or six weeks together, delivered lectures *six* days every week ; yet during all that time, if you chanced to fall in with him in public or in private, you never perceived him either embarrassed, or seemingly in a hurry ; but at all times he was easy, and cheerful, and sociably inclined : and in a private party at whist, for sixpence a game, he could be as keenly engaged for an hour before supper, as if he had had no other employment to mind, and would be as much interested in it, as if he had had a thousand pounds depending on the game.

Nor was it only after he was far advanced in life that his opportunities for study were few, and the means of acquiring knowledge interrupted by the pressing avocations of business. Though descended from respectable parents in Lanarkshire *, their circumstances were such as did not enable them to lay out much money on the education of their son William ; who, after having served a short apprenticeship to a surgeon apothecary in Glasgow, went several voyages to

* His father was some time *Bailie*, that is, *chief magistrate* of Hamilton

the West Indies, as a surgeon, in a trading vessel from London: but of this employment he tired, and settled himself, at an early period of life, as a country surgeon, in the parish of Shotts, where he staid a short time, practising among the farmers and country people, and then went to Hamilton with a view to practise as a *physician*, having never been fond of operating as a *surgeon*.

The writer of this article had no opportunity of knowing Doctor Cullen, till he had nearly attained his fiftieth year: but from the ardour of mind, the vigour of enterprize, the vivacity of disposition, and the sociability of temper the Doctor then possessed, it has often occurred to him, that during the younger part of life, Cullen could not fail to prove a very interesting character to such as were capable of judging of it, and of being a most engaging companion to those who knew how to enjoy life. These qualifications made him be soon taken notice of by the gentlemen of the country where he resided, to whose tables he was at all times readily admitted as a welcome guest.

While he resided near Shotts, it chanced that Archibald Duke of Argyle, who at that time bore the chief political sway in Scotland, made a visit to a gentleman of rank in that neighbourhood. The Duke was fond of literary pursuits, and was then particularly engaged in some chemical researches, which required to be elucidated by experiment. Eager in these pursuits, his Grace, while on this visit, found himself much at a loss for the want of some small chemical apparatus, which his landlord could not furnish: but happily recollecting young Cullen in the neighbourhood, he mentioned him to the Duke as a person who could probably furnish it.—He was accordingly invited to dine; was introduced to his Grace,—who was so much pleased with his knowledge, his politeness and address, that he formed an acquaintance which laid the foundation of all Doctor Cullen's future advancement.

The name of Cullen by this time became familiar at every table in that neighbourhood; and thus he came to be known, by character, to the Duke of Hamilton, who then resided, for a short time, in that part of the country: and that nobleman having been suddenly taken ill, the assistance of young Cullen was called in, which proved a fortunate circumstance in serving to promote his advancement to a station in life, more suited to his talents than that in which he had hitherto moved.

The character of the Douglasses, of which name the family of Hamilton now forms a principal branch, has always been somewhat of the same stamp with that of the rising Cullen. Genius, benevolence, frankness, and conviviality of disposition, have been, with them in general, very prominent features: and if to that be added a spirit of frolic and of dissipation, these will be accounted as only natural consequences of those youthful indulgences that spring from an excess of wealth at an early period of life, and the licence allowed to people of high rank. The Duke was therefore highly delighted with the sprightly character and ingenious conversation of his new acquaintance. Receiving instruction from him in a much more pleasing, and an infinitely easier way than he had ever before obtained, the conversation of Cullen proved highly interesting to his Grace—no wonder then that he soon found means to get his favourite Doctor, who was already the esteemed acquaintance of the man through whose hands all preferments in Scotland were obliged to pass, appointed to a place in the university of Glasgow, where his singular talents for discharging the duties of the station he now occupied, soon became very conspicuous †.

† It was not, however, solely to the favour of these two great men that Cullen owed his literary fame. He was recommended to the notice of men of science, in a way still more honourable to himself. The dispassion of the Duke of Hamilton having resisted the effect of the first

During his residence in the country, however, several important incidents occurred, that ought not to be passed over in silence. It was during this time that was formed a connection in business in a very humble line, between two men, who, by the decrees of fate, had been ordained to become afterwards eminently conspicuous in much more exalted stations. William, afterwards Doctor Hunter, the famous lecturer on anatomy in London, was a native of the same part of the country, and not being in affluent circumstances more than Cullen, these two young men, stimulated by the impulse of genius to prosecute their medical studies with ardour, but thwarted by the narrowness of their fortune, entered into a copartnery business as surgeons and apothecaries in the country. The chief end of their contract being to furnish each of the parties with the means of prosecuting their medical studies, which they could not separately so well enjoy, it was stipulated, that one of them alternately should be allowed to study in what colleges he inclined, during the winter, while the other should carry on the business in the country for their common advantage. In consequence of this agreement, Cullen was first allowed to study in the University of Edinburgh, for one winter; but when it came to Hunter's turn next winter, he, preferring London to Edinburgh, went thither. There his singular neatness in dissecting, and uncommon dexterity in making anatomical preparations, his assiduity in study, his mildness of manner, and pliability of temper, soon recommended him to the notice of Doctor Douglass, who then read lectures upon anatomy and midwifery there, who engaged Hunter as an assistant,

applications, Doctor Clarke was sent for from Edinburgh, and he was so much pleased with every thing that Cullen had done, that he became his eulogist upon every occasion. Cullen never forgot this; and when Clarke died, gave a public oration in his praise, in the University of Edinburgh; which, it is believed, was the first of the kind in this country.

and whose chair he afterwards filled, with so much honour to himself and satisfaction to the public.

Thus was dissolved, in a premature manner, a copartnery perhaps of as singular a kind as is to be found in the annals of literature: nor was Cullen a man of that disposition to let any engagement with him prove a bar to his partner's advancement in life. The articles were freely departed from by him; and Cullen and Hunter ever after kept up a very cordial and friendly correspondence; though, it is believed, they never from that time had a personal interview with each other.

During the time that Cullen practised as a country surgeon apothecary, he formed another connection of a more permanent kind, which, happily for him, was not dissolved till a very late period of his life. With the ardour of disposition he possessed, it cannot be supposed he beheld the fair sex with indifference. Very early in life, he took a strong attachment to an amiable woman, a Miss Johnston †, nearly of his own age, who was prevailed on to join with him in the sacred bonds of wedlock, at a time when he had nothing else to recommend him to her except his person and dispositions: for as to riches and possessions, he had little of these to boast of. She was beautiful, had great good sense, equanimity of temper, an amiable disposition, and elegance of manners, and brought with her a little money, which, though it would be accounted nothing now, was something in those days, to one in his situation in life. After giving to him a numerous family, and participating with him the changes of fortune which he experienced, she peacefully departed this life in summer 1786.

In the year 1746, Cullen, who had now taken a degree of Doctor in physic §, was appointed a lec-

† Daughter to a Clergyman in that neighbourhood.

§ His diploma bears date, Glasgow 4th September 1740.

turer * in chemistry in the University of Glasgow : and in the month of October began his lectures in that science. His singular talents for arrangement, his distinctness of enunciation, his vivacity of manner, and his knowledge of the science he taught, rendered his lectures interesting to the students, to a degree that had been till then unknown at that university. He became, therefore, in some measure adored by the students. The former professors were eclipsed by the brilliancy of his reputation ; and he had to experience all those little rubs, that envy and disappointed ambition naturally threw in his way. Regardless, however, of these secret shagreens, he pressed forward with ardour in his literary career ; and, supported by the favour of the *public*, he consoled himself for the contumely he met with from a few individuals. His practice as a physician increased from day to day ; and a vacancy having occurred in the year 1751, he was then appointed by the king professor of medicine in that university. This new appointment served only to call forth his powers, and to bring to light, talents, that it was not formerly known he possessed ; so that his fame continued to increase.

As the patrons of the University of Edinburgh are ever on the watch to discover the most eminent men in the medical line in Scotland, their attention was soon directed towards Cullen ; so that on the death of Doctor Plumber, professor of chemistry in Edinburgh, which happened in the year 1756, Doctor Cullen was unanimously invited to accept the vacant chair. This invitation he accepted : and having resigned all his employments in Glasgow †, he began his academical career in Edinburgh in the month of October of that year ; and here he resided till his death.

* A lecturer gives lessons like a professor ; but he is not a constituent member of the corporate body called an University.

† March 22. 1756.

If the admission of Cullen into the University of Glasgow gave great spirit to the exertions of the students, this was still, if possible, more strongly felt in Edinburgh. Chemistry, which had been till that time of small account in that University, and was attended to by very few of the students, instantly became a favourite study; and the lectures upon that science were more frequented than any others in the University, anatomy alone excepted. The students, in general, spoke of Cullen with the rapturous ardour that is natural to youth when they are highly pleased. These rapturous eulogiums appeared extravagant to moderate men, and could not fail to prove disgusting to his colleagues. A party was formed among the students for opposing this new favourite of the public; and these students, by misrepresenting the doctrines of Cullen to others who could not have an opportunity of hearing these doctrines themselves, made even some of the most intelligent men in the University, think it their duty publicly to oppose these imaginary tenets. The ferment was thus augmented; and it was some time before the professors discovered the arts by which they had been imposed upon, and universal harmony restored. During this time of public ferment, Cullen went steadily forward, without taking any part himself in these disputes. He never gave ear to any tales respecting his colleagues, nor took any notice of the doctrines they taught: That some of their unguarded strictures might at times come to his knowledge, is not impossible; but if they did, they seemed to make no impression on his mind: For during three years that the writer of this article attended his public lectures, while this ferment reigned, and for upwards of thirty years that he has been indulged with his private acquaintance, he can with truth aver, that neither in public nor in private, did he ever hear a single expression drop from Cullen, that tended, directly or indirectly, to derogate from the professional character of any of his colleagues, or

that could induce a student to think lightly of their talents as professors, or their abilities as physicians. This circumstance is here brought forward merely as a characteristical trait,—as an unequivocal mark of that magnanimity and dignity of character, which a little mind could never be taught to attain.

These attempts of a party of students to lower the character of Cullen on his first outset in the University of Edinburgh, having proved fruitless, his fame as a professor, and his reputation as a physician, became more and more respected every day. Nor could it well be, otherwise; Cullen's professional knowledge was always great, and his manner of lecturing singularly clear and intelligible, lively, and entertaining; and to his patients, his conduct in general as a physician was so pleasing, his address so affable and engaging, and his manner so open, so kind, and so little regulated by pecuniary considerations, that it was impossible for those who had occasion to call once for his medical assistance, ever to be satisfied on any future occasion without it. He became the friend and companion of every family he visited; and his future acquaintance could not be dispensed with.

To be continued.

On the Advantages of Periodical Performances.

MAN is the only animal we know, that possesses the power of *aggregate* existence. All other animals may be said to exist *individually*; that is to say, each individual, after it comes into the world, is directed only by its own instincts, observation and experience, to pursue the mode of conduct that is suited to its nature, and the circumstances in which it finds itself placed. Hence it happens, that the aggregate powers of any

one class of animals remain without any change. Their numbers may increase or diminish; but their faculties are, upon the whole, for ever the same. The distinctive properties of the horse, the ass, the elephant, the bee, and all other classes of animals we know, are precisely the same at the present moment as in the days of Moses and of Homer, and will continue unchanged till the end of time. But of MAN, the same thing cannot be said. Each *individual* of his species, like those of other animals, comes into the world, endowed with certain instincts and perceptive faculties, which enable him to make observations, and derive knowledge from experience as they do, and from reasoning. This experience, and the knowledge resulting from it, is not, however, in him confined to the individual alone—he is endowed with the faculty of communicating the knowledge he has individually acquired to others of his own species, and to derive from them in return, the knowledge that other individuals who fall in his way, have in the same manner acquired. The young derive information from the old; and thus are enabled, at their first entry into life, to set out with a greater share of *acquired* knowledge than any one individual of the human species ever could have attained during the course of the longest life, had he been left entirely to himself, like other animals. He does more—The experience of *ages* thus furnishes an accumulated stock of knowledge for every single person; and the individual who died a thousand years ago, may become the instructor of those who are born in the present time. It is this faculty of accumulating knowledge in the aggregate, which forms the distinctive character of the human species, when compared with every other class of animals, and which has conferred upon man that distinguished rank he holds in the universe. It is this circumstance which gives to the man, even of the lowest intellectual powers, that marked superiority he holds above the most intelligent individuals of the most saga-

cious class of animals in the world : for there is scarcely room to doubt, that if the most sagacious animal in the order of the elephant, and the lowest individual as to intellectual powers among the human species, had been left entirely to themselves, as individuals, the elephant would have appeared to be the wisest animal of the two.

This progressive knowledge of man, considered as an aggregate body, though it has never, that I know, been hitherto contrasted with that of other animals, has long been an object of human attention ; and this state of advancement has been denoted by the name of the progress of human society—the advancement of man in civilization—the progress from rudeness to civilization, &c.—and to man considered in this *aggregate* capacity, must be referred the words, manners, habit, custom, fashion, and innumerable others of a similar nature, which it is not necessary here to enumerate.

Man has been distinguished as a *social* animal ; but this is by no means a distinctive peculiarity. Many other animals feel the influence of the social principle in an equal, or perhaps superior degree to man. All the gregarious animals seek society, and shun solitude with an equal solicitude as man ; and most of these, in cases of danger, unite with equal alacrity and firmness in their common defence, so as to derive, in this way, an aggregate power which they could not individually have possessed. The ox, the horse, the ass, do so ; the sheep even, though unjustly characterised by naturalists, as the most stupid of all animals, when in a state of nature, unite in a firm phalanx for common defence, and present an armed front to the enemy so closely compacted, as to be impenetrable to the fox or wolf, who dare not attempt a direct attack, but must watch an opportunity of stealing upon them, when unprepared, to obtain their prey. And the economy of the bee, whose joint labours discover an aggregate effort of an immense number of individuals, conducted with the

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most unceasing assiduity, persevering industry, and exactest order, towards one common end, has long furnished a subject of wonder and admiration to man, and discovers a much closer system of association for mutual defence and preservation, than ever yet has been found among the human species. It is not, therefore, by the social principle that man is essentially distinguished from other animals; nor by his sagacity in calling in the aid of multitudes to add to his individual strength: It is to the faculty of communicating ideas from one to another, and the accumulation of knowledge, that, in a course of ages, this necessarily produces, that he solely owes the superiority he now so conspicuously holds over all other animals on this globe; and from that circumstance alone derives that irresistible power, by which all the animate objects in nature are subjected to his sway; and by which the elements themselves are made to minister to his will.

It follows from these premises, that whatever tends to facilitate the communication of ideas between man and man, must have a direct tendency to exalt the human species to a higher degree of eminence than it could otherwise have attained. This, the art of printing has done in a very conspicuous manner. Men are thus brought, as it were, to converse together, who could never otherwise have known that such persons existed on the globe: The knowledge that has been acquired in one country, is thus communicated to another; and the accumulated experience of former ages, is preserved for the benefit of those that are to come. But the effects of this art would be greatly circumscribed, were not methods contrived for diffusing that knowledge very generally among mankind;—and among all the modes that have been devised for that purpose, no one has been so effectual as that of periodical performances. Periodical performances, therefore, though apparently a humble kind of writings, are in effect the most proper means that ever yet have

been contrived, for raising human nature to its highest degree of exaltation, and for conferring upon man a more conspicuous degree of dignity above all other animals, and a more extended power over the elements, and other objects of nature, than he could otherwise hope to obtain.

Men of all ranks, and of all nations, however widely disjoined from each other, may be said to be brought together here to converse at their ease, without ceremony or restraint, as at a masquerade, where, if a propriety of dress and expression be observed, nothing else is required. A man, after the fatigues of the day are over, may thus sit down in his elbow chair, and, together with his wife and family, may be introduced, as it were, into a spacious coffee-house, which is frequented by men of all nations, who meet together for their mutual entertainment and improvement. The dead are even called back to their friends, and mix once more in social converse with those who have regretted their departure. Could a Pliny or a Cicero have formed an idea of such a high degree of mental indulgence, what would have been the raptures they would have experienced? To them, this most exalted of all entertainments was forbid by fate: But what they could never enjoy, and what Cicero would have gladly purchased at the price of his beloved *Tusculum* itself, is now offered to every inhabitant of Britain, at a very small expence. Let us then enjoy with thankfulness the blessings that Heaven hath bestowed, and make a proper use of those distinguished privileges that the progress of improvement in society hath conferred upon us; nor let us fail to add our mite as we pass, to the general store, that posterity may not have reason to reproach us for having hid our talent in the earth, and allowed it there to remain without improvement or benefit to any one.

Account of Mr. LEDYARD.

MR. LEDYARD, a native of America, who had an irresistible propensity to explore unknown countries, went round the world with Captain Cooke—Afterwards he meant to go through Russia, into North America, to traverse the whole of that great continent, from west to east. On this expedition he set out with no more than ten guineas in his pocket. From Stockholm, he meant to cross the gulf of Bothnia on the ice; but when he came near the middle, finding it not frozen, he was obliged to return, and went round by the head of that great sea, and passing through Finland, in the depth of winter, arrived at Petersburgh—From thence he went to Siberia, as far as Kamschatka on foot; but finding the passage across to America shut up with ice, he was forced to return to *Yakutz*—Here he was taken up by order of the Empress of Russia; and without any reason given, was hurried away to the confines of Poland, where he was dismissed, with an order not to return into Russia. He found his way to Konigsberg, and from thence back to Britain. Here he arrived just at the time that the association for making discoveries in Africa were looking out for a proper person to undertake these inquiries—Mr. Ledyard was immediately applied to, who gladly undertook the task. The particular enterprise allotted to him was, to penetrate through Egypt into Sennar; and from thence to try to explore a way westward, towards the river Niger, and make what discoveries he could. The arduousness of the task did not make him hesitate one moment—He set out on the expedition with alacrity, and reached Cairo in Egypt without any cross accident. Here he remained some time, making inquiries concerning the countries he was about to explore, and preparations for his journey—

But unexpected delays intervening, he was seized with a bilious complaint, which carried him off in the end of the year 1788, in Cairo, where he was decently interred in the neighbourhood of such of the English as had ended their days in that Capital.

Of this surprising man, whose ardour of mind could scarcely be equalled in any age or country, I know not if any portrait remains. "His person, we are told by one who knew him well, though scarcely exceeding the middle size, was remarkably expressive of activity and strength; and his manners, though unpolished, were neither uncivil nor unpleasing. Little attentive to difference of rank, he seemed to consider all men as his equals, and as such he respected them. His genius, though uncultivated and irregular, was original and comprehensive. Ardent in his wishes, yet calm in his deliberations; daring in his purposes, but guarded in his measures; impatient of controul, yet capable of strong endurance; adventurous beyond the conception of ordinary men, yet wary and considerate, and attentive to all precautions, he appeared to be formed by nature for achievements of hardihood and peril.

They who compare the extent of his pilgrimage through the vast regions of Tartary, with the scantiness of his funds, will naturally ask, by what means he obtained a subsistence on the road? All that I have ever learned from him on the subject, was, that his sufferings were excessive"—"I am accustomed, says he, in our last conversation, ('twas on the morning of his departure for Africa) I am accustomed to hardships—I have known both hunger and nakedness to the utmost extremity of human sufferings—have known what it is to have food given to me, as charity to a madman; and I have at times been obliged to shelter myself under the miseries of that character, to avoid a heavier calamity. My distresses have been greater than I ever owned, or ever *will* own to any man. Such evils are terrible to bear; but they never yet had power to

turn me from my purpose. If I live, I will faithfully perform, in its utmost extent, my engagements to the society; and if I perish in the attempt, my *honour* will still be safe, for death cancels all bonds."

Such was the language of this extraordinary man: A language that will be deemed insanity by the bulk of mankind: It will be deemed madness even by those who are the most eager to avail themselves of the discoveries that such men have made—Yet, if happiness be the only desirable object in this life, it might perhaps admit of a doubt, if this very man did not enjoy a greater share of it, than those insipid characters who languish in the lap of ease, and whose souls are devoured with anxiety, when surrounded by all the alluring objects that affluence can procure.

In one of his letters from Egypt, he says, "Money! it is a vile slave!—I have at present an economy of a more exalted kind to observe. I have the eyes of some of the first men of the first kingdom on earth turned upon me. I am engaged by those very men, in the most important object that any private individual can be engaged in: I have their approbation to acquire, or to lose; and their esteem also, which I prize beyond every thing, except the independent idea of serving mankind. Should rashness or desperation carry me through, whatever fame the vain and injudicious might bestow, I should not accept it;—it is the good and great I look to: Fame from them bestowed is altogether different, and is closely allied to a "WELL DONE" from God: but rashness will not be like to carry me through, any more than timid caution. To find the necessary medium of conduct; to vary and apply it to contingencies, is the economy I allude to; and if I succeed by such means, men of sense, in any succeeding epoch, will not blush to follow me, and perfect those discoveries I have only abilities to trace out roughly, or a disposition to attempt."

With what contempt will those who think that wisdom consists alone in the acquisition of wealth and in power, dominion and authority over others; with what contempt for the intellectual powers of our traveller, will such persons read the following paragraph, "A Turkish sofa, says Ledyard, has no charms for me: If it had, I could soon obtain one here. I could tomorrow take the command of the best armament of Ishmael Bey. I should be sure of success, and its consequential honours. Believe me, a single WELL DONE from your association, has more worth in it to me, than all the trappings of the east; and what is still more precious, is, the pleasure I have in the justification of my own conduct at the tribunal of MY OWN HEART." Yet, it was sentiments, such as these, that produced a Columbus, a Wolfe, and a Cooke, whose fame shall remain, a subject for admiration to future ages, when the names of miriads who have indulged in a life of affluent insipidity, shall be deservedly lost in perpetual oblivion.

Among other advantages that the world derives from the existence of such men as Ledyard, is a knowledge of human nature. It is to men in trying situations alone, that the human heart appears in its own native colours—No hope perverts; no fear alarms; and it is at liberty to discover its native emotions with the most unbiassed freedom. The following character of the fair sex, drawn by a man who had had occasion thus to view them in their native purity, will therefore, I trust, be deemed not less beautiful than just. It is pleasing to contemplate the universal beneficence of that being who conferred upon man this tender companion through life, as a solace for his cares, and a sweetener of every enjoyment. What a reproach is it to this lord of the creation, that a being so naturally amiable as woman, should in self defence be in so many cases compelled to become the scourge of her tormentor.

"I have always remarked, says this careful observer of manners, that women in all countries, are civil,

obliging, tender, and humane : that they are inclined to be gay and cheerful, timorous and modest ; and that they do not hesitate, like men, to perform a generous action. Not haughty, not arrogant, not supercilious, they are full of courtesy, and fond of society : more liable, in general, to err than man ; but in general, also, more virtuous, and performing more good actions than he. To a woman, whether civilized or savage, I never addressed myself in the language of decency and friendship, without receiving a decent and friendly answer. With man it has often been otherwise.— In wandering through the *barren plains of inhospitable Denmark, through honest Sweden and frozen Lapland, rude and churlish Finland, unprincipled Russia, and the wide spread regions of the wandering Tartar,* if hungry, dry, cold, wet, or sick, the women have ever been friendly to me, and uniformly so ; and to add to this virtue, (so worthy the appellation of benevolence) their actions have been performed in so free, and so kind a manner, that if I was dry, I drank the sweetest draught, and if hungry, I ate the coarse morsel with a double relish."

What a beautiful eulogium ! and how justly due. These friendly offices were performed to our suffering stranger, without the smallest prospect of any return from him : But I ought to add, they were performed to one who felt their value, and who revered the mildness of that tender hand which administered them ; and who no doubt expressed in those native tones and gestures, which constitutes an universal language among all mankind, the sense he entertained of it, with irresistible propriety. To the haughty, the supercilious or the vain, such tenderness *could* not have been exerted. Half the ills that man suffers from his fellow creatures, are owing to himself ; and it is his own mind alone that can superadd the balm of beneficence, to the tenderness of kindness.

To be continued

On Poetry.

AMONG the many hints for perfecting this work, with which the editor has been favoured since the first publication of the prospectus of it, are the two following letters.

My first correspondent says, "The only thing I presume to suggest, at present, as a fault in your prospectus, is offering a premium for poetical essays; and that you seem not to be insensible of yourself. We have four times more poetry, both in our own and other languages, than any wise man, whatever be his station or circumstances, ought to read; and therefore, to tempt vain or inconsiderate men to add to the mass, seems to me injurious both to themselves and the public. I have known many for near half a century, who were deemed by no inconsiderable critics, to possess a good degree of poetical merit, though few of their performances reached the public eye, except under fictitious names; but not one of the whole (a northern professor excepted) who did not become bankrupts in reputation and trade. They might sometimes, perhaps, afford an acquaintance an opportunity of spending, or rather killing an idle hour agreeably, by reading a manuscript fally of imagination; but that acquaintance must have possessed a dull invention, if he could not have spent the hour more usefully, and even as agreeably. Could you turn the thoughts of your countrymen to the best method of abolishing feudal maxims and ideas; to consider in a true light the natural rights of man; to devise the cheapest, and most speedy mode of obtaining justice at the different courts; to class society properly, and from thence select jurymen, *so* that justice may be fairly distributed without respect of persons: I say, could, you do all these

“ things, you would deserve better of your country, than
 “ if you produced a poem containing the united beau-
 “ ties of the Iliad, the Æneid, Paradise lost, and Fin-
 “ gal.”

Now, though it is most readily admitted, that the objects pointed out by this very judicious correspondent, are of the highest utility, and that there is perhaps *ten* times as much poetry written as any wise man would choose to read; yet, it by no means follows from hence, that poetry should be actually proscribed from this work. If it be right to cherish the finest feelings of the heart; if hilarity of disposition promotes the pleasurable intercourses of civil society; if innocent recreation tends to divert the mind from hurtful pursuits; and if the happiness of man be augmented by indulging those tender propensities which spring from the contemplating acts of beneficence and disinterested bounty; if pious exercises tend to elevate the soul to praise-worthy exertions; then shall we be forced to allow that poetry, which, if judiciously selected, tends to promote all these good ends, so far from being hurtful, ought to be admitted as a very useful part of this miscellany. For these and other obvious reasons, though it shall be our study never to forget the useful pursuits here pointed out, we shall also make it our business to search for such pieces of poetry, ancient or modern, as appear to be deserving the attention of the public.

Poetry is indeed so congenial to the human mind, that it has been, among all nations, the first species of composition that has attracted the universal attention of the people; and it is in the language of poetry, that a spirit of devotion has naturally been expressed. Among the most savage tribes, its charms have been recognized; and it is only after refinement has weakened the natural tones of the human mind, that its influence comes to be disputed. The poetry of nations therefore, affords perhaps the best and the most universal key for tracing the progress of civil society; for though the natural

affections of devotion, magnanimity, generosity, fidelity, parental affection, and love, have formed universally the favourite object of poetical effusions; yet the tones which these assume, are so infinitely diversified, by the varying circumstances of civil society, the modes of thinking that have incidentally prevailed for a time; and the language in which they have been expressed, has been so various, that these productions, while they exhibit the most undeniable proofs, that the human mind is radically the same in all nations, afford a like decisive testimony, that it is susceptible of being bent into a variety of forms by accidental circumstances.

As the traveller, therefore, by visiting many countries, comes gradually to lose those prejudices, which his mind would naturally have imbibed, by a continual residence in any one of these; so the philologist, by being made acquainted with the different modes of poetry that have prevailed, will gradually come to distinguish the permanent and invariable traits of the human mind, from those accidental features that at times have tended to disguise it, under the mask of ornament or affectation. With this view, we shall not fail to present our readers with a few of those poetic effusions of our forefathers, which have hitherto been preserved because of their excellence, from the ravenous tooth of all destroying time; and sometimes, though rarely, we shall perhaps select some fragments of the poetry of other nations; but this shall be done with a sparing hand, and with a due attention to our English readers.

The present state of poetry in Britain, is in many respects considerably different from that which prevailed in former times. Yet, among these ancient relics, are discoverable many productions of unequivocal merit. Even among those heaps of rubbish, which a false taste had piled up, a gem of inestimable value may be sometimes found. In this class may perhaps be

ranked the two following quotations, selected by an ingenious correspondent from a collection that few have seen, or had any opportunity of consulting †. They are to be found in a book intituled "A choice of emblems and other devices, for the most part gathered out of sundrie writers, englished and moralized, and divers newly devised, by Geoffrey Whitney." Imprinted at Leyden, in the house of Christopher Plantyn, by Francis Raphalengius, 1583.

"The nightingall that chaunteth all the springe,
 "Whose warblinge nottes throughout the wooddes are
 harde,
 "Being kept in cage she ceaceth for to singe,
 "And mourns because her liberties is barde." p. 100.

"The longest day in time resigns to nighte;
 "The greatest oke in time to duste doth turne;
 "The raven dies, the eagle fails of flighte;
 "The phenix rare in time herself doth burne:
 "The princely stagge at lengthe his race doth runne,
 "And all must ende that ever was beguane." p. 23.

No apology, it is hoped will be necessary, for subjoining the following beautiful ode, that was composed by an unknown Scottish bard, shortly after the unfortunate battle of Floddon, in which King James the Fourth of Scotland was slain, and the flower of his nobility destroyed, with a great slaughter of all ranks, by the English army, under the command of the Earl of Surry, in the year 1513. This beautiful ode is still sung as a popular ballad in Scotland. It is written in the Scottish dialect of that time. That English readers

† The editor will be much obliged to his readers for noting down any thing curious, in this or other respects, that shall occur to them in the course of their reading; and merely referring to the books where they are to be found, where it would prove inconvenient to transcribe them; and where the books are not so rare, as easily to be found.

may be at no loss for understanding it, a complete glossary of the terms that here occur is subjoined, on the accuracy of which, it is believed, they may with certainty rely.

The Flowers of the Forest. *

It is to be observed that in the Scottish dialect, the final *b* in all fall, and other such words, is omitted; and they are written *a'*, *fa'*, &c. A few other words can be expressed by English words without periphrasis, which are printed here below the line for easy reference.

I.

I've heard a liling ^a

^{have}
At the ewes milking,

Lasses a' liling before the break o' day,

But now ^{all} I hear moaning ^{of}

On ilka green loaning ^{denoaning} ^b

^{every}
Since our bra' forrefters are a' wed away ^c.

all weeded

* That the English reader may be able fully to comprehend the force of the allusions that occur in this little poem, let him be informed that the scene is laid in the country of Scotland, which at that time was almost wholly open and uninclosed. Farm-houses, in those days, especially near the border, were usually placed near to each other in small villages. The little corn land that belonged to these villages or *townships*, as they were provincially called, were employed for the pasturage of sheep or cattle; and it frequently happened that the whole of the sheep belonging to one village, were tended by *one* shepherd, and pent up each night

a *A liling*, a cheerful kind of singing, alluding to a custom in Scotland, practised on all occasions where country people, especially women, are engaged in any kind of employment, the time of the song being a common measure to all their operations.

b *Loaning*, an opening between fields of corn, left uncultivated for the sake of driving cattle to the homestead from the distant parts of the farm.

c *Bra'* pronounced *braw*, means sometimes finery of dress; but on many occasions, as here, it means excellent, worthy, deserving persons. *Forrefters*, a general name, poetically here assumed for the men of the country.

lete glos,
, on the
with cer-

in all fall,
a', fa', &c.
without perie
erence.

nd the force
formed that
t time was
days, espe
ner in small
es or town-
pasturage of
the sheep be
p each night

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parts of the

but on many
sons. For-
men of the

II.

At buchts^d in the morning

Nae blythe lads are scorning^e;

no cheerful youths

The lassies are lonely, dowie and wae.

girls

dejected and sorrowful

Nae daffin, nae gabbing^f

no gay dalliance, no cheerful prattle

But fighing and fabbitg,

fobbing

Ilk ane lifts her leglin^g, and hies her away.

every one lifts her milk pail

in one sheep fold, being laid in rotation on each farm successively, that each might share alike in the benefit of the manure they afforded.

The access to these distant parts of the farm from the village, was by passages through the corn fields, which were left uncultivated for that purpose, and were technically called *loans* or *loanings*. These loanings were of unequal breadth, and were usually bounded on each side by an irregular kind of fence, or rather scar, to prevent the cows which were usually brought home at night, from having easy access to the corn fields, as they went and returned, attended by the herd, whose presence could in no case be dispensed with. These were therefore a kind of pasturage paths around the villages, which, for the most part, carried very good grass, in consequence of the frequent manuring they received by the dropping of the dung from the cattle. They are therefore here very properly characterised by the epithet *green loanings*.

In many places the ewes were milked, for some time at least after the lambs were weaned; and this was always done early in the morning, that the sheep might be allowed to go forth to their pastures in proper time; and as the sheep folds were often at a considerable distance from the village, it became necessary for the milk maids who performed that operation to set out from the village before day break; and as the milk-maids of each family in the village went out together, they naturally went along the green loanings singing cheerfully together, or *liting*, as it is provincially termed, accompanied often by the young men, who naturally gallanted them on these occasions. Innocent mirth and good humour, therefore, abounded then.

^d *Buchts*, a small pen, usually put up in the corner of the sheep fold into which the ewes were driven when they were to be milked.

^e *Scorning* is almost exclusively applied among the country people, to denote that kind of merriment occasioned by teasing a young girl about her lover.

^f *Leglin*, a kind of bucket, with one of the staves projecting above the rest as a handle.

III.

At e'en in the gloming
glooming, twilight
 Nae swankies ^s are roaming,
no young men
 'Mang stacks with the lasses at bogle to play ^h,
among
 For ilk ane sits drearie,
every one
 Lamenting her dearié,
lover
 The flow'rs o' the forest wh' are a' wed away.
ho are all wedded

IV.

In har'ft ⁱ at the hearing,
harvest
 Nae blythe lads are jeering,
jesting, mocking

In the corner of the fold was usually reared a small pen, into which the ewes were driven when they were to be milked, in which they were crowded so close as to be easily taken. This small pen was called a *bucht*. The young men officiously assisted in collecting them: and as the rams were sometimes slyly slipped in among the ewes, this gave room for many a rustic joke, and great rural merriment. In short, it was in general a merry playful expedition, when the young men and women were mixed together; and afforded a most lively subject for contrast to the poet.

g *Swankies*, a cant term for young lads, half-grown men.

h The diversion here alluded to is still a common amusement among young people in Scotland, and is called *bogle about the stacks*. To understand it, let the English reader be informed, that *there*, it is customary to put up the corns in round ricks, called *stacks*, close together in a yard adjoining to the barn. The diversion consists in one person hunting several others among these *stacks*, and usually consists of as numerous a party as can be easily collected together. It is chiefly confined to very young boys and girls, for very obvious reasons, near towns; but in the country, it affords sometimes a very innocent and attractive amusement for the youth of both sexes, when farther advanced in life.

i In harvest, the corns in Scotland are all cut down by the sickle, usually by bands of men and women intermixed; where much cheerfulness and good humour usually prevails, and where many a courtship

The Bansters^l are lyart^k, and runkled, and grey;
binders hoary wrinkled
 At fairs nor at preaching,
 Nae wooing, nae fleeching^l,
 Since our bra foresters are a' wed away.

is begun. The reapers are called *shearers*, and the operation *shearing*. The practice here alluded to, is thus beautifully described by Thomson, who was born in the near neighbourhood of the field of Flodden.

Soon as the morning trembles o'er the sky,
 And, unperceiv'd, unfolds the spreading day;
 Before the ripen'd fields the reapers stand
 In fair array, each by the lass he loves,
 To bear the rougher part, and mitigate
 By nameless offices her toil.
 At once they stoop, and swell the lusty sheaves;
 While through their cheerful band the rural laugh,
 The rural scandal, and the rural jest,
 Fly harmless, to deceive the tedious time,
 And steal unfelt the sultry hours away.

^l *Bansters, Bandsters, i. e. Binders*, men who bind up the sheaves behind the reapers.

^k *Lyart*, a term appropriated to denote a peculiarity which is often seen to affect aged persons, when some of the locks become grey sooner than others. Where the mixture of black and white hairs is pretty uniform, the hair is said to be *grey*.

^l *Fleeching* means nearly the same thing with *coaxing*; properly, it is a kind of earnestly intreating, with a desire to gain any one over to the purpose wanted, by artfully drawing them to form a good opinion of the *fleecher*. Fairs and public preachings in the fields, at that time beginning to be common in Scotland, were places of public resort, at which young persons of both sexes had occasion to meet: and as these were often at a great distance from home, it gave the young men opportunities of performing obliging offices of gallantry to their mistresses, which was, no doubt, one cause of their being so well attended: They were as the balls and assemblies of the country belles and beaux.

V.

O dule for the order !

Sent ^{alas} our lads to the border !

The English for anes, by guile wan the day.

The flow'rs of the forest ^{once}

Wha aye shone the foremost,

^{who always} The prime of the land lie cauld in the clay ^{m.}
_{cold}

The poet has, with great art and pathos, made allusions in these few lines, to many circumstances, the recollection of which, and the changes he pathetically describes, that had happened by that fatal battle, must have impressed the minds of those who lived at that time with the most tender emotions. No wonder that it has been preserved, when so many others have entirely perished.

The second letter is in a style extremely different from the former, which, on account of the strict impartiality that is meant invariably to be pursued in this performance, shall also obtain a place. The letter is as follows :

SIR,

“ I happened lately to see your Prospectus of the
“ Bee. This paper I read with great attention and
“ pleasure, shewed and recommended it to a numerous
“ circle of my friends, whom I found willing to pa-
“ tronize the work, upon its answering the high ex-
“ pectations which your zeal and industry have excit-

^m The last verse is a natural national apology for the defeat. The expression in the first line is common in Scotland. *Dule* (*proh dolor!* The Scotch were fond of Latin phrases) signifies grief or sorrow, as if he had said, *Alas*, for the order !

“ ed. Among others, I shewed your proposals to an
 “ ingenious friend, who seemed much pleased with
 “ the scheme, and who, at my request, promised his
 “ assistance most readily. But I suggested to him that
 “ you appeared to do no great honour to his favourite
 “ art, Poetry, which is also mine; and that he was
 “ called upon to defend it by a spirited remonstrance,
 “ and with all the enthusiasm of the *irritabile genus*.
 “ He told me he would think of it; and though he is
 “ as great an enemy to the mere rhyming race as you
 “ can be, and does not wish to see them encouraged,
 “ a few days after he sent me the inclosed ode, which
 “ I have transcribed. In my opinion it will do no
 “ discredit to your work, nor to any publication what-
 “ ever. And I think you, as a professed patron of the
 “ muses, are in justice and generosity called upon to
 “ let THE MUSE be heard in defending her honour at
 “ your bar.

“ MÆCENAS.”

The ode alluded to in this epistle follows. What merit it possesses, the reader is left to decide. As to the editor, he would have been well pleased if the irritated muse had defended her rights with a still greater degree of energy and ardour. A strict attention to *nature*, he thinks he has observed, has much more power over the human heart, than the most studied ornaments of art, or the nicest allusions to heathen mythology, which, he is afraid, too often leads the imagination astray in pursuit of ideal phantoms instead of real objects.

defeat. The
sub dolor! The
 sorrow, as if he

The imprecation of the Muse on a periodical paper, intituled THE BEE, by which a prize of five guineas, is offered for the best prose essay, and one of two guineas for the best poetical piece.

ODE—*Irritabile Genus.*

Nemo me impunè laceffet.

Rouse, Hecate, regard my spell,
That wakes the spectres gaunt of night;
Quick, summon up 'e hags of hell,
To blot the sun, to blast the realms of night.
Rise, pitchy fogs, from Lethe's caverns rise;
Let poppies rankest odours taint the skies.

Where'er the BEE explores the bloom,
Let mildew shed, from dampy wing,
Corrosive drops and chilly gloom:
Nor there let lark or linnet ever sing,
But hooting owls through night incessant wail,
And sooty bats the dark-brow'd morning hail.

Haste, with a sifter's powerful prayer,
Implore Latona's bright hair'd son
To rise, revenge the wrong I bear,
The daring insult to my honour done;
To me, to him, to all our sacred choir,
Whose bosoms burn with pure ethereal fire.

Ye souls sublim'd, ye favour'd few,
Indignant spurn the paltry bribe,
That sinks you with the vulgar crew
Of dung-hill breed, the greedy, grovelling tribe,
That ever dronish creep, or lumpish climb,
And stagger forth on beggar stilts of rhyme.

Ne'er let a H-me or M-f-n deign
 To grace th' untun'd, unhallow'd band ;
 Ne'er tread the unpropitious plain,
 Where now my scowling foes usurp command ;
 Give me to dig in Mammon's dirtiest mine,
 Me, earliest honour'd of a race divine.

Lord of the soul expanding lyre,
 Shall these presume to share thy smile,
 Nor feel the vengeance of thine ire,
 To scourge their impious crime through Albion's isle,
 To root their annals from the rolls of fame,
 Where shines pre-eminent the poet's name ?

The Home-bred Linnet.

THE home-bred linnet never knew
 To course the wide campaign ;
 And knowing not his native right,
 He knows not to complain.

Content within his narrow cage,
 He ceases not to sing,
 But hails the beam of winter's day,
 As happy as the spring.

Release him from his blissful bonds,
 And let him wing the skies,
 So strange is the unlook'd for change.
 He's lost where'er he flies.

Accustom'd not to seek his food
 The hill and valley yields ;
 The hills and vales to him are bare,
 And barren are the fields.

Wild and distracted, to the shade,
All throbbing, he retires,
Till worn with hunger and fatigue,
He flutters and expires.

So man, when born in hapless climes
Where freedom ne'er was known,
Learns cheerfully to bend betimes
To power, without a groan.

Content within his humble shed,
Full joyfully he sings;
Though poor his fare, and meanly clad
With mirth his hamlet rings.

Untie *at once* those silken bands
Which willingly he wore,
Give freedom to his shackled hands,
Which ne'er were free before.

Unus'd to tread those rugged wilds
Where freedom loves to range,
Soon tired, like a wayward child,
He wishes still to change,

Madly he grasps at wealth and pow'r,
At pow'r he cannot wield;
At wealth, which in an evil hour
No good to him can yield.

His wonted joys now fled, his life
In dire contention flows;
In rapine, blood-shed, tumult, strife;
Till death does end his woes.

A Frenchman's Remarks on Nobility.*

NOBILITY is the proper reward and incitement to virtue. Nothing then is more just or more useful than the institution of it. A prince ought to reward virtue; and, if I may be allowed the expression, he ought to recompence it according to the taste even of virtue; that is to say, by honourable distinctions. After the reward which it procures for itself by the inward satisfaction which accompanies it: after the glory and reputation, the desire of which is the principal source of virtue, purely human, nothing is more flattering to it than these marks of honour established in all nations, to justify and confirm in some manner the public esteem.

To reward virtue, is a justice which the prince owes to virtuous men; he owes it also to the public, to the rest of his subjects: Since by rewarding virtue, he endeavours to make it both more perfect and more common. It is a duty a prince owes to his subjects, to endeavour to excite virtuous exertions; he owes it them, I say, both on account of the advantage it procures to those themselves who shall be virtuous, as of those who shall profit by the virtue of others. I have only farther to remark, how much the virtue of his subjects is advantageous to the prince himself.

On the Queen of France, &c. by Mr. Burke.

It is now sixteen or seventeen years since I saw the Queen of France, then Dauphiness, at Versailles; and surely never lighted on this orb, which she hardly seemed to touch, a more delightful vision. I saw her just above the horizon, decorating and cheering the elevated sphere she just began to move in, glittering like the morning-star, full of life and splendor, and joy. Oh! what a revolution! and what an heart must I have, to contemplate without emotion that elevation and that fall! Little did I dream, that when she added titles of veneration to those of enthusiastic, distant, respectful love, that she should ever be obliged to carry the sharp antidote against disgrace concealed in that bosom:

* P'Abbe Trublet,—written in the year 1755.

Little did I dream that I should have lived to see such disasters fallen upon her in a nation of gallant men, in a nation of men of honour, and of cavaliers. I thought ten thousand swords must have leaped from their scabbards, to avenge even a look that threatened her with insult. But the age of chivalry is gone: That of sophisters, economists, and calculators, has succeeded; and the glory of Europe is extinguished for ever. Never, never more shall we behold that generous loyalty to rank and sex, that proud submission, that dignified obedience, that subordination of the heart, which kept alive, even in servitude itself, the spirit of an exalted freedom. The unbought grace of life, the cheap defence of nations, the nurse of manly sentiment and heroic enterprise, is gone! It is gone! that sensibility of principle, that chastity of honour, which felt a stain like a wound, which inspired courage whilst it mitigated ferocity, which ennobled whatever it touched, and under which vice itself lost half its evil, by losing all its grossness.

This mixed system of opinion and sentiment, had its origin in the ancient chivalry: and the principle, though varied in its appearance by the varying state of human affairs, subsisted and influenced through a long succession of generations, even to the time we live in. If it should ever be totally extinguished, the loss, I fear, will be great. It is this which has given its character to modern Europe. It is this which has distinguished it under all its forms of government, and distinguished it to its advantage, from the states of Asia, and possibly from those states which flourished in the most brilliant periods of the antique world. It was this, which, without confounding ranks, had produced a noble equality, and handed it down through all the gradations of social life. It was this opinion which mitigated kings into companions, and raised private men to be fellows with kings. Without force or opposition, it subdued the fierceness of pride and power; it obliged sovereigns to submit to the soft collar of social esteem, compelled stern authority to submit to elegance, and gave a domination vanquisher of laws to be subdued by manners.

But now all is to be changed; all the pleasing illusions which made power gentle, and obedience liberal, which harmonized the different shades of life, and which, by a bland assimilation, incorporated into politics, the senti-

ments which beautify and soften private society, are to be dissolved by this new conquering empire of light and reason. All the decent drapery of life is to be rudely torn off: all the superadded ideas furnished from the wardrobe of a moral imagination, which the heart owns, and the understanding ratifies, as necessary to cover the defects of our naked shivering nature, and to raise it to dignity in our own estimation, are to be exploded as a ridiculous, absurd, and antiquated fashion.

On this scheme of things, a king is but a man; a queen is but a woman; a woman is but an animal, and an animal not of the highest order. All homage paid to the sex in general as such, and without distinct views, is to be regarded as romance and folly. Regicide, and parricide, and sacrilege, are but fictions of superstition, corrupting jurisprudence by destroying its simplicity. The murder of a king, or a queen, or a bishop, or a father, are only common homicide; and if the people are by any chance, or in any way gainers by it, a sort of homicide much the most pardonable, and into which we ought not to make too severe a scrutiny.

Intelligence respecting Literature, Arts, Agriculture, &c.

VOLTAIRE has written an eulogy on the age of Lewis the fourteenth: nor can it be denied, that in regard to polite literature and the belles lettres, France, during that period, made a most conspicuous figure in the republic of letters. It is, however, highly probable, that in future ages the history of the eighteenth century will afford a more ample field for the literary historian, because of the many important discoveries in all branches of science, and useful arts, that have been made during that period. The field is too ample to be entered on at present. Reserving for a future period some detached accounts of the most important objects that have occurred in it, we must confine our views to the communicating to our readers some of the more recent discoveries; for scarce a day in this busy period elapses, without bringing something to light that was not known before.

New Discoveries in Germany respecting Metals.

GERMANY has been long known to abound in metals ; and the philofophers of that country have taken the lead as preceptors in the metallurgic arts. Long, however, was their operations confined to the art of purifying the metals that were already known. But of late, ftimulated by the ifcoveries of Bergman, Scheele and others, they have turned their attention to the chemical analyfis of many other mineral fubftances ; fome time ago, feveral fubftances that had been before clafled as earths, were found to be metallic ores, which had not been hitherto recognized as fuch ; and there feems now reason to believe that the whole of the fubftances that have been hitherto reckoned earths, will be at laft found to be only metals in difguife. We are not yet acquainted with the full extent of thefe recent difcoveries, nor with the qualities of the metallic fubftances produced ; but fome idea of them is given in the following letter :

Vienna, Auguft 27.

“ You have probably heard of the wonderful difcoveries
 “ made by a Neapolitan in Hungary. BORN fhewed me
 “ the regulus of the *barytes*, of the pure *magnesian earth*,
 “ and the *calcareous earth* ; alfo *molybdena*, *manganefe* and
 “ *platina*, obtained without difficulty by the fimple addi-
 “ tion of an inflammable fubftance. The *reguli* are dif-
 “ tinguifhed by their fpecific gravities, and other qualities,
 “ from each other. The filicious earth is now the only
 “ primitive earth, the argillaceous being only a modifica-
 “ tion of this. The other earths are merely metallic cal-
 “ ces over-oxygenated.

“ To obtain the *regulus*, the earths were rendered as fine
 “ as poffible, formed into a pafte with powdered charcoal
 “ by means of oil, and put into a crucible with more char-
 “ coal, covered with filicious earth, to prevent the approach
 “ of the external air ; one or more of thefe crucibles were
 “ then put into a larger, and furrounded with charcoal,
 “ the heat given ftrong for five hours, and then the ope-
 “ ration found fo complete, that the platina is malleable,
 “ and the manganefe no longer attracts the loadftone.

“ In a letter from BARON BORN, dated the 28th of July, he mentions having sent me ‘La description du cabinet de Mademoiselle de Raab.’ The second volume will be printed in two or three weeks; in this last volume you will find the description of the regulus of *terra ponderosa*, or barytes, of magnesian earth, and of the calcareous earth; for all these hitherto accounted earths, are nothing else but metallic calces.”

The publication here mentioned has not yet, that I know, reached this country; when it arrives, further intelligence respecting these substances shall be communicated to our readers.

On permanently Elastic Fluids.

THE discoveries of Dr. Priestly respecting permanently elastic fluids, AIRS OR GASES, as they are generally called, has opened a wide field for experimental enquiries, and has produced a great revolution in the ideas of philosophers respecting the original and component parts of bodies, and given rise to a new language in chemistry. This last alteration originated in France, and discovers much ingenuity; but being liable to great objections, it has not been implicitly adopted. Hitherto our philosophical chemists have been chiefly employed in differencing these GASES, and in separating them from each other; so that they are now become extremely numerous. The time is not yet arrived for simplifying this branch of science, and reducing this chaos into order. In the mean time, various interesting discoveries have owed their rise to the researches concerning these fluids. The art of aerostation, which made so much noise for some time, was the most conspicuous of these; but as it has not yet been found that any useful purpose can be effected by these aerial voyages, they are now no longer attended to. The cylindrical lamp, though its principle depends upon properties of common air that were known of old times, yet owes its origin to the enquiries respecting air that have come into fashion of late years. The art of engraving on glass, by means of the fluor acid; that of forming artificial fire-works in imitation of flowers, and other brilliant objects, by means of differently coloured inflammable GASES; the art of whitening linen in a short time by means of diphlogisticated muriatic acid; and

several others; owe their origin to these enquiries: but as these discoveries are already known to our philosophical readers, they need not here be particularly described; and though to explain them to others in a more detailed way than could be done in this article, will form the subject of detached articles in this miscellany, as occasion shall serve, yet it would be improper to enlarge upon them at this time.

It is to be regretted, however, that while the philosophers of Britain keep pace with others in their physical researches, and in the ingenious speculations of the philosophy of chemistry, they should continue to be so backward in their *practical* operations and *experimental* elucidations in chemistry: When the time shall arrive, that in Britain *practice* shall be as generally united with speculation, as it is upon the continent, it is to be hoped that she will no longer hold the second place among nations in this very important branch of science.

The Root of Scarcity.

BUT if Britain be in some respects inferior to other nations, she undoubtedly holds the *first* rank with regard to agriculture, and mechanical improvements, as applied to useful arts. In agriculture, every year adds to the list of her useful discoveries: but in these her numerous attempts, some of them must prove abortive. The root of *scarcity*, a species of Beet, which was much vaunted at first, has, upon trial, been found not to answer the expectations that were formed of it; and the culture of it is now in general abandoned.

American Grass.

THE new American grass, which was last year praised as possessing the most wonderful qualities, the seeds of which were sold at the enormous rate of 68 l. Sterling the bushel, has upon trial been found to be good for nothing. Of the seeds sown, few of them ever germinated; but enow of plants made their appearance, to ascertain, that the grass, in respect of quality, is among the poorest of the tribe, and that it is an *annual* plant, and altogether unprofitable to the farmer.

Swedish Turnip, or Ruta Baga.

ANOTHER plant, however, was introduced into Britain about the same time, that promises to be a very valuable article to the farmer. This is a species of turnip that was discovered in Sweden by Linnæus; but the seeds of it only reached this country of late. It has been sold here by its Swedish name of *Ruta Baga*; and sometimes it is called Swedish turnip. Its appearance is not the most promising. It does not, on ordinary loamy or light soils, grow to such a size as the common kinds of *field* turnips; scarcely perhaps does it equal in size the yellow turnip: but it seems to be better adapted to strong clay land, and thrives better in damp soils than any other kind of turnip. Its skin too is very thick, which is rather an unpromising appearance. Its flesh however, when used at table, is excellent, very much resembling that of yellow turnip; and all kinds of cattle are singularly fond of it. The leaves too, which exactly resemble those of the cole-seed plant, are an excellent green for the table, but are not nearly so abundant as those of other turnips, though more hardy with respect to frost; nor have we had any opportunity of yet perceiving that the bulbs are in any case affected by frost, or the young plant consumed by the fly.

Its excellence however, consists in two peculiar qualities that it possesses: one of these is that of admitting of being transplanted with the same facility as a common colewort. It may therefore be either cultivated in the usual way, as turnips, or transplanted into the field from a seed bed, as greens, according to circumstances. Experiments sufficiently numerous have been made fully to ascertain this fact beyond a doubt.

But the most singular quality of this plant is one that I should not mention, because it is so contrary to the invariable experience of men in all cases of a similar nature, were it not upon such authority as I consider to be indisputable. It is well known that turnips in general, and all other plants of this genus, when suffered to run to seed, become dry and starchy; and as the seeds ripen, the heart of the bulb becomes withered and shrivels up, so as to leave a dry hollow ball, when the seeds are perfected. But by the information I have received from a gentleman in Norfolk, whose name is well known, and highly respected in the li-

terary world, I am assured, that after this plant has fully perfected its seeds, the bulb still continues fresh and succulent, and fit for use by cattle. On mentioning this fact to another gentleman who had cultivated the Swedish turnip on a large scale, he confirmed this observation by the following fact, which accidentally came to his knowledge. He had sowed some seeds of it in his garden: and his gardener, as usual on reaping the seeds of turnips, pulled up the bulbs, and threw them into a waste corner without the garden walls. There they were allowed to remain neglected above ground for several weeks. In passing that way, he accidentally struck one of them with his foot; and finding it firm, he took it up. The weight surprised him. On cutting it up, he found it fresh and fit for use. He carried it as a curiosity into the kitchen, where it was dressed and served up to table; and my informant eat of it, and found it very good.

On expressing my surprise at this singular quality to my Norfolk correspondent, he writes me of date as late as the 6th December; in these words:

“ I have nothing to mention to you on the subject of experimental agriculture at present, except that I have had an eye witness to the soundness of the bulbs of the Ruta Baga, after they had perfected their seeds, in a gentleman who is so near you, that I wish to refer you to him for an account of their appearance on the *first of September last*. Doctor Andrew Coventry, the new agricultural professor at Edinburgh, having done me the honour to pay me a visit, I carried him to the place where they grew, and there finding some of the roots remaining in the ground, we pulled one or two up, and found them in the state I mentioned, not a little to his surprise as well as satisfaction; as they thereby promise to be a most valuable acquisition to the husbandman.” Every farmer will know how to estimate the value of such a plant. It promises to supply a *desideratum* in husbandry that has been sought for in vain, ever since the introduction of turnips.

To be continued.

In our next will be given a cursory view of the present state of Europe, as an introduction to the Historical Chronicle, which is intended only to begin with the new year. Our list of books will commence at the same period.

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NO. 1. 1791

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY INTELLIGENCER,

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 12, 1791.

On Personal Singularity.

Focum habet in cornu; longe fuge. *Hor. Sat. IV. Lib. I.*
Fly far that beast; his horns are tipped with hay.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

FROM the title given to your miscellany, and from the idea I form of it, as delineated in your proposals for publication, I conclude it to be intended as a repository of instruction and entertainment. Hence, its materials must chiefly be drawn from life and nature. At first view, these topics may appear to have been so often handled, that little new can be said upon them; yet, from a deeper and more minute research, they will appear to be copious and inexhaustible sources of improvement and recreation. But though the success may be sometimes precarious, still the design is grand, and the attempt laudable. I am not an original genius, and therefore must confine myself to subjects, which have occurred to my own observation.

It is obvious, that singularity, whether corporeal, intellectual, or moral, is an object of no small curiosity,

and inspires us with different emotions, according to its various aspects; but here it is my intention, to limit my views, to such corporeal singularities, whether natural or accidental, as consist in mere defects or redundancies of form.

In my younger years, to divert the languor of a sedentary life, I applied myself to music. In those days, a stranger who professed that art, arrived in the town where I lived: To him I presently had recourse as a master; but he being nearly seven feet high, in all his public appearances therefore, not only the multitude, but even those from whom better manners might have been expected, gaped, stared, and pointed him out as a prodigious phenomenon in nature. This they continued to do, till the poor man, who was naturally modest, and shrunk from public observation, determined to leave the place, and return to his own country, where, though still extraordinary, he might appear less wonderful. Thus he sacrificed considerable emoluments, to his enormity of height: and the town, by its culpable curiosity and indecent behaviour, lost a better master than ever it could since boast.

Not many years ago, a gentleman who had considerable hesitation in speaking, saw a beautiful lady of his acquaintance on the street, and eagerly ran to address her; but not being able to accost her with sufficient promptitude, she rudely thus anticipated what he had to say: "I know, Sir, you want to ask me how I do; I will save you the trouble; and so, your humble servant, Sir." Speaking thus, she left him with accelerated pace, whilst he, casting his eyes to the ground, stood fixed in a momentary stupor; then, breathing a deep sigh, slowly left the place. The lady had removed with a loud laugh, which, in the enjoyment of conscious wit, she continued: but wretched is the triumph even of real wit, when it exults over diffident humanity; more wretched still, when an affectation of wit, as in the case before us, is elated with self-approbation, at

the expence of politeness and delicacy. I have somewhere read a bitter complaint of a blind man who was grossly treated in this way, which he pleased to receive in his own words:

Hence oft the hand of ignorance and scorn,
 To barb'rous mirth abandon'd, points me out
 With idiot grin: the supercilious eye,
 Oft, from the noise and glare of prosperous life,
 On my obscurity diverts its gaze,
 Exulting; and with wanton pride elate,
 Felicitates its own superior lot.
 Inhuman triumph! hence the piercing taunt
 Of titled insolence inflicted deep.

Being once desired by some friends to attend them to a public breakfast, I was equally struck with admiration and surprise, to see the gentleman who presided, called the Polish Count: his person was about 32 inches high, exactly proportioned in all his parts; his motions were agreeable and easy; his conversation affable and intelligent; so that the gentlemen of malignant curiosity, could find nothing to gratify their spleen, either in his figure or discourse; yet it was not long at a loss, for a proper object; they talked of such a little creature being married, and having children, not without some sarcastic praises of his lady's truth and honour. Some of these ironical spectators, in order more perfectly to perceive and enjoy the contrast, had introduced a soldier of a gigantic stature, who approached the Count, and began to play with the curls of his hair: this appeared to the Count so rustic and unmanly, that he turned round in resentment, exclaiming that his soul was greater than this man's, in proportion as his body was less. Thus, in gratifying an ill-natured wit, they lost a purer and more exalted pleasure of contemplating nature, in the various operations of her hand. Thus were the charms of a pleasing and enlightened conversation, much obscured, if not entirely

hid from their view: Thus, in short, the agreeable modulations of a guitar, sweetly and artfully touched, were drowned in the noise of confused laughing, and mingled conversation, of which I myself had the honour to be in some degree the theme.

You must know, Sir, I am one of those unfortunate persons whom the common people of England derisively call MY LORD: added to this natural deformity, were the imperfections of old age, by which my figure was still more contracted, my gait tremulous, and all my motions awkward; this could not but prove a fruitful source of ridicule. Yonder, said one to another, sits a hero of a different kind. True, answered his companion; but methinks the distinction would be more conspicuous, if the old gentleman were graced with mustaches. He wants nothing but a turban, said a third, to look like a Turkish Bashaw. It would be highly proper, added a fourth, to hang him round with bells, that their shrill and melodious notes might announce the entrance of a guest so venerable.

Thus, dear Sir, I appeal to common sense and common humanity, whether their reflections might not have been more pleasingly and usefully employed in suggesting that the same hand which formed me, likewise formed them; and that by rendering the infirmities of their species the subject of sarcasm and ridicule, they insult the wise economy of providence, which is salutary in all its procedures, and beneficent in all its ends.

But, I fear, this paper may demand a larger space in your work, than it is entitled to by its intrinsic merit; permit me therefore abruptly to subscribe myself, your most obedient humble servant,

Broughton,

ADAM EARD-APPLE.

Cursory Hints and Anecdotes of the late Doctor WILLIAM CULLEN of Edinburgh, continued from page 10.

BUT if Doctor Cullen in his public capacity deserved to be *admired*, in his private capacity, by his students, he deserved to be *adored*. His conduct to them was so attentive, and the interest he took in the private concerns of all those students who applied to him for advice, was so cordial and so warm, that it was impossible for any one who had a heart susceptible of generous emotions, not to be enraptured with a conduct so uncommon and so kind. Among ingenuous youth, gratitude easily degenerates into rapture,—into respect nearly allied to adoration. Those who advert to this natural construction of the human mind, will be at no loss to account for that excessive popularity that Cullen enjoyed—a popularity that those who attempt to weigh every occurrence by the cool standard of *reason* alone, will be inclined to think excessive. It is fortunate however, that the bulk of mankind will ever be influenced in their judgment, not less by feelings and affections than by the cold and phlegmatic dictates of *reason*. The adoration which generous conduct excites, is the reward which nature hath appropriated exclusively to disinterested beneficence. This was the secret charm that Cullen ever carried about with him, which fascinated such numbers of those who had intimate access to him. This was the power which his envious opponents never could have an opportunity of feeling. It is pleasing, now that he is laid in the silent dust, and when malevolence itself dares not lodge an imputation of adulation, to attempt to do justice to merit of a nature so great and so transcending. Let those who have experienced his goodness bear witness to the truth of this narrative.

The general conduct of Cullen to his students was thus. With all such as he observed to be attentive and

diligent, he formed an early acquaintance, by inviting them by twos, by threes, or by fours at a time, to sup with him, conversing with them on these occasions with the most engaging ease, and freely entering with them on the subject of their studies, their amusements, their difficulties, their hopes, and future prospects. In this way, he usually invited the whole of his numerous class, till he made himself acquainted with their abilities, their private character, and their objects of pursuit. Those among them whom he found most assiduous, best disposed, or the most friendless, he invited the most frequently, till an intimacy was gradually formed, which proved highly beneficial to them. Their doubts, with regard to their objects of study, he listened to with attention, and solved with the most obliging condescension. His library, which consisted of an excellent assortment of the best books, especially on medical subjects, was at all times open for their accommodation; and his advice, in every case of difficulty to them, they always had it in their power most readily to obtain. They seemed to be his family; and few persons of distinguished merit have left the University of Edinburgh in his time, with whom he did not keep up a correspondence till they were fairly established in business. By these means, he came to have a most accurate knowledge of the state of every country, with respect to practitioners in the medical line; the only use he made of which knowledge, was to direct students in their choice of places, where they might have an opportunity of engaging in business with a reasonable prospect of success. Many, very many able men has he thus put into a good line of business where they never could have thought of it themselves; and they are now reaping the fruits of this beneficent foresight on his part.

Nor was it in this way only that he befriended the students at the University of Edinburgh. Possessing a benevolence of mind that made him ever think *first* of

the wants of others, and recollecting the difficulties that he himself had had to struggle with in his younger days, he was at all times singularly attentive to their pecuniary concerns. From his general acquaintance among the students, and the friendly habits he was on with many of them, he found no difficulty in discovering those among them who were rather in hampered circumstances, without being obliged to hurt their delicacy in any degree. To such persons, when their habits of study admitted of it, he was peculiarly attentive. They were more frequently invited to his house than others; they were treated with more than usual kindness and familiarity; they were conducted to his library, and encouraged by the most delicate address to borrow from it freely whatever books he thought they had occasion for: and as persons in these circumstances were usually more shy in this respect than others, books were sometimes pressed upon them as a sort of constraint, by the Doctor insisting to have their opinion of such or such passages they had not read, and desiring them to carry the book home for that purpose. He in short behaved to them rather as if he courted their company, and stood in need of their acquaintance, than they of his. He thus raised them in the opinion of their acquaintance to a much higher degree of estimation than they could otherwise have obtained, which, to people whose minds were depressed by penury, and whose sense of honour was sharpened by the consciousness of an inferiority of a certain kind, was singularly engaging. Thus were they inspired with a secret sense of dignity, which elevated their minds, and excited an uncommon ardour of pursuit, instead of that melancholy inactivity which is so natural in such circumstances, and which too often leads to despair. Nor was he less delicate in the manner of supplying their wants, than attentive to discover them. He often found out some polite excuse for refusing to take payment for a *first* course, and never was at a loss for one to an after

course. Before they could have an opportunity of applying for a ticket, he would sometimes lead the conversation to some subject that occurred in the course of his lectures; and as his lectures were never put in writing by himself, he would sometimes beg the favour to see their notes, if he knew they had been taken with attention, under a pretext of assisting his memory: Sometimes he would express a wish to have their opinion of a particular part of his course, and presented them with a ticket for that purpose: and sometimes he refused to take payment, under the pretext that they had not received his *full* course the preceding year, some part of it having been necessarily omitted for want of time, which he meant to include in this course*. By such delicate address, in which he greatly excelled, he took care to forerun their wants. Thus, he not only gave them the benefit of his own lectures, but by refusing to take their money, he also enabled them to attend those of others that were necessary to complete their course of studies. These were particular devices he adopted to individuals to whom economy was necessary; but it was a general rule with him, never to take money from any student for more than two courses of the same set of lectures, permitting him to attend these lectures as many years longer as he pleased, *gratis*.

He introduced another general rule into the University, that was dictated by the same principle of disinterested beneficence, that ought not to be here passed over in silence. Before he came to Edinburgh, it was the custom for medical professors to accept of fees for their medical assistance when wanted, even from medical students themselves, who were perhaps attending the pro-

* Doctor Cullen was so full in his course of lectures, that he never had time to overtake the whole in one session, even although he usually gave double lectures for a month or six weeks before the end of the session. His practice was to omit one branch of his subject one season, and taking that in next season, omit another part that had been given the former year; so that those who attended two seasons might be sure of the whole.

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feffor's own lectures at the time. But Cullen never would take fees as a phyfician, from any *ftudent* at the Univerfity, though he attended them when called in as a phyfician, with the fame affiduity and care as if they had been perfons of the firft rank, who paid him moft liberally. This gradually induced others to adopt a fimilar practice; fo that it is now become a general rule at this Univerfity, for medical profeffors to decline taking any fees when their affiftance is neceffary to a ftudent. For this ufeful reform, with many others, the ftudents of the Univerfity of Edinburgh are folety indebted to the liberality of Doctor Cullen.

The following little anecdote relative to this fubject, fell under the obfervation of the writer of this article, and may be depended on. The gentleman to whom it relates is ftill alive, as is believed, and in good practice as a phyfician in England, and will no doubt readily recollect it, if ever thefe fheets fhould fall in his way.

A medical ftudent who lodged in the fame houfe with the writer, in the year 1760, and who attended at that time a courfe of lectures given by one of the medical profeffors, but who never had attended Cullen's clafs †, happened to take the fmall-pox, which neceffarily detained him from the clafs, and prevented him for the time from receiving any benefit from thefe lectures. At the beginning of the diforder, the young man, who was bulky, and in a full habit of body, was fick, and very uneafy. He naturally called in his own profeffor as a phyfician; but in a fhort time the ficknefs abated, and the fmall-pox, of the moft favourable kind, made their appearance, after which no idea of danger could be apprehended. In this ftate of things, the whole family were very much furprifed to find

† For the information of ftangers, it may be neceffary here to obferve, that at the Univerfity of Edinburgh, no courfe of ftudy is prefcribed, but every ftudent is at liberty to attend the lectures of fuch profeffors as he inclines.

that the patient called in the assistance of Doctor Cullen; but he said he had reasons for this conduct, that he knew they would approve of when he should state them, though he declined to do it then. By and by, he became quite well; so that there could be no pretext for the physicians visiting him any longer. In this situation, he watched his opportunity; and when the physicians were both present, he thanked Doctor Cullen for the assistance he had given, and offered him money: but this, as the sly chap had foreseen, he positively declined. After gently intreating him to take it, and not being able to prevail, he turned to his own professor, and in like manner offered him money. But this, for shame, he could not possibly accept, though it was not known that this gentleman had ever before refused a fee when offered to him. Thus did the arch rogue save a fee by calling in Doctor Cullen, which he well knew he must have paid.

The general benevolence of Doctor Cullen's disposition cannot be exemplified in a stronger manner than by his conduct to the writer of this article, which was so generous, so disinterested, and so kind, as to require the most grateful commemoration. In other particulars in this narrative, it may be alleged that mistakes may possibly have happened; but with regard to his own particular case, it is impossible the writer can be in any mistake. Gratitude demands that justice to the memory of the deceased should not be withheld on this occasion.

It was my misfortune to lose both parents before I was of an age capable of knowing either of them; and the charge of my education fell to the care of a near relation, who had no fondness for literary pursuits. Being destined to follow the profession of agriculture, my guardian did every thing in his power to discourage, in regard to myself, an inclination for studies that he thought were incompatible with the business he had chosen for me. But having chanced to read at that

time Home's Essay on Agriculture, and finding it was impossible to judge of the justness of his reasoning on many occasions, because of my total want of chemical knowledge, and thinking, at that time, it would be disgraceful not to know every thing that could be known in the profession I meant to follow, I resolved to attend Doctor Cullen's lectures, to obtain that kind of knowledge I so much felt the want of. It happened, however, that I had not then a single friend or acquaintance, by whom I could be properly introduced to Doctor Cullen, and was under the necessity of waiting upon him by myself, without one so much as even to tell him my name. Being then young, and of exceeding small stature for my age, on presenting myself, the Doctor very naturally took me for a child; and when he understood that agriculture was the profession intended, he conceived that it must have been some childish whim that had hastily laid hold of the imagination, and thought it his duty to discourage it. He therefore began to dissuade me from thinking of pursuing that idea any farther: but finding I had reflected on the subject, and had finally adopted a line of conduct from which I would not depart, for reasons then assigned, he at last was brought to acknowledge, that if I had steadiness and assiduity to apply properly to the study, it might in the end prove conducive in promoting the knowledge of the principles of agriculture; and said, if I was determined to exert myself, he should do all in his power to forward my views. As his public lectures had then been for some time begun, he ordered me to attend a private class, with some others in the same predicament, to be instructed in those parts of his course already past, till we should overtake those in his public class, which was a common practice with him at that time.

In these private lectures, as well as in his public class, Doctor Cullen was always at pains to examine his students from time to time on those parts of his course

that had been already delivered ; and wherever he found any one at a loss, he explained it anew, in a clear, familiar manner, suited to the capacity of the student. On these, and on other occasions, he frequently desired, that whenever any one was at a loss as to any particular, they would apply to him freely for a solution of their doubts and difficulties. In this proposal he was serious ; and it was understood by me in the most strict literal sense of the word. And being very anxious to lose nothing, I had no hesitation in complying with his request with as much frankness on my part, as it was made with sincerity on his part. It thus happened, that for a long time, at the beginning, there was scarce a day that I did not run after him on the dismissal of his class, to ask an explanation of one particular or another that I did not understand ; nor was I to be satisfied in any case till it was made quite plain. Thus was he incessantly teased with the little prattle of a child, but without ever discovering the smallest degree of peevishness or impatience. Often have I since that time wondered at the mild censure of that great man, who, pressed as he was for time, in the prosecution of such extensive business, was not only not offended at these frequent interruptions, but seemingly was rather well pleased with the turn of mind that occasioned them ; kindly entering into discussions that were suited to my years, and listening with patience to the arguments that were dictated by youth and inexperience, and patiently removing those difficulties that perplexed me.

Thus commenced a literary acquaintance, which to me was highly interesting, and infinitely beneficial. Being asked frequently, with others, to his house, he came gradually, as usual, to be acquainted not only with my literary difficulties, but with those of a more private concern. He became to me in short, as a father and as a friend. To him I had recourse with perfect freedom for his advice and friendly assistance on all

difficult occurrences. By him I was introduced to many respectable acquaintance; and if I ever have been, or ever shall be of any use in the literary world, I feel a particular satisfaction in saying that it is entirely owing to Doctor Cullen. In this respect, however, I was by no means singular; for very many others, who were in a situation nearly similar to my own, have owed obligations to him of the same kind. Such was the generous, kind, and disinterested character of this great man, that I can aver with the most perfect sincerity, that at one time, when a transaction of great importance respecting my private concerns was in agitation, though he was then involved in the greatest hurry of his own multiplied avocations, he still contrived matters, so as that for months together he bestowed at least from one to two hours a day on my private concerns. Could I suffer the memory of such beneficence to be buried in oblivion, I should little indeed have deserved such a favour! Few are the men who can conceive an idea that such things could possibly be done: but to Cullen this was no exertion; to him such transactions were as mental food that transfused fresh vigour into his mind, and gave animation and energy to all his undertakings. I am not insensible of the obloquy to which I expose myself, *with some*, by this narrative; but their sarcasms shall be disregarded. I dare not, however, add to the length of this digression by any farther apology.

The first lectures that Cullen delivered in Edinburgh were on chemistry; and for many years he also gave clinical lectures on the cases that occurred in the Royal Infirmary there. Towards the close of the year 1769, he also delivered to a few of his private friends, a short course of lectures on the principles of agriculture and vegetation, for which branch of knowledge he had, at every period of his life, a singular and marked predilection. Of this course of lectures, a pretty complete account is preserved, that is now in

the possession of his family, from notes taken by one who attended there. It is probable the public may be favoured with these at some future period. And if allowance be made for the length of time that has elapsed since their delivery, and the consequent advances that have been made in this branch of science since then, and the imperfections arising from the inaccuracy of the person who took down notes of them, it is not imagined they will do any discredit to his memory. The same extensive views that characterised all his other lectures, are discoverable here; and the same stimulus to active exertions which so strongly marked his prelections, are equally striking in these. They point out the path that ought to be pursued for the attainment of knowledge, rather than teach the knowledge itself. And the writer of this article can freely say, that he has been more indebted to these lectures for inducing him to think justly on the subject of agriculture, than to all the books he ever read, though he also did frequently differ in opinion from his preceptor on particular points.

In the month of February 1763, Doctor Alston died, after having begun his usual course of lectures on the materia medica; and the magistrates of Edinburgh, as patrons of that professorship in the university, appointed Doctor Cullen to that chair, requesting that he would finish the course of lectures that had been begun for that season. This he agreed to do; and though he was under a necessity of going on with the course in a few days after he was nominated, he did not once think of reading the lectures of his predecessor, but resolved to deliver a new course entirely his own. The popularity of Cullen at this time may be guessed at by the increase of new students who came to attend his course in addition to the eight or ten who had entered to Doctor Alston. The new students exceeded a hundred. An imperfect copy of these lectures thus fabricated in haste, having been published; the Doctor

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thought it necessary to give a more correct edition of them in the latter part of his life. But his faculties being then much impaired, his friends looked in vain for those striking beauties that characterised his literary exertions in the prime of life.

Some years afterwards, on the death of Doctor White, the magistrates once more appointed Doctor Cullen to give lectures on the theory of physic in his stead. And it was on that occasion Doctor Cullen thought it expedient to resign the chair in favour of Doctor Black, his former pupil, whose talents in that department of science were then well known, and who has filled the chair ever since, with great satisfaction to the public. Soon after, on the death of Doctor Rutherford, who for many years had given lectures with applause on the practice of physic, Doctor John Gregory (whose name can never be mentioned by any one who had the pleasure of his acquaintance, without the warmest tribute of a grateful respect) having become a candidate for this place along with Doctor Cullen, a sort of compromise took place between them, by which they agreed each to give lectures alternately on the theory and on the practice of physic, during their joint lives, the longest survivor being allowed to hold either of the classes he should incline. In consequence of this agreement, Doctor Cullen delivered the *first* course of lectures on the practice of physic in winter 1766, and Doctor Gregory succeeded him in that branch the following year. Never perhaps did a literary arrangement take place that could have proved more beneficial to the students than this. Both these men possessed great talents, though of a kind extremely dissimilar. Both of them had certain failings or defects which the other was aware of, and counteracted. Each of them knew and respected the talents of the other. They co-operated, therefore, in the happiest manner, to enlarge the understanding, and to forward the pursuits of their pupils. Unfortunately this arrangement was

soon destroyed by the unexpected death of Doctor Gregory, who was cut off in the flower of life, by a sudden and unforeseen event. After this time, Cullen continued to give lectures on the practice of physic till a few months before his death, as has been already said.

To be continued.

Critical Remarks on the Othello of Shakespear.

OF those who possess that superiority of genius which enables them to shine by their own strength, the number has been few. When we take a review of mankind in this respect, we behold a dark and extended tract, illuminated with scattered clusters of stars, shedding their influence, for the most part, with an unavailing lustre. So much however are mankind formed to contemplate and admire whatever is great and resplendant, that it cannot be said that these luminaries have exhibited themselves to the world in vain. Whole nations, as well as individuals, have taken fire at the view of illustrious merit, and have been ambitious in their turn to distinguish themselves from the common mass of mankind. And since, by the happy invention of printing, we have it in our power to gather these scattered rays into one great body, and converge them to one point, we complain without reason of not having light enough to guide us through the vale of life.

Among those to whom mankind is most indebted, the first place is perhaps due to Homer and to Shakespear. They both flourished in the infancy of society, and the popular tales of the times were the materials upon which they exerted their genius; they were equally unassisted by the writings of others: The dramatic compositions with which Shakespear was acquainted, were as contemptible as the crude tales which served as the foundation of Homer's poem. The genius of both poets

was then of undoubted originality, and varied, as the scene is, with which they were conversant. It cannot perhaps be said, that an idea is to be found in their works, imitated from another. To whatever subject they turned their attention, a picture of nature, such as was capable of filling their minds alone, arose in full prospect before them. An idea imagined by any other would be inadequate to the grasp of their genius, and uncongenial with their usual mode of conception. Intimately acquainted with the original fountains of human knowledge, accustomed themselves to trace the operations of nature, they disdained to take notice of, or submit to the obscure and imperfect tracts which had been marked out by an inferior pencil. They walked alone, and in their own strength; and wherever they have trod, have left marks which time will never efface, or perhaps, which no superior splendor of genius will obscure or eclipse, but will ever continue to be the highest objects of human ambition and admiration.

But however high the merit of Shakespear must be, in thus classing him with Homer, it would not be doing justice to either of these fathers of genius, to appretiate their respective abilities by merely asserting them to be poets of the first order. The genius of Homer was undoubtedly superior in point of greatness and fire; the most awful and interesting scenes among mankind, were the continual subjects of his song; the hurry and grandeur of battle, the strength of mighty heroes, and all the violence of passion, seem to be the high delight of his soul: like his rival in modern times, he was conspicuous for a display of character; but these were chiefly of the warlike kind: The steady magnanimity of Agamemnon, the irresistible fury of Achilles, the prudent valour of Ulysses, and the bodily strength of Ajax, are painted in strong and striking colours: and though he be not deficient in those of a more humble and amiable kind, yet in this sphere, Homer, and

every other writer, ancient or modern, are left far behind by Shakespear, whose merit in this respect is indeed astonishing. He hath described the great and the ludicrous, the good and the bad, with equal facility, in all their shades of character, and in every scene of human life. Succeeding writers have seldom mentioned his name without the epithet of *Inimitable*, and with much justice; for there has not been wanting in the English language dramatic writers of merit, who were not insensible to the singular abilities of Shakespear; but of what writer except himself can it be said, that no imitation has been attempted, none of his characters have been assumed; his simplicity, his sentiments, and even his stile is altogether his own. In imitating Homer, many writers have not been unsuccessful. Virgil in beauty and tenderness has exceeded him. Tasso in strength of description has often equalled him. In enraptured sublimity, Milton has gone beyond him. But none has yet in any degree appropriated the spirit and the manner of Shakespear.

In every work of this great author, we discover all the marks of his genius; his diversity of character, his boundless imagination, his acute discernment, and his nervous expression; but in none of them are these qualities more conspicuous than in the tragedy of Othello; a work also, the freest of his irregularities, his puns, his bombast, and conceits. No where has he painted virtue with more flaming sublimity than in the character of Othello; with more amiable tenderness, than in that of Desdemona; and no where are all the artifices of human nature more fully displayed than in the character of Iago: from the whole, he has contrived a plot, the most moral in its tendency, which winds up to the highest pitch our sympathetic feelings, in concern for unsuspecting virtue, and at the same time rouses our utmost indignation against deep-laid villainy. From a review of the conduct of the poet in producing such

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a noble effect, we may expect much pleasure and improvement.

It may be observed of the productions of a profound mind, that like the source from whence they proceed, they are not apprehended at first sight. Shakespear often begins his deepest tragedies with the lowest buffoonery of the comic kind; with conversations among the inferior characters, that do not seem to be connected with the main plot; and there is often introduced throughout the work, the opinions of those engaged about the lower offices, about the principal actors, and the great designs that are carrying on; and their inadequate conceptions, has an excellent effect in enlivening the story; for besides the humour that is thereby produced, it elucidates the subject, by placing it in a variety of lights. Examples of such a conduct are frequent in all our author's works, and are not to be expected but from that extensive capacity which is capable at once to view the subject in its rise and progress, and connected with all its circumstances. Who can take a wide range into the affairs of men, without losing sight of his principal action, whose comprehensive mind can contain many auxiliary ideas, and many remote designs, without distracting, or driving out the great tendency of the whole. Writers of a more limited capacity, conscious of their want of strength to construct an edifice on such an enlarged plan, and confused at the wild disorder of the materials as they lie scattered through nature, generally rush headlong among them, and introduce darkness, where confusion only was before: having once heated their imaginations, foam away, till they suppose the work is completed, and in such high wrought raptures as darkness and confusion naturally produce: One prevailing sentiment runs through the whole; in every speech, according as the character is well or ill affected to the success of the adventure, it is blazoned forth with all the passion the author can command; and the whole mass is often chiefly illuminated

with many dazzling words of wonder, and terror, and amazement. Were the subject of Othello to be managed in the French mode, or by their English imitators, we might expect, in an introductory soliloquy, to see the nature of jealousy, with all its dire effects, explained with much pomp of language, perhaps by the personage who is chiefly concerned in the story, or by a female confidant observing all at once the altered mind of her lord; and the same subject would be the continual theme from speech to speech, till the fatal conclusion, which never fails to be caused by some long-expected and obvious discovery. During the course of the representation, the wearied spectator, instead of that tumultuous joy, which is produced by the agitation of hope and fear, is only amused at times with the inferior pleasure of poetical description, and many laboured attempts to inflame the mind by pathetic and sublime sentiments. Though often interrupted by different speakers, it is no other than an uninteresting and declamatory poem, where, if there is any display of character, it is but in general terms, of a man splendidly good, or on the contrary, outrageously wicked; of a fair female, gentle and amiable, and of her fierce and haughty oppressor; but always in the highest degree, most astonishing, and as they would have it, beyond conception. The qualities of good and bad, are sometimes expressed with much vigour and fire; but the rest of the man is wanting; the imagination cannot lay hold on a distinct and natural character, intermixed with some foible, which never fail to attend the best, with a peculiar bias of mind towards a particular object, or the prejudices which are expected to be found from the profession, the situation, or any of the circumstances of his life. The few who have succeeded in this sphere, is a proof, that to excell in it requires a genius of the highest and most finished kind. The enthusiasm of imagination, and the calm and minute observation of judgment, qualities so plainly requisite, are

seldom found united in any high degree among mankind.

The characters which make a chief figure in the tragedy of Othello, are the Moor himself, Desdemona, and Iago. The subject is, the destruction of Desdemona; and this catastrophe the author never loses sight of. It is indeed remarkable for unity of action, which of all the three unities is of principal consequence. Unity of time and place, peculiar to this species of composition, arise from the nature of dramatic representation, the action being supposed to be in view of spectators for a moderate space of time. But a strict attention to the unities of time and place, has never been completely attained by any writer. When an action is to be represented, of such importance as to awaken, keep alive, and at last gratify curiosity, it must necessarily give rise to many incidents; and these incidents, if consistent with nature and probability, in different places and with different intervals, much time is spent, and much is done behind the curtain, which cannot be brought in review; such liberties never offend the reader, and seldom the spectator: and when a certain degree of liberty is thought proper, the writer may go considerable length without offending our sense of propriety; and we partly consider it as dramatic narration. To be scrupulously attentive to the unities of time and place, confines the genius of the writer, makes the work barren of incidents, and consequently less interesting: much must be forced and improbable; and the internal merit, and beauty of the story, must be sacrificed to the external and artificial nature of representation. Those who contend for a strict resemblance of the artificial action to the story, require what can never take place: the scene is often changed on the same spot, and it matters very little whether from one room of the palace to another, or from London to York, as both are equally impossible; and the same may be said of supposing five minutes, when we well know it is really five hours;

it may, without much greater improbability, be protracted to five weeks. A natural train of incidents can scarcely be expected from a story accommodated to the strict rules of the stage: They must be dull, few, and uniform, because they are all in some measure within view, and comprehended at first sight; and in place of incident, there must be spun out long harrangues of common place morality. Few or none but those who are critically conversant with controversies of this kind, observe infringements of time and place, but are all offended with a want of probability in the management of the plot. I have made these observations, as Shakespear is more remarkable for adhering to unity of action than to the other two; the one is the offspring of genius alone, the other of art.

To be continued.

On the History of Authors by Profession.

*Ea est historia literarum, atque certe historia mundi, si hac parte fuerit destituta, non absumilis censeri possit status Polyphemi *ex oculo*; nam ea pars imaginis desit, quae ingenium et indolem personae maxime referat. *Bac. de Arg. lib. II. cap. iv.**

No. I.

CIVIL history, the register of human calamities and crimes, has been amply, if not always happily treated; while the history of literature, which may be considered as forming the annals of the human understanding, has been hitherto meagre and incomplete. The reason why men of letters have thus treated the source of their fame with such ungrateful neglect, it may perhaps be difficult to assign. The causes which affect the progress of letters, are more remote from common apprehension than those which operate political changes. Perhaps this difficulty might have deterred, and perhaps histo-

rians, ambitious of popularity, have been invited to the narration of civil affairs, by the powers which they possess over the heart and fancy, and by their superior susceptibility of all the decorations of courtly and popular composition. Perhaps too, the pride of literature shrunk from topics which would expose the debasement and misfortunes of its professors, who have ever sacrificed themselves for posterity, and been the victims of their devotion to letters, and their passion for glory. From that portion of literary history, which is the subject of our present essay, they have probably been repelled by the latter consideration. But a philosopher, who is incapable of such irritable and fastidious vanity, must perceive the history of those to whom the world owes whatever it is, to be a topic of great curiosity and interest.

I shall preface my remarks, by defining an author by profession to be, a person, who, in whatever mode, derives his chief subsistence from literary productions. This definition is conceived with a latitude suitable to the views which I am about to unfold. I proceed to evince the existence of such a description of men in every state of society, and to examine the various forms under which they appear, in the various stages of its progress. The bard and the genealogist, are the professed authors of simple ages. The savage hero first probably sings his own exploits; but the step of social progress produces a division of labour. Accident, in the attempt of many, discovers some one to be capable of imparting superior lustre to the triumph of the warrior, or superior splendour to the rites of the god. The possessor of powers thus capable of affording high gratification, is flattered by a discovery to his vanity and his indolence. He is absolved from the perils and toils of his fellow savages. He devotes himself to their amusement or delight; and he is rewarded by the grateful hospitality with which every cabin welcomes him who is to applaud or entertain its possessors, to melt or gladden it with song. This may be said to be

the first subsistence earned by the exertion of literary talent. This is the first form under which authors by profession appear in the history of society. The social progress afterwards exhibits them under other forms, corresponding to the varying circumstances of nations. In refined nations, destitute of the art of printing, they become lecturers, as the circulation of manuscripts is too limited either for the remuneration of money or fame. Such were the ancient philosophers, though the resemblance, almost exact between their character and that of the professed authors of modern times, has not hitherto been remarked. To attend the lectures of a philosopher, was in fact to read the system of his doctrines. Hence Antonnius felt it no degradation to the imperial purple, to attend the course of a professor, because he did the same thing as a modern prince, who should retire into his library, to read Montesquieu or Smith. The press had not then furnished that organ by which a philosopher may from his closet lecture to the immense audience of foreign nations and future ages. Hence the vast collection of pupils in the academy and the lyceum, who had no access to the volumes of philosophy, but from the mouth of their authors. It is obvious that their lectures were not like those of modern academical institutions,—they were not elementary instructions—they were bold and liberal speculations. The *schoolmasters*, the *elementary* instructors, were, in the execrable aristocracy of the ancient commonwealths, almost uniformly slaves. The variety of dogma, the contempt of received opinion, the hostility to established institution, which characterized so many of the Grecian sects, clearly distinguish their schools from modern seminaries. The youth of Ionia, of Cyrene, of Sicily, of Magna Grecia, who repaired to Athens, came not to an university, but to a library, not to receive the dogmatic instruction of tutors, but to judge of the various speculations of philosophers. Indeed, the conception of an university was

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too grossly absurd for the simple and unsophisticated ideas of antiquity. The union of secular and spiritual despotism, and the Gothic transfer of rank and title to literature, were necessary to produce such monstrous establishments. The *professed authors* of our own times demand no elaborate description; and instead of retailing common-place sayings on that subject, we shall proceed to the establishment of some *general maxims*, relating to the history of this class of men.

To be continued.

On Animal instincts—The Mole and Worm.

ALL animals are endowed by nature with an instinctive fear of danger, and powers, in most cases, by which they are enabled to distinguish their enemies, and in some measure to evade the pursuit of those who seek to devour them. The oyster, on any prospect of danger, shuts its shell: The snail and the tortoise retreat within the hard coat that covers them: The hedgehog rolls itself into a ball: The chicken, on the first appearance of the kite, is agitated with the most violent alarm, and flies to its mother for protection; and the hare, on the first appearance of a dog, betakes itself to flight, and exerts its utmost powers to elude its ravenous pursuer. This is a general law of nature; and it extends, as I have reason to believe, to animals of a lower class than we are accustomed to imagine. The mole, it is well known, feeds upon the common earth worm; but I believe it is not generally known, that in the dark regions it inhabits, it is endowed with faculties for distinguishing its prey at some distance, and far less, that the reptile it is in search of can distinguish its approaching danger, and try to elude it. Yet, from some facts that have fallen under my own observation, there seems to be no doubt of this circumstance, and that in consequence of it, the mole, in the

bowels of the earth, chases its prey with the same avidity, as the lion, or the wolf, or the bear, upon its surface; and that the worm flies with the same degree of eagerness, from its greedy pursuer, as the stag in the forest, or the hare among the stubble.

One damp cloudy day, as I was standing in the garden, contemplating some of the beautiful productions of the vegetable tribe, I saw the earth near me begin to be heaved up by the working of a mole, and immediately directed my attention to that object. I could soon perceive that the mole was working with an unusual degree of agility, which still more commanded my attention. It was not long before I perceived the head of an earth-worm penetrate the mould with a surprising degree of rapidity—nearly half its body came above the earth at the first push, and at the second, it freed itself from the mould entirely, and ran off along the surface with a degree of agility I never had seen this animal exert till then. The mole too pursued still; but on coming very near the surface, immediately desisted, and retired, as I supposed, disappointed, from the chase: my imagination at least made me conclude this was the case. I leave the reader to draw what conclusions he thinks natural from this fact.

Having had my attention thus awakened with regard to this phenomenon, I have been, since that time, on the watch, in similar cases, to see if I could observe the like, and had *one* opportunity of observing a similar mole-chase at a future period. I state these facts, of the exactitude of which I am *certain*, that your readers may take notice if any of them ever remarked any of the same kind. Whether the inference I draw from it be just or not, I leave every one to judge for himself: But if it should be admitted that the mole can thus pursue its prey at a distance, we should be forced, I think, to conclude, that it distinguishes its tract by the scent, like a spaniel or hound; but by

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what means the worm should be made sensible of its danger, it is perhaps impossible to divine.

A young Observer.

N. B. In both the instances I observed, the worm that made its escape, was of a bright, lively, red colour, more so than is common among this class of reptiles. Whether this could be ascribed to the ardour of the chace, or whether it was only accidental, I cannot pretend to say, as in both cases I allowed the worm to make its escape without detaining it for future observation.

The Editor is much obliged to the writer of the following strictures, which he makes haste to insert. Truth is the great object of his researches; and every person who assists in discovering it, he shall deem his supporter and friend. It was no small recommendation to him of the plan he has adopted, that it seemed to be particularly calculated for the attainment of truth; and he is happy to obtain such an early practical proof of it, as this article affords. Opinions are often taken up hastily from others without examination, and are retained merely from that indolence of mind which is natural to man, and from the limited sphere of his powers. No man can reflect deeply on every subject, and thus is apt to slide carelessly into error: he is therefore much obliged to those who shall take the trouble to put him right, when this happens to be his case, and without troubling himself, to have the benefit of their researches communicated to him. Once more therefore he begs to return his best thanks to the writer of the following paper; and his future correspondence, or that of others who think in the same liberal manner, will be deemed a particular favour.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

YOUR edition of the song called the *flowers of the forest*, has occasioned the following remarks.

There is a strange propensity in persons of genius, to obtrude forgeries on the public, and a still stranger propensity in the public, to admit them as genuine, without any examination at all.

Let me give a few instances in proof of this; they are the first that occur to my memory. "The memoirs of a Cavalier" was twenty years ago an esteemed book of authentic history: that it was a forgery, some unknown writer demonstrated, in an *Edinburgh magazine*; nevertheless it would have maintained its reputation, had not a sudden zeal for the glory of Daniel Defoe lately announced *him* as the ingenious forger.

There are many who still believe *Hardicnute* to be an ancient ballad, though the language, manners, every thing, shew it to be a modern composition, and though the author be perfectly well known.

"The travels of Mr. Marshall" had their reign, though short, over popular credulity. *Genelli* and *Kolben* still keep their ground.

"The letters of Pope Ganganelli" were read with much admiration, even by protestants: but Voltaire detected the imposture, and justly; for he owed that to the public.

It is but the other day that "the letters of the Duchess of Orleans" came out with a new assortment of characters and anecdotes. The imposture hardly lived to see a translation from the French.

To this respectable group I add "the flowers of the forest;" but with a material difference: most of the others aimed to mislead in matters of history; but this was merely a *jeu d'esprit*, and its value is not lessened when we consider it as a modern composition.

Flodden-field happened near the beginning of the 16th century. The song is in the language of the 18th. An acute critic observed thirty years ago, that in the reign of James IV. there were no *preachings* to which lads and lasses resorted as to a *fair*. In the reign of Charles II. and James II., such preachings were very serious things, and the appearing at them was hazardous. This single word brings down the date of the ballad to the revolution.

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“ Bogle about the stacks” could never have been an amusement, unless in a corn country, which certainly the forest, or Selkirkshire, was not in the reign of James IV. †

There are many people alive who conversed with those who lived at the beginning of this century; let those say that they ever heard a tradition of that *ancient ode* as we now have it. The author, *if still alive*, will do well to stand forth and disabuse posterity. I am, &c.

On Popular Writings,

THE greatest part of the works which the public esteem at present, have only arrived by degrees at that universal approbation, (*e. g.* Shakespear^s). A success too brilliant at the first, affords but a bad augur for its continuance, and only proves the mediocrity of the work. Beauties which are within the reach of all the world, immediately make their impression; *great* beauties are often less striking, and it is rare that a work of the first merit, obtains, at the beginning, the suffrage of a great number. It is only a few who are able at once to feel the force of singular excellence: but by degrees the false glare which dazzled at the first, begins to wear off, and men gradually discover beauties that at first escaped their notice. This discovery occasions an agreeable surprize. They return to the subject, and discover still more; so that their admiration continues to augment from day to day.

† It is true the battle of Flodden was fought on the borders, where little ground could then be cultivated: But the effects of it were felt over all Scotland, as the army was collected from every part of the country; so that this remark seems to be not so well founded as the others in this essay. *Note of the Editor.*

Rosline Castle

At dead of night, the hour when courts
 In gay fantastic pleasures move,
 And, haply, Mira joins their sports,
 And hears some newer, richer love ;
 To Rosline's ruins I repair,
 A solitary wretch forlorn ;
 To mourn, uninterrupted, there,
 My hapless love, her hapless scorn.

No sound of joy disturbs my strain,
 No hind is whistling on the hill ;
 No hunter winding o'er the plain ;
 No maiden singing at the rill.
 Elk murm'ring through the dusky pines,
 Reflects the moon's mist-mantled beam ;
 And fancy chills, where'er it shines,
 To see pale ghosts obscurely gleam.

Not so the night, that in thy halls,
 Once, Rosline, dane'd in joy along ;
 Where owls now scream along thy walls,
 Resounded mirth-inspiring song :
 Where bats now rest their smutty wings,
 Th' impurpl'd feast was wont to flow ;
 And beauty danc'd in graceful rings,
 And princes sat where nettles grow.

What now avails, how great, how gay ;
 How fair, how fine, their matchless dames !
 There sleeps their undistinguished clay,
 And even the stones have lost their names *.
 And yon gay crowds must soon expire :
 Unknown, unprais'd their fair one's name.
 Not so the charms that verse inspire ;
 Increasing years increase her fame.

* Many of the names on the grave-stones here are quite obliterated through age.

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Oh Mira ! what is state or wealth ?
 The great can never love like me ;
 Wealth adds not days, nor quickens health,
 Then wiser thou, come happy be ;
 Come, and be mine in this sweet spot,
 Where Esk rolls clear his little wave,
 We'll live ; and Esk shall, in a cot,
 See joys that Rosline never gave.

An English correspondent in Lausanne expressed great anxiety to have the following lines put into the first number of our miscellany, with the title below prefixed to them. It is not difficult to perceive the reason of this anxiety in him, though it cannot affect those in Britain. As the lines however have great intrinsic merit, we hope no exception will be taken at indulging our correspondent in this respect.

*A Picture of Government, a la moderne, drawn by an
 old Master.*

IN the commonwealth I would by contraries
 Execute all things ; for no kind of traffic
 Would I admit, no name of magistrate ;
 Letters should not be known ; poverty and riches,
 And use of service, none ; contracts, succession,
 Bourn, bond of land, tilth, vineyard, olive, none ;
 No use of metal, corn, or wine, or oil ;
 No occupation, all men idle, all,
 And women too, but innocent and pure ;
 No sovereignty :
 All things in common, nature should produce
 Without sweat or endeavour ; treason, felony,
 Sword, pike, knife, gun, or need of any engine,
 Would I not have ; but nature should bring forth
 Of its own kind, all foison, all abundance,
 To feed my innocent people.
 I would with such perfection govern, Sir,
 To excel the golden age.

SHAKESPEAR.

On Human Life,

FROM sunny scenes, from days of joy,
 To hours of dark distress,
 Alas! how many sink, among
 The hapless human race.

Thrown headlong on a guileful world,
 They, artless, do not know,
 Sincere and simple in themselves,
 They fancy others so.

Hence do we find that men of worth,
 Are oft to want betray'd ;
 Hence is the hopeful youth undone,
 And hence the ruin'd maid.

The world's a wide and thorny wild,
 Where many snares are hid ;
 And much of caution is requir'd
 The devious wild to tread.

To Night, a Sonnet.

I LOVE thee, mournful sober-fuited night,
 When the fair moon, yet ling'ring in her wane,
 And veil'd in clouds, with pale uncertain light
 Hangs o'er the waters of the restless main.

In deep depression sunk, the enfeeb'l'd mind
 Will to the deaf, cold elements complain,
 And tell th' embosom'd grief, however vain,
 To fullen surges and the viewless wind.

Though no repose on thy dark breast I find,
 I still enjoy thee, cheerless as thou art ;
 For in thy quiet gloom, th' exhausted heart
 Is calm, though wretched ; hopeless, yet resigned,
 While to the wind and waves its sorrows given,
 May reach, though lost on earth, the ear of heaven !

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*Description of the Nisser Werk, or Golden Eagle, from
Bruce.*

AMONG other benefits that society will derive from the publication of Mr. Bruce's travels, must be ranked the enlargement of our knowledge in natural history. Various objects in the animal and vegetable kingdom, that were entirely unknown in Europe, are here described and illustrated by drawings of uncommon elegance.

The bird which forms the subject of this article, if not the largest in the known world, is at least the largest of the eagle kind. "From wing to wing he was eight feet four inches. From the top of his tail to the point of his beak, when dead, four feet seven inches. He weighed twenty-two pounds."

This noble bird had strength and courage proportioned to his size. Living in the uninhabited desert, he knows not the power, nor has he learnt to dread the arts of man. Ignorant of danger, therefore, he shuns not man, but pursues his prey without regarding the efforts he may make to deter him. "Upon the highest top of the mountain Lamalmon," says Mr. Bruce, while my servants were refreshing themselves from that toilsome and rugged ascent, and enjoying the pleasure of a most delightful climate, eating their dinner in the outer air, with several large dishes of boiled goat's flesh before them, this enemy, as he turned out to be to them, appeared suddenly: he did not stoop rapidly from a height, but came flying slowly along the ground, and sat down close to the meat, within the ring the men had made round it. A great shout, or rather cry of distress, called me to the place. I saw the eagle stand for a minute, as if to recollect himself, while the servants ran for their lances and shield. I walked up as near to him as I had time to do. His attention was fully fixed upon the flesh. I saw him put his foot into the pan, where was a large piece, in the water, prepared for boiling; but finding the smart which he had not expected, he withdrew it, and forsook the piece which he held.

“ There were two large pieces, a leg and a shoulder, lying upon a wooden platter. Into these he trussed both his claws, and carried them off; but I thought he looked wistfully at the large piece which remained in the warm water. Away he went slowly along the ground as he had come. The face of the cliff over which criminals are thrown, took him from our sight.”

He soon, however, returned, and gave Mr. Bruce a fair opportunity of shooting him, which gave occasion for observing a phenomenon, not a little singular in its kind. “ Upon laying hold of his monstrous carcase,” our adventurous traveller proceeds, “ I was not a little surpris’d at seeing my hands covered and tinged with yellow powder or dust. Upon turning him upon his belly, and examining the feathers of his back, they produced a brown dust, the colour of the feathers there. This dust was not in small quantities; for, upon striking his breast, the yellow powder flew out in fully greater quantity than from a hair-dresser’s powder puff. The feathers of the belly and breast, which were of a gold colour, did not appear to have any thing extraordinary in their formation; but the large feathers in the shoulder and wings, seem’d apparently to be fine tubes, which, upon pressure, scatter’d this dust upon the finer part of the feathers; but this was brown, the colour of the feathers of the back.”

What the uses of this powder were intended by nature, our traveller is at a loss to say. He conjectures it may have been intended in some way to fortify the animal against the rigours of the season it would experience in that lofty situation: But this conjecture does not seem to be corroborated by the other facts he there states. However this may be, it seems to be a peculiarity of this animal of a very uncommon kind, and might well have entitl’d it to the name of the POWDERED EAGLE, a name which would have prevented the danger of confounding it with another eagle, which has long been known by that of the Golden Eagle’

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HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

INTRODUCTION.

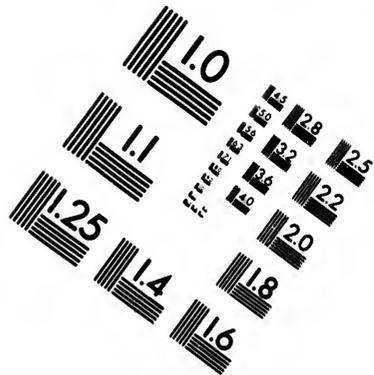
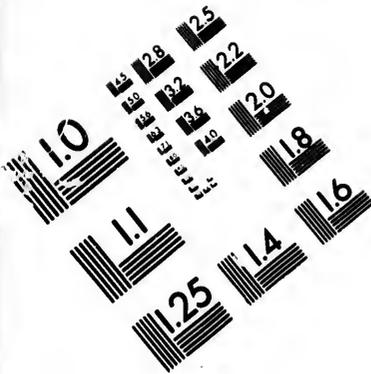
A Cursory VIEW of the present POLITICAL STATE of EUROPE.

Russia.

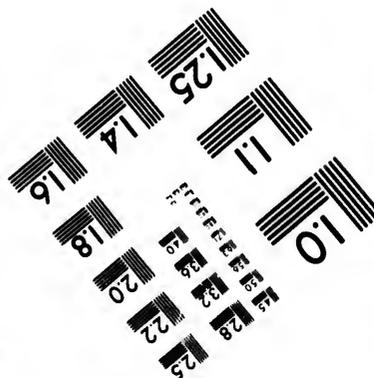
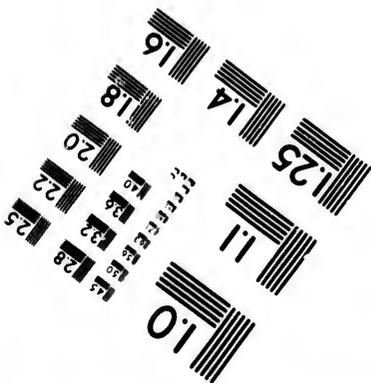
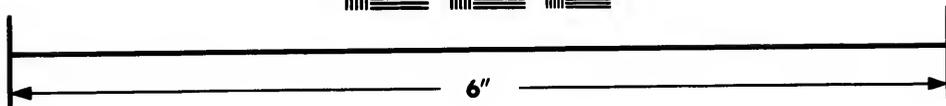
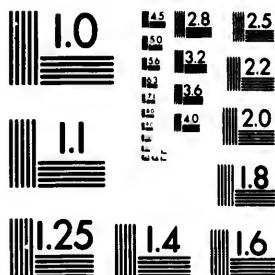
FOR many years past, the Russian empire has made a very conspicuous figure in the political affairs of Europe. *Ambition*, however, rather than *wisdom*, has characterised the operations of that court in modern times. The territorial extent of that empire is much greater than to admit of a proper form of government; yet, blind to this great defect, the Empress has long exerted her utmost efforts to extend as far as possible the boundaries of her dominions; and with that view, has kindled up a war that has been productive of much mischief, and of little benefit to any one. Little does she seem to think that she is thus preparing afar off, the means of effectually curtailing the enormous extent of her overgrown dominions.

But though this conduct be not wise in the Empress, who cannot foresee to what point it ultimately tends, it may be very consistent with the views of some of her counsellors. For several years past, the court of Russia has been overawed by the uncontrollable influence of *Potemkin*; a man of a daring and impetuous disposition of mind, who has been raised by the favour of his sovereign from a low estate to the highest exaltation of power; a power which is now so firmly established, as to give his recommendations the force of commands, and his suggestions a certainty of being implicitly adopted. This man, who now possesses a dictatorial command of the army, and an unlimited power of drawing whatever sums he pleases from the public treasury, has carried on his military operations against the Turks with all the ardour that might be expected from a man of undaunted courage, in the prime of life, who is blessed with a sound constitution, great bodily strength, an unbounded com-





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mand of money and of men, with the prospect of conquering *for himself* an independent principality. But, destitute of those great military talents which characterise the accomplished general, his attacks have been rather furious than irresistible : nor have his successes been adequate to the ardour of his wishes, or the means that were put in his power ; and he has now reason to fear that he may be prevented, by a general pacification, from establishing, *at this time*, the desirable sovereignty which has long afforded such a pleasing subject of contemplation to him.

But though it be doubtful if he will be able to do as much as he intended, there seems little reason to apprehend, that he will not be able to obtain for himself some sort of sovereign independent power, under the *apparent* controul of the Russian empire : And were he not a man of such despotic dispositions, and arbitrary principles, as to give no hopes of any reasonable system of government ever being adopted by him, perhaps this dismemberment of the Russian empire is what all European powers ought to promote. Should a new kingdom be established on the confines of the Turkish and Russian empires, adjoining to the Black Sea, under a system of government purely European, founded on commercial and pacific principles, perhaps nothing could contribute so much to the general well-being of mankind in those regions of the earth. The Turk has now felt so strongly the disagreeable effects of being obliged to contend with the neighbouring great powers, that little influence would be required to induce that hitherto intractable court, to grant to such a state those commercial privileges that would be necessary for insuring its own prosperity : and the fertility of the soil is such, and the situation for commerce so favourable, that under a wise administration, this kingdom might soon attain such vigour as to become respectable among all nations.

The time, however, does not seem to be as yet arrived for this happy establishment : nor is Potemkin the man calculated to bring it forward. That he aims at sovereign power is scarcely to be doubted : That he has secured great sums of money in foreign countries to be ready at command, is generally believed ; but whether he will be able to effect his final establishment, or whether he will be obliged to con-

tent himself with a limited and dependent sway, must depend upon contingencies that perhaps no one can as yet perfectly foresee.

In the mean time, the court of Petersburg gives all the effect it can to promote his military operations; and though their success against the Turks during the last campaign has not been such as to give them that decided advantage over the *Porte* they have aimed at, yet the Russian arms have been upon the whole successful, and the Turks have suffered some considerable losses.

Sweden.

To the northward, Russia has had the good fortune, last season, to disembarass herself from a very troublesome opponent, which would otherwise have proved exceedingly distressing to her. The king of Sweden, having formed a strict alliance with the *Porte*, made a sudden and powerful diversion in their favours into Russian Finland, and on the Baltic; but having been obliged to act with greater promptitude than the state of his kingdom could properly admit of, his subjects at first were subjected to great inconveniences by it, which excited private discontents that gave him great annoyance; and being attacked at the same time by Denmark, his affairs were for some time in as ticklish a situation as can easily be conceived. And had it not been for the critical intervention of Great Britain and Prussia, he had great reason to fear that he would have been driven from his throne. This difficulty surmounted, the Swedish monarch, with an active alacrity that is rarely to be found; procured supplies; recruited his forces by sea and by land; and having quieted by his address the internal disturbances that threatened to break out, he began the campaign with that active intrepidity which has distinguished all his civil and military operations. But having by an unlucky accident sustained a great loss at sea in an engagement with the Russian fleet, on the 10th of July last, he, by a most extraordinary exertion, on a succeeding day, recovered the laurels that fortune had torn from his brow. But being by this time satisfied of the futility of his attempts at conquest, and both he and his opponent heartily tired of the war, a peace was suddenly concluded between Russia and Sweden, without the intervention of any other power, and without men-

tion of allies on either side. Thus did these two potentates, as usual, contentedly sit down with their respective losses, without having obtained any other benefit by the contest, except a few empty laurels, which both monarchs were willing to claim as a small indemnification for the great losses their subjects had sustained by the fruitless contest.

Germany.

THE late Emperor, who was rash in all his enterprizes, despotic in council, fickle in his temper, and mean in the conduct of his private affairs, was continually projecting new enterprizes, and ever unsuccessful in executing them, had brought himself into embarrassments, from which death alone could happily have extricated him. At a time when his conduct had alienated the affections of his Belgic subjects, with the hope, no doubt, of extending his empire on that side, he had been induced by the court of Russia to engage in a war against the Turks; but having taken it into his head to command his army in person, he had the mortification to see his baneful influence extended to the army, and the success that might have been expected from such mighty preparations retarded.

The ignorance, obstinacy, and inhumanity of this man, cannot be better exemplified than by the following anecdote, which I had from the best authority. When in the campaign of 1788, the Danube formed the boundary between the two armies, the emperor took possession of a small island in it, very near the northern shore, on which he placed a picquet guard of thirty men. The Turks, with that rash bravery which characterised most of their enterprizes, at that time, attacked this small party from boats. They were observed approaching; and though nothing would have been more easy than for the Austrians to have repulsed them, by sending a superior force to support the picquet; and though all the generals solicited permission to do it, the Emperor stood unmoved, and saw the Turks deliberately cut off the heads of his thirty men, without making an attempt to save them.

After he thought proper to withdraw from the scene of action, the general, in some measure, retrieved his affairs in that quarter, though at the time of the Emperor's death, he had

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no reason to boast of his conquests. The present Emperor, though he did not entirely abandon the military enterprises of his brother, has prosecuted them with less ardour, and more caution than formerly. He seems to be anxious to keep up his connections with Russia, not so much with the capricious view of extending his dominions beyond the Danube, as of forming a balance to check the preponderating power of Prussia, which he seems to dread. Hitherto his conduct has been rather more cautious than might have been expected from the general tenure of his political system in Tuscany, and he has had the address, not only to favour the views of his ally in Poland, without giving umbrage to Prussia; but also to gain over that power to acquiesce in the plan he had adopted for recovering his former influence in the Belgic provinces, which must now again submit to be governed by the court of Vienna.

The court of Dresden, and the smaller states in Germany, enjoy at present a profound tranquillity, the Bishop of Liege alone excepted. There, the people have asserted their claim to certain privileges to which the Prince Bishop does not think they have a just title. Popular commotions were likely to ensue; and the Bishop thought it prudent to withdraw himself from a storm, that he imagined threatened his person, had he remained among them: by this means bloodshed has been avoided. The other powers of Germany are now preparing to interfere in this dispute; and there is little room to doubt that the prince will be reinstated, and the people protected in their just claims by the powerful mediation of princes, whose award must be accepted as a law to both the parties in this dispute.

Prussia.

FREDERIC the Second, after a long life spent in a perpetual struggle to augment his power, and extend his dominions, by a prudence of conduct which nothing but a vigorous mind could inspire, not only extended the limits of his empire, but augmented the prosperity of his people by every mean that was consistent with a despotic power in government: a power which even this great man had not fortitude of mind to relinquish. At the time of his death, his dominions were at peace; his army in the best order, and his coffers full. He was then busied in endeavouring, by

peaceful mediation, to establish his kinsman the Prince of Orange, in the full enjoyment of his rights as stadtholder in the united provinces, from which he had been driven by the machination of a party, supported by the court of France, who aimed at getting thus a direction in the councils of Holland. The present king of Prussia, on his succeeding to the throne, adopted the same general line of conduct which his illustrious predecessor had chalked out: but finding pacific negotiation vain, he proceeded, by force of arms, to replace the stadtholder in his former authority, to humble the party that had driven him from the country, and to confer the power on that party which supported his interest. But though the present state of France prevents her from taking any active concern in this business, the friends of that party in Holland is rather suppressed than extinguished; and there is reason to suspect, that were not the powers of Prussia and of England to overawe them, and the French unable to support them, the peace of these provinces would not be long preserved; for the Prince of Orange himself seems not to possess either that firmness of mind, or those talents, which laid the foundation of the power of his ancestors, or secured their influence over these states.

To be continued.

* * * On account of a press of business, and the interruption that necessarily attends a new publication, the printer has been so much hurried with this number, that the arrangement of the parts was not altogether agreeable. There was not time to make the alterations that would have been eligible. In future, it is hoped, things of this nature will be avoided.

There has not yet been time to obtain any account of the publications of this year.

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TO FOREIGN CORRESPONDENTS.

To those gentlemen in foreign parts who have been so kind as honour the editor with their correspondence, or who in future shall be so obliging as favour him with any communications, Dr. Anderson begs leave most respectfully to express his grateful sense of past favours, and warmly to solicit from them, and every other liberal minded friend to science and literature into whose hands these proposals may fall, such future communications as shall appear to them suitable to the nature of his work. It shall be his study at all times to do justice to their respective performances, and to lay them before the public in the most advantageous manner he can.

To avoid the necessity of writing a great many private letters, which would become expensive to correspondents, and could not be so easily read as a printed paper, he has adopted this method of laying before them a few memorandums, under the form of general queries, to put in their view some particulars which at times might chance to escape their notice. These queries, it will be easily perceived, are merely hints serving to awaken the attention, and nothing more. Those who shall speculate on any subject will easily perceive that they lead to many interesting discussions that are not necessary to be mentioned. This circumstance is here noticed, merely with a view to prevent our correspondents from thinking these particulars were meant to be excluded.

But before he proceeds to these queries, Dr. Anderson begs leave to suggest, that as the objects there alluded to may furnish the subjects of future discussion, during the whole time that this work shall be continued, these may be left till opportunity and inclination shall bring them forward. He cannot help, however, remarking, that it would be particularly obliging in them, and singularly grateful to him, if he should be favoured as early as possible from every quarter, with such general notices as shall occur to each individual in particular, as of importance, respecting the state of literature, arts, manufactures and commerce in their own country; their state of improvement or decline; concise accounts of such late publications as prove interesting, with extracts where these appear to be necessary; notices concerning intended literary publications; or any information that seems to be calculated to convey to strangers a general idea of the state of the country at the present time, without entering at the first into too minute particulars.

GENERAL QUERIES TO FOREIGN CORRESPONDENTS.

1. To whom does the ground in this country belong in property? What is the nature of the tenure by which it is held? Are there different kinds of tenures here at present in use? Wherein do they differ; and what are the most obvious peculiarities of each?

2. In what manner is the ground parcelled out to those who cultivate it? Are these cultivators the *slaves*, the *servants*, or the *tenants* of the lords of the soil?—If *slaves*, What is the particular nature of their servitude? To what tasks are they subjected? How are they protected by law, or by the customs of the country? Can any estimate be made of the price of their labour when compared with that of free men? Are any devices adopted for exciting their industry? What are they? If *servants*, In what manner are they regulated? Under what subordination are they placed during the absence of their master? For how long a term are they usually engaged? Particulars that occur respecting wages, food, clothing? &c.—If *tenants*, What is the nature of their bargain? Do the labouring utensils, cattle, &c. belong to the farmer himself, or to the lord of the soil? If they belong to the landlord, What rule is observed as to rents? Is the rent in this case usually paid in money or in kind—by a fixed rate, or by a proportion of the produce? How is this proportion ascertained?—If the stocking belongs to the farmer himself, What is the nature of his tenure? Is it verbal or in writing? from year to year only, or for a longer time?—If written contracts or leases are in use, For how many years are these usually granted? Are these leases a perfect security to the tenant for the term specified, provided the conditions on his part are duly implemented? Is such a lease good to the tenant against any successor whatever? Is it necessary that these conditions be specifically enumerated in the contract, before they can become obligatory on the tenant; or may they be loosely and generally expressed? Are the tenants in any case liable in personal and indefinite services to their lord or others? Of what nature are these services? How are they generally exacted? In what manner are the rents payable? In money or in kind, or both? Is the *quantum* of that rent fixed and invariable; or is it a proportion of the produce? If the last, How is that proportion rated, and its total amount ascertained?

3. Are the cultivators of the ground at perfect liberty to rear what kinds of produce they please; or are they by *law* or by custom laid under restraints in this respect? If so, What are the articles prohibited? Do these prohibitions originate in considerations respecting revenue? What is the general system of management in regard to rural productions? Is the country in general flat or mountainous, woody or open, barren or fertile, well watered, or arid and bare? Is it chiefly employed in rearing cultivated crops, or for pasturage?—If a cultivated country, What are its principal productions? Is it corn, vines, olives, mulberries, or other useful crops? What are they? How are each of them particularly managed?—If it be chiefly employed in pasturage, What are the domestic animals reared here? To what uses are they applied? How are they managed?—Be as particular as possible respecting either

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the domestic animals, or the cultivated crops that are peculiar to this country, or more generally attended to here than elsewhere.

4. Is the cultivator of the ground at full liberty to dispose of its produce to the best advantage? or is he under a necessity of giving the pre-emption of it to the prince, or to any other man or body of men? If so, is the price invariably fixed; or is it variable? If it be variable, Who has the power to fix the rate? What, in short, are the obstructions to a free sale; and how do they operate? Are duties exacted on internal sales? Are duties levied, especially on the produce of the fields, on their being carried from one province of the kingdom into another? Do the laws prohibit any of the natural productions of the fields, or any of the native live animals, or their produce, or cured meat of any sort, from being carried out of the country? What are the prohibited articles? Are duties demanded, or other restraints thrown in the way, on exporting other articles that are not prohibited? Are these duties so considerable as to operate as a prohibition? What is the nature of the contraband trade that these restraints produce? If the duties are moderate in themselves, Are they fixed and known; or are they levied in a loose and arbitrary manner? What restraints do the levying of these duties impose upon the merchant in the ordinary course of his business? Is an inland excise here known?

5. Are the people in general maintained by the produce of their own fields? What is the general food of the common people? Are there any articles in common use as food that can only be bought from the officers of the crown, or from any other body of men who possess exclusive privileges? What are they; and what are the evils that spring from this abuse? Are any articles of food used in this country that are not in common use elsewhere? Are any articles common as food elsewhere that are either neglected here, or are held in abhorrence by the people, from religious, superstitious, or other motives? Are certain kinds of food prohibited at certain seasons of the year only? What are all these, and the peculiar circumstances respecting each? Are any articles generally used as food which are brought from afar? What are they, and whence are they obtained?

6. Are the cultivators of the ground in general a distinct and separate class of people from the manufacturers and artisans; or are they often united in the same persons? Do the manufacturers live chiefly in towns? Are they associated into communities, corporations, or guilds, having exclusive privileges? What are the obstructions in the way of being admitted as members of these guilds, the terms of admission into them, &c.? What are the benefits and the inconveniencies that have been observed from experience to have resulted from these communities, corporations, or guilds? Have any devices been adopted in this country, directly or indirectly, to sap the foundations of this ancient system of political economy? What are they?

7. What is the state of the country with regard to metals, mines and minerals? Are there any fossil productions found here that are useful in arts or manufactures? Is pit coal worked here? How are the natives supplied with fuel? Are any duties imposed by the state on

fuel? Are mines of salt found here? How is it worked, refined and sold to the people? Is fossil alkali, or sulphur, or fossil oil, either in a fluid or inspissated state, found here? Is the earth of this country favourable for generating nitre, alum, vitriol, or any other saline substance, &c.? for particular kinds of pottery, &c.?

8. Are the people in general clothed with the produce of their own fields, manufactured by themselves? What is the clothing of the common people? What kinds of employment, besides agriculture, are here followed? What manufactures are established in this country? Are there any manufactures here carried on for foreign markets? What are they? Is there any class of domestic animals or vegetables here reared, chiefly for the purpose of manufactures? What are they? How are the articles treated after they go from the farmer? Is the silk worm successfully reared in this country? Particulars respecting its management are requested.*

9. What is the state of the country with regard to commerce, both external and internal? Are the farmers or manufacturers obliged to become the retailers of their own goods; or are merchants at hand at all times to buy these goods *in any quantities*? Is it customary for men of rank and family to enter into mercantile or manufacturing employments, without being degraded by it? Is the practice of insurance here very general; and to what kinds of property does it extend? How are loans of money generally negotiated; and what is the nature of the security granted to the lender? Is heritable property in any case so circumstanced here as not to be transferable by the possessor, or not to be liable in payment of his debts after his death? Can heritable property be mortgaged as a pledge for the repayment of money borrowed? If so, what measures have been adopted for rendering the transaction easy to the borrower and safe to the lender? Is it customary to borrow money upon pledges of personal property; and how are transactions of this nature conducted? Are banks established for negotiating bills? Is the practice of discounting bills common, and easily transacted? Can money be deposited for a time in the hands of bankers, and be at the will of the owner on demand? Is interest in these cases allowed? and at what rate? Is it customary here for banks to open cash accounts for the accommodation of people in trade? What rules are observed in this respect? In general, what devices have been here adopted for facilitating the circulation of property of every kind? What is the *legal* rate of interest for money, if such a thing be here established? What is the *common* rate? Is it pretty much stationary, or is it liable to great fluctuations? Are there laws here in force against usury, and strictly executed? What are they? What are the most common devices for elud-

* From correspondents in India is requested the best account of the sheep of Tibet, or the other animals that carry the fine wool of which shawls are made; from Spanish America, a particular account of the vicuna, and its peculiarities, particularly its native climate, food, habits, &c.; from Spain, an account how the vicunas have thriven at Aranjuez, if they have there produced young, &c.; from Smyrna, an account of the Angora goat, its peculiarities, &c.; and from Sweden and the south of France, notices concerning the changes that have been produced on these animals (the Angora goat) since they have been reared in these countries respectively.

ing the force of these laws? How are debts recoverable? How are bankrupts treated? What says the law; and what is the prevailing practice in this respect? Has the creditor in any case power over the person of the debtor? Can the debtor *force* a discharge from the creditors without having made full payment of the money due? How is this done?

10. What is the nature of the religious establishments in this country? Is a quiet man, who does not disturb the public peace of the community, liable to suffer on account of his private religious tenets? Are any classes of the people here secluded from the world, and devoted to religious exercises? If so, How are funds provided for their maintenance; and what is the general nature of their employment, amusements, exercises, &c.? What are the *civil* and the political uses made of these institutions, their effects on the conduct and disposition of mind of certain classes of the people, and their influence in promoting or disturbing the domestic tranquillity of families? What have you had occasion to remark from your own experience and observation as to these particulars? How are the regular clergy supported? Does their income arise from territorial domains or other funds? What are they? Are tithes *in kind* common or universal, or how? Is it customary in any case to commute these tithes for a sum in money? If they be drawn *in kind*, what is the most common mode of practice in this respect? In case of disputes on this head, how are these determined? Is it before an ecclesiastical tribunal, or the civil magistrate? Is it common for laymen to obtain full payment for all expences incurred and damages sustained, in cases of iniquitous exactions, or improper conduct in the clergy?

11. In what manner are the subjects protected from the excesses of each other in this state? How and by whom are the laws enacted? How are they promulgated among the people? To whom are the execution of these laws entrusted? In what manner is justice administered here? Who has the power of appointing the judges? Are these appointments *for life*, or during pleasure only? Are their salaries ample and fixed; or are they varied by contingencies? What are the circumstances that affect these? In what cases are appeals admissible, and to whom? Is it easy for a rich man to protract law suits, and accumulate expences on his opponent? What devices have been adopted for correcting this evil? Are trials *by jury* here known? Is it customary for the losing party to pay all expences; or are *damages* ever awarded over and above the payment of expences?

12. Under what regulations are the prisons? Who has power to commit to prison? What evidence is required of guilt before a warrant to commit to prison can be legal? Can a prisoner, *in any case*, before trial and condemnation, be secluded from all communication with his friends? Are there any laws in force here for bringing prisoners to trial within a limited time? What are they? How are trials, whether for criminal or civil trespasses, usually conducted? Are all trials carried on in the open court, and the witnesses confronted with the accused? If there be exceptions to this rule, what are they? Are persons accused ever permitted to go at large upon *bail*? What are the cases in which this can be admitted? Is torture ever employed in judicial pro-

ceedings, and in what cases? In general, what is the nature of your criminal code with respect to the objects accounted criminal, the modes of procedure, and the kinds of punishment?

13. How are the poor in general provided for in this country?

14. What is the state of the roads in this country? Are they in general kept in good repair, or the reverse? By what means are roads and bridges made and kept in repair? Are tolls exacted for this purpose? Are these tolls general throughout the whole country, or local, and adopted in particular cases only? If tolls or *turnpikes* are *general*, by what authority have these been established; and how long have they been in common use? Are they adopted as an object of public revenue, and under the management of the officers of the crown; or is the money thus collected applied solely for the making and repairing the roads? Under whose management is this fund placed? If private and particular tolls only are in use, What devices have been adopted to prevent the money thus raised from being in time applied to augment the income of private individuals? Are navigable canals known or common in this country? If rare, What are those that have been made or proposed to be made? Is the country susceptible of this improvement, though it has not yet been adopted.

15. What are the principal sources of public revenue in this country? Does this arise from territorial rents, mines, ancient customs, aids, feudal incidents, or from what has been in modern times peculiarly called *taxes*? Where any of these particulars are not generally known, a special account of them is wanted. If *taxes* are here in common use, what is the general nature of these taxes? Are all the members of the community alike liable in the payment of these? Where there are exemptions, Who are the persons claiming this privilege? Are the taxes collected by the officers of the crown; or is it customary to farm them out to others? Have the collectors of the revenue, or the farmers of it, any discretionary power in apportioning the tax among individuals; or are they tied down by rules so clear and definite, that they cannot transgress them without being *evidently* culpable, and amenable to justice? Are there any instances of the collectors or farmers of revenue being publicly tried and fined, or otherwise punished, for malversations in office, which did not tend to defraud the prince, to thwart the minister in some favourite project, or *apparently* to diminish the revenue? Particulars as to such cases will prove interesting. Has the *minister*, either *directly* or *indirectly*, a power of augmenting or diminishing taxes to any individual or body of men, or part of the community? What have been the devices adopted for these purposes, and the *pretexes* under which they have been concealed from the view of the people?

16. What is the state of the country in regard to the *liberty of the press*? To what restraints are the people subjected in this respect? What have been the pretexes adopted for curtailing this liberty, where it could not be directly attacked? Have these encroachments been made under the apparent view of augmenting the public revenue, or of serving the cause of religion, or of preventing immorality, or of promoting good order and public tranquillity, by protecting the innocent from calumny, or what else? Is the post office called in as an engine to effect this pur-

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pose? Have particular taxes also been imposed with this view? What are they?

17. How is the post office regulated? Is it conducted under the influence of *mercantile*, of *financial*, or of *political* notions? Are letters never in danger of being stopped at the post office, or searched there, unless by the *highest authority*, in times of imminent public danger? Are any persons or bodies of men exempted from the charge of postage: Who are they? and what are the privileges they enjoy, and how limited? Are any general regulations adopted for facilitating literary communications either altogether free of expence, or at a moderate charge? What are they? Are these publicly known and invariable; or do they depend in any case on private favour, so as to be either granted or withheld at pleasure? Particulars respecting this department are earnestly requested.

18. How do the laws in this country stand respecting *game*? Who are excluded from participating in this diversion? What privileges do those possess who are permitted to indulge in it; and how far may they with impunity trespass on the property of others? What animals are with you accounted *game*? What animals that roam at large have been accounted private property, and by what regulation have these been protected?

19. Are there any public libraries of note, collections of paintings, or museums, in this state? How are these endowed and cared for? Are these institutions of old standing, or of modern date: Do they consist chiefly of collections that have been made at *one time*, owing to particular circumstances, and when? or have these collections been made by a regular accumulation from year to year, from the first institution? Under whose influence (I mean what class of men in general) have these collections been made? Is the administration of the funds always under the same person or set of persons for life; or do different individuals take it in rotation for certain periods, and how? Are these libraries open for the inspection of the literati in general; or can access only be obtained through certain channels? What are these? Have the collections in these repositories been reduced into order, and catalogues of them made out or published? What is the prevailing complexion of the writings, &c. of such of these collections as have fallen under your own particular observation? Is permitted to make copies or extracts from these performances without any farther charge than that paid for transcribing? What are the most noted *private* collections of books, pictures, &c. that have come to your knowledge? If there are any old religious houses here, Is it known if there be any ancient manuscripts, &c. in their repositories? Is there reason to suspect that there may be in any of them some literary treasures that are neglected and unknown? Can you point out any of these?

20. What literary or patriotic societies or academies have been established in this country? How long have such of them as have fallen under your own particular notice, been instituted? What are the chief objects aimed at by these societies? What measures have been adopted for effecting these ends? If premiums are distributed—for what objects given; and what are the funds from whence these are paid? If the so-

eties proceed by gratuitous literary enquiries, Have their works been published? under what title, in what form, at what periods of publication, and what are the principal objects of discussion? Are the number of members limited? To what number? How are they admitted? Is money to be paid by the member on being admitted; and what sum? Is an annual contribution required from them—and how much? or do they receive an annual stipend; from whom, and how much? Answers to these queries are particularly requested, from the secretaries or members of these societies; and it will be a special favour to the editor if these answers are transmitted to him as early as possible.

21. What are the principal literary journals or periodical publications in this state? By whom published; their size, form, times of publication, and price? Whether do they contain *news* only, and advertisements; or do they consist chiefly of literary essays, and of what nature? or do they contain an account of new publications? Or what in general is the strain and character of such of these as have fallen under your own particular observation? *Early* notices of these will be deemed a favour.

22. What are the new books that fall in your way, which prove interesting to you on their perusal? What are the particulars in them you think the most deserving of notice? Such abstracts of these, or extracts from them, as you see would be generally interesting, that it suits your conveniency at the time to make, or your own free sentiments as they occur, with such remarks as you shall judge proper, will at all times be deemed a most particular favour.

23. Have any new mechanical inventions been adopted in this country, and applied at large to any useful purposes, whether in the working of mines, lifting great weights, moving bodies to a distance, or simplifying machinery of any sort? What are they? If these are remarkable for their *simplicity* and effect, exact drawings, with precise descriptions of them, will be at all times considered as a favour of the highest importance. An early account of chemical and other discoveries in useful arts, is also most earnestly requested.

24. What are the provisions adopted for the *defence* of this country? Is it a militia? Under what regulations? A band of feudal retainers, or a regular army? How is the army recruited, disciplined, paid, clothed? Whether is the *military* or the *civil* establishment subjected to the other? How can redress be obtained in cases of civil trespasses by the military? Are the different regiments fixed to a place in times of peace; or are they ambulatory? What distinctions take place between the infantry and cavalry? Are military schools established in this country? What are they? If a maritime power, what means are adopted for manning and recruiting the navy; for paying, clothing and feeding the seamen; and for preserving subordination, discipline, and good order among that body of men? What are the rules for sharing of prize money in war time? What provision is made for those who are maimed or superannuated in the service? How are the widows of those who perish cared for? Can any term of service entitle a man to obtain a final discharge? Are any public institutions here adopted for promoting the theory and the practice of ship building and naval tactics? What are they?

25. What are the amusements most usual for people of rank in this country? What is the state of the drama? Is it here perfectly free, or under particular restraints? What are they? What is the prevailing stile of dramatic compositions most in vogue? Are musical dramas or musical entertainments much esteemed? Is dancing a favourite amusement? Do these for the most part consist of public or private parties? What are the amusements of the common people? How is the Sunday usually disposed of? Are holidays frequent here? How are they usually spent by labouring people? What are the prevailing virtues, vices, foibles and peculiarities of character, habits and manners, most distinguishable among those of the lower ranks?

26. What language is employed in the ordinary intercourses of life in this country? Is that of the common people, and those of the higher rank, the same? If they differ, in what respects do they vary? Are they radically the same, or only different dialects; or are they different languages? A copy of the Lord's prayer, written in the character of the country, *with great distinctness*, and another copy of the same, only expressed in Roman characters, will be deemed a particular favour. Is the same language spoken in the different districts of this country or not? What are the variations? Do the clergy, in their devotional exercises, employ the vulgar tongue, or otherwise? What language do they use? Is the Latin tongue spoken any where in this country as a living language? Wherein does this Latin differ from that of the classics of the Augustan age? What foreign languages are studied or used in this country by what classes of people are they studied? which of these are most fashionable at present; which of them are coming into vogue, or falling into decline? What are the circumstances that occasion these partialities? What are the changes that the vernacular language of this country has undergone, for as great a period backwards as can be traced; and what are the circumstances that have produced these changes? Succinct notices of the revolutions that have taken place in regard to the language, referring to the causes that have occasioned these changes, will be at all times very acceptable.

27. What are the distinctions of rank that have been established in this country? What line marks the separation between the nobles and the commons? How many classes are those who are called *noble* divided into? What are the names of the different orders of nobility? What is it more than the name that constitutes the distinction among them? What is the order of priority of rank among these classes? What peculiarities and privileges are annexed to each of these orders of nobility? What are the circumstances that commonly tend to exalt those of low station to the rank of nobility? *Plebeians*—How many orders in this class prevail; and what is the degree of estimation or rank that each of them holds in the community? *Honorary marks of distinction, orders of personal knighthood, &c.*—What are those that are here adopted? To what ranks of men are each of these appropriated? From correspondents in India, particulars respecting those distinctions of orders among men called *castes*, are requested, and inquiries as to the origin of this distinction? From China, a more accurate account of the distinctions of rank which there prevail than hath

hitherto been obtained in Europe, is wished for. What advantages do individuals there derive from the possession of wealth? What security have they that it shall descend to their children? How is the wealth that may be occasionally accumulated by the order of *Mandarines*, disposed of at their death? Does that wealth confer no *permanent* advantages on their descendants, which entitles them to respect and weight in the community? Wherein consists the difference between the order of *Mandarines*, and those *personal* honours and dignities annexed to certain offices, &c. in Europe, that are not hereditary; such as dignitaries of the church; judges, commanders of military orders, knighthood in the days of chivalry, ambassadors, viceroys, &c.?

28. *Women*—the rank they hold in the community; the influence they possess in society; whether this be displayed in public or operates in a less palpable manner in private life? Is polygamy allowed? What proportion of women may be thus supposed in this country to be excluded from the natural rights of the sex? How are the lower ranks of males in these cases accommodated with females? Are brothels and stews publicly permitted, or only winked at? Is a revenue derived from this source? How are the miserable objects of prostitution guarded from the ravages of the disease? What sorts of business usually fall to the share of women among the lower ranks? What are the established practices with regard to marriage presents, portions, contracts of marriage, dowers, and widowhood, with regard to women—and to men? Divorces—In what cases are they permitted, and how are they obtained? Left handed marriages, or any device of that sort by which an imperfect marriage may be contracted—are they here in use? Are *temporary* marriages permitted, and how tolerated? Is the practice of *cicisbeism*, or any gallantries of this sort among married women under any other name, practised in this country; and how is it exercised? Do such practices ever prevail among people in the lower ranks? Is chastity among women, unmarried or married, held in a high degree of estimation, or the reverse? Adultery, fornication, &c. how are they cognisable by law? &c.

29. *Succession*—What is the most established order in that respect, as affecting heritable property (lands &c.), and moveables, as respecting males—and females? Testaments—their authority in altering the common laws of succession? Their form, &c. before they can be valid in law?

30. The mode of education for children that in general prevails, as respecting the higher ranks—and the lower? How are religious notions instilled into the minds of the common people? What means are adopted for preventing idleness in youth, and for inducing early habits of industry: Are petty acts of theft or secret pilfering accounted great crimes, or only venal transgressions, by the lower classes of people? What kinds of theft are here accounted as of least importance; and what kinds of it are reckoned heinous crimes by the common people?

31. Superstitious notions respecting ghosts, apparitions, fairies, incantations, charms, &c. that still have influence here—what are they? An exact delineation of these would perhaps indicate the degree of civilization, the progress of knowledge, and the characteristic manners of a people, more

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distinctly than any other circumstance. These notions are necessarily fleeting and evanescent. They have not been distinctly delineated in former times; and hence the history of manners in past ages is incomplete, and the judgment we now form of the importance of many transactions, is altogether erroneous. Many beautiful and interesting allusions too, in works of literature and taste, are totally incomprehensible for want of it. Any hints, therefore, respecting this department, whether in ancient or modern times, will be very acceptable; and when they are faithfully delineated and accurately defined, they will be received with a particular degree of satisfaction.

It is by no means the intention of the editor to propose that any of his correspondents should think of giving a series of answers to all those queries. This would be a labour he never could once dream of subjecting them to; nor could it, if completed, suit a miscellany of the nature intended. All that is wished for, or expected, is merely that those who shall be so obliging as to favour him with their occasional correspondence, will be so kind as mark down upon paper, as they incidentally occur to their mind, such observations and circumstances respecting any of the particulars above, or others, that shall tend to improve the condition of men in civil society, or to illustrate the history of the human mind, accompanied with such reflections as the circumstances shall suggest. By this means detached facts, and easy unconnected essays coming from different hands, will have a variety in the manner, as well as a diversity in the thoughts on the same subject, that would prove more instructive and more entertaining to the reader, and would suggest a greater variety of new ideas, than any great work uninterruptedly carried on by one individual ever could do.

As the intention of this miscellany is to convey useful intelligence from Britain to other countries, as well as to obtain it from thence, care will be taken in the course of this work to furnish information that may be relied on, respecting most of the above particulars, in Britain itself; so as that its present state shall be gradually unfolded in a very particular manner. This the editor can promise with some degree of certainty, from the knowledge he has of the talents and dispositions of those friends and correspondents who are to assist him in this work: Nor can the authenticity of the information be doubted, because, where any mistake or error should happen, it would inevitably be corrected by some future observer into whose hand this work will fall.

He wishes, however, it may be universally understood, that it is not his desire that the communications of his foreign correspondents should be circumscribed to the subjects above hinted at. It could not be his intention to limit the excursions of genius and taste to such narrow bounds. He wishes these to be left to range at large through the wide bounds of nature. Here he pretends not to lead. The greater freedom that is allowed in literary disquisitions, the more he will be pleased: whatever be the subject, if the discussions can be comprised within a moderate compass, and do not give rise to endless and unsatisfactory disputes, they will be received with satisfaction; and no pains shall be spared to present them in the most advantageous manner to the public.

To prevent as much as possible all ambiguity, and to guard against mistakes it is requested that those who shall occasionally favour him with their corre-

Spence, will be particularly attentive to have the writing so distinct as that every letter may be known, especially with regard to names. Where objects of botany or any other branch of natural history are treated, it will be obliging also, where it will not be attended with too much trouble, to mark, along with the name that the writer chooses to adopt, the Latin name, according to the system of Linnæus, or any other well known system referred to, with such other synonyms as readily occur to the writer at the time. And where any uncommon substance is mentioned, or new name adopted, a short description or explanation of it, for once, by periphrasis, is requested. Where communications are to be sent by post, it is farther entreated, that they be written as close as may be, and in as small a band as is consistent with distinctness*; and that the paper be of such a size as that the whole, if possible, may be contained in one sheet undivided; for in Britain every slip of paper, however small, pays a separate postage; and that is in general so high, as nearly to preclude literary correspondence in this country.

An attention to economy, especially in regard to the conveyance of parcels, is very necessary in an undertaking of this nature; and the editor will be much obliged to any correspondent who will point out the least expensive mode of conveyance to or from his own particular situation. To every sea port town which carries on a considerable trade, parcels can be easily sent from hence; but the editor is much at a loss to know by what route they can be most easily conveyed from thence to inland places. It is requested that every individual, for himself, in the next letter with which he honours Dr. Anderson, will point out the easiest route to any sea port town, or to Paris; and mention, if he can, the expense of carriage of letters, and of packets, distinguishing particulars as accurately as possible. Parcels coming from the continent by sea, may be directed to C. Forster, No. 21. Poultry, London, if for that port, to the editor at Edinburgh, if for Leith, or the other persons specified below, as suits their convenience: From the Baltic, to Wood and Howden, **ELSINORE**. Orders from America may be addressed to Mr. Samuel Campbell, Bookseller New York; Robert Campbell, Philadelphia; or John Campbell, Wilmington, Virginia.

MERCANTILE HOUSES REFERRED TO ABOVE.

Venice, Robert Ritchie, Esq.
Leghorn, Birds & Orr.
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Barcelona, Gregories & Gill.
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* Our readers will take notice, that this refers chiefly to foreign correspondents—some papers have been received that are written in so small a character as to be scarcely legible; this is a great defect, which ought to be avoided.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 19. 1791.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

I most heartily wish success to the excellent plan you have formed of a new periodical publication; and if time permitted, I should be happy to send you some communications. Perhaps a few hasty thoughts on taxes (a very interesting subject at present,) which I wrote some time ago, may be acceptable: if so, they are at your service. It is one of the advantages of a miscellany, such as yours, that it admits of papers in a less finished stile than would be proper in a *set work*. Hence a man of business may communicate his thoughts to the public; and if the *matter* contain any thing useful, the *manner* will be excused. I am, &c.

Hints on Taxes.

The philosophy of man has generally been cultivated, either by *theologians*, who were ignorant of *body*; or by *physicians*, who were ignorant of *mind*. The ancients, more especially *Aristotle*, saw the necessity of joining the knowledge of both, in order more completely to comprehend human nature. But the phenomena

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of the material world were little known in their age; and they rather pointed out the way to their successors, than gave them an example of walking in it.

In modern times, the physician *Grew*, shewed in his *Cosmologia Sacra*, the advantages to be derived from uniting natural and moral knowledge; and he was followed by *Hartley*, whose *Observations on Man* will for ever be a model of the proper method of prosecuting such inquiries.

Amongst many natural causes which operate in the intellectual world, and affect the mind and manners of men, the nature of the *government* they live under is a very important one; and the *taxes* imposed by that government, come in for a large share of the general effect.

This is a view of taxation, that seems to have escaped the attention of politicians, although it merits much attention: For the influence of the public TAXES, both on the natural and moral constitution of the people, is very great. All have heard of the mischief that followed the reduction of the duties on *spirituous liquors*, which gave rise to Hogarth's print of *Gin Lane*. The augmentation of others has been equally prejudicial. I cannot now enter into particulars, though I have collected many facts relative to the subject. I proceed to a few other general remarks on the subject of taxation.

Taxes may injure the *health*, the *population*, the *industry*, the *knowledge*, or the *morals* of mankind; and such as produce any such consequences, are pernicious.

No tax should be imposed which tends to injure the *health* of the people. What are we to think, then, of taxes, that tempt them to shut out the *light* of the sun, and the *air* of heaven, both of them so essential to life and vigour? Can a statesman repay the people for such an imposition, by reducing the price of *tea*, a foreign weed, *useless* at best, since many of our native plants

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might supply its place; and not useles only, but it is to be feared in many cases *noxious*?

Houses may be taxed on their number, but not on their dimensions. The largest house, compared to the native activity of a man, is a *prison*. Every encouragement ought to be given to augment the size of places in which men spend so great a portion of their life.

No tax ought to be imposed that tends to discourage *population*. As matters stand at present in Britain, a man is punished in proportion as he is a good subject of the state. If he marries a healthy woman, he suffers for it; if he is healthy himself, it is at his peril. For why? If he should have half-a-dozen of children, the consequence will be, that he must pay six times over the tax on christenings: six times over the tax on leather for shoes; and six times over the tax on all the other articles needful for his children. Is it not enough that he pay six times over the accoucheur, the nurse, the apothecary, the shoemaker, the taylor, the butcher, the baker, &c. &c.? Is there no way of ordering this matter better?

The Romans acknowledged the *jus trium liberorum*, the right of him who had three children to be relieved from taxes; but modern policy, far inferior to the ancient in this respect, has not yet had leisure to attend to such considerations. Hence dreadful evils ensue—hence the unfortunate father surveys with sorrow his pregnant spouse—hence natural affection is overcome; and she, whom Nature appointed to be a mother, *precludes* her own title to this tender name. These are facts probably little attended to by men of rank and power; but they are too often seen by those, whose profession calls them to visit the inferior classes of society.

Whatever exemptions were made in favour of married men with large families, might fitly be repaid by an increase on bachelors after 25. Taxes, if moderate and judiciously chosen, are so far from checking

industry, that they stimulate and call it forth to greater exertions: and as great care should be taken in every wise government to render it as difficult as possible for people to live unemployed and idle, so every encouragement should be given to those who undertake any lawful occupation. This is a grand general maxim, which may be applied to a vast number of individuals. Hence all taxes should be avoided, which have an immediate effect to prevent *industry*, such as taxes on the importation of raw materials for manufactures, which cannot be so well raised at home. The common apology for such taxes is, that they are designed to encourage our own productions. But this is a narrow policy. No country produces all commodities equally well; and it is often much better to import an article from the country where it is naturally in perfection, than with vast labour, and much expence, produce a bad imitation of it at home. Foreign trade employs shipping, is a nursery for seamen, and opens a vent for our manufactures. We may encourage our own productions, by granting a bounty to those who raise them of the *same kind and goodness* as the foreign. But it ought to be limited to such conditions; for if they are raised of a *different kind or worse quality*, then they do not supply the place of the foreign articles, nor prevent the necessity of applying to strangers. Therefore, to grant any bounty in such cases, is merely to take money out of one hand and put it into another, or indeed worse. *Russian flax* is exempted from a tax: But why is one imposed on *Swedish iron*, since we cannot equal that people in producing this commodity of equal goodness and price? The nations of Europe may be compared to the inhabitants of a town, where each one attaches himself to a particular profession, and finds it his interest rather to employ his neighbour in other matters, than to do all for himself. A nation that should affect to supply itself with *every thing*, appears to be no wiser than a man, who being by profession a

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carpenter, should also choose to be his own butcher, and baker, and taylor, &c.; by way of saving expences. This would turn out a narrow plan of policy.

No tax should be imposed, which from its nature tends to discourage *literature*, and the improvement of the human mind. Small are the advances we can make in knowledge with our utmost efforts. Why then should we throw bars in our own way? All the taxes on *paper* are impolitic. The national assembly have proposed to abolish them in France. They only affect the people who ought not to be affected by them. The writer of an obscene novel feels them not; but to the man of science, whose book often hardly pays expences, they are a serious and severe burden. All duties on *foreign books* are a disgrace to the princes who suffer them to be imposed. How few are the foreign books that can possibly be imported into any kingdom, since so few can read them; and should we deny to these few who have taken the pains to learn foreign languages, who are mostly laborious, learned, and often poor men, the means of acquainting themselves with the knowledge and discoveries made by foreign writers; which discoveries we ourselves will soon and largely profit from. If a country has no good author of its own, the importation of foreign books should be encouraged by a *premium*.

Taxes should not be imposed, which tend to injure the morals of the people. All those that are easily evaded do so, as there is a continual temptation laid in the way of mankind, to endeavour to escape them: Taxes that are too trifling produce the same effect, as the stamp on gloves, which the buyer does not attend to, and the shopman either pockets, to defraud government, or his master. Taxes too heavy are oppressive, and occasion a combination among those concerned, not to pay them fully. Then the most unconscientious man has the best chance, as he will always go farthest lengths in evading the tax.

The whole of the *funding system*, as it is called, or the establishment of a public debt, of which only the interest is paid, and the capital remains for ever dormant,—whether it originated from a profligate borrowing of money by a luxurious and expensive nation, to serve improper purposes, or from the artful policy of ministers, to save their popularity, and carry on their measures, without the odium of imposing new and heavy taxes,—is to be censured, as a narrow and delusive plan. It is diminishing a *present evil* to entail it on *future generations*, and meanly shrinking from a burden Providence laid upon us, in order to shift it on the shoulders of our posterity. Every age ought to pay for its own wars, and then statesmen will be careful on what grounds they involve a people in war; every age ought to fight its own battles, to pay its own debts, to meet its own difficulties. We look up with gratitude to our heroic ancestors, who at any time encountered great dangers and difficulties, in defence of their liberties and their country; but how shall we admire them, if we find ourselves saddled with heavy burdens, to pay for their exertions? Instead of generous warriors, this idea reduces them to the level of hired mercenaries!

The *number* of taxes should be as small as possible, in order to diminish the number of the *tax gatherers*: For they are a class of men of no *direct* use in a state. Like the people in manufactories, employed to keep clean the wheels of machines, it would be better that one could prevent dirt from getting at the wheels, and then these men's labour might be directed in some better channel.

Lastly, Every tax, however judicious, is from particular circumstances oppressive to certain persons. No legislature can attend to half the exceptions that should be made. To reconcile *general taxation* then with justice, it would seem that there ought to be established a *board of exemption*, to which all persons claiming to be exempted, in part, or *in toto*, from the influ-

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ence of a tax, might apply. To that board let the father transmit evidence of the number of his children, and claim those privileges which a wise people ought to bestow on the fruitful parent. One of the first philosophers in Europe, who has enriched the age by his discoveries in nature, told me that he had been obliged to relinquish almost all correspondence with learned foreigners, because the expence of postage was too great for his small fortune. This is deplorable! A generous people ought to refund to such a man, a sum equivalent to his disbursements in the cause of science and discovery. *It is a debt due by a people.*

Critical Remarks on the Othello of Shakespear, continued from page 62.

SHAKESPEAR has adorned the hero of this tragedy with every virtue that can render human nature great and amiable; and he has brought him into such trying situations, as give full proof of both. His love for Desdemona is of the most refined and exalted kind; and his behaviour, upon the supposition of his false return, is an indication of his great spirit, and such as might be expected from his keen sense of honour and warlike character; though naturally susceptible of the tenderest passions, yet being engaged from his early youth in scenes that required the exercise of those of a higher nature, he has not learned

— Those soft parts of conversation

That Chamberers have.

— Rude (says he) am I in speech,

And little blest'd with the set phrase of peace.

His manners have nothing of that studied courtesy which is the consequence of polite conversation—a tincture of which is delicately spread over the behaviour of Lodovico and Gratiano; but all is the natural

effusion of gentleness and magnanimity. His generous and soaring mind, always occupied with ideas natural to itself, could not brook, according to his own expression, *to study all the qualities of human dealings*; the artifices of interest, and the meanness of servile attentions. To a man like Iago himself, the affected interest which he takes in the welfare of his master, profound as it was, must have been very suspicious; but to Othello it is the effect of *exceeding honesty*! His enlarged affections were used to diffuse happiness in a wide circle, to be pained with misery, and displeased with injustice, if within his view; but he did not consider the small proportion of mankind that was inspired by similar sentiments; and therefore the parade of Iago was in his eyes unbounded generosity.

With so much nature and dignity does he always act, that, even when distorted with angry passions, he appears amiable.

Emil. I would you had never seen him.

Des. So would not I; my love doth so approve him, That even his stubbornness, his checks and frowns, Have grace and favour in them.

A character of this kind commands respect; and in his actions we naturally interest ourselves.

Iago, who is the prime mover of the events of this tragedy, is a character of no simple kind; he possesses uncommon sagacity in judging of the actions of men, good and bad; he discerns the merit of Cassio to lie more in the theory than in the practice of war. Rodorigo he comprehended completely: the amiable nature of Desdemona he was not ignorant of: he often praises the free and noble nature of Othello; the beauty of Cassio's life he felt with much regret; and he is sensible of the intrinsic value of virtue, as well as its estimation among men; he knew well, that, without virtue, no solid or lasting reputation could be acquired; and, without doubt, he understood the force of Cassio's feeling reflections on this subject, though he makes an appearance

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of despising them. Iago, it must be observed, artfully assumes the character rather of strong, than of high and refined benevolence. In the second scene of the first act he says,

With the little godliness I have,
I did full hard forbear him.

A character which he knew would be more easily supported, which would render him less liable of being supposed acting from pride, and consequently create no envy; content for the present with the humble appellation of *honest creature*, he found sufficient amends in the prospect of being recompensed with double interest in the accomplishment of his plans.

In his first interview with Othello, Iago begins his deep schemes very successfully, by labouring, with bold and masterly cunning, to impress him with a strong sense of his fidelity and attachment to his interests; he represents himself as sustaining a difficult conflict between two of the best principles, regard to his master, and a fear of seeming to act with a malicious cruelty. He speaks like a person fired with anger that he cannot contain; he does not give a detail of Brabantio's proceedings like an unconcerned spectator, but in that confused and interrupted manner worthy of the truest passion; his reflections, which, according to calm reason, ought to come last, according to passion come first. The scene which occasioned his passion is over; he then revolves in his thoughts the nature of it; and, lastly, the part which he ought to have acted, takes possession of his mind. In this last state, he finds himself when he meets Othello, perplexed in deliberating whether he ought in conscience to do contrived murder. Having disburdened himself of this, the subject opens in his mind; he goes backward, and describes what were his sensations, in a very striking manner—

————— Nine or ten times

I thought to have jerked him under the ribs.

The fumes of passion are now supposed to be dissipating; and the cause of his anger, and reflections, he unfolds more clearly, but in the same enraged and animated strain.

Nay, but he prated,
And spoke such scurvy and provoking terms
Against your honour,
That with the little godliness I have,
I did full hard forbear him.

Having fully vented himself, he begins now coolly to urge some prudential arguments with regard to Othello's conduct in this critical affair.

————— But I pray, Sir,
Are you fast married? For, be sure of this,
That the Magnifico is much belov'd,
And hath in his effect a voice potential,
As double as the Duke's: he will divorce you,
Or put upon you what restraint or grievance
The law (with all his might to enforce it on)
Will give him cable.

Having managed his part in the succeeding transactions of this scene with the same kind of propriety, the busy rascal makes haste to act in a very different character with Rodorigo.

To be continued.

On the prevailing Rage for inventing new Names.

WITHOUT entering into the consideration of the first origin of words, it is sufficient for our purpose here to observe, that after certain sounds have been appropriated to denote certain ideas, it will ever afterwards happen, that when men find it necessary to invent new words for expressing new ideas as they arise, they will not employ mere arbitrary sounds for this purpose, but naturally choose to compound words in those way they can, by the help of those elements of speech already established. But as the compounding of words

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is often a troublesome process, even this also will be avoided where it can be easily done. If a word has been invented in one language to denote the idea, those who employ another language, and who have access to know that word, will naturally adopt it, instead of forming a new one for themselves. In this manner, words pass from one language into another in great numbers; so that it is impossible to find any civilized nation which has not in this manner borrowed a great deal from the languages of others who have preceded it, or with cotemporaries, with whom they keep up a continued intercourse.

In forming compound words, however, it must always happen, that the ideas which prevail at the time, will influence in the choice of the elements employed to form the words. These ideas may in time appear to have been false and ill founded; but the words, when once formed, will continue to be employed as *proper names*, without being influenced by the obvious original meaning of the elements of which they were composed. They may even in time come to express things directly incompatible with the idea entertained at the time the words were formed, without occasioning the smallest ambiguity or embarrassment to those who are acquainted with the use of the language in which these words occur; because, whenever the word is employed, it immediately excites the idea it was intended to denote, without necessarily indicating the compound idea that influenced in the choice of the simple elements of the words. These therefore are disregarded or not adverted to.

To give an example,—The Romans at an early period in their scientific knowledge, believed that the earth which we inhabit, consisted of a flat surface of great extent, which stretched out much farther from east to west, than from north to south. They therefore denoted these dimensions by the words long and broad. Any distance therefore, measured on the earth's

surface between east and west, was supposed to be in the direction length-wise or *longitudinal*: and any distance between south and north, was of course broadwise or *latitudinal*. Hence they formed the words *longitude* and *latitude*, to denote these particulars. From the Latins, all, or most of the languages in Europe have borrowed these two words: and although the original meaning of the elements of these words are well known when adverted to, and although it be as well known now that the earth is a compact spherical globe, and not a flat table of unequal dimensions, yet no inconvenience is felt from the use of these words, because, whenever they occur, they immediately suggest to the mind of the person who hears them, the idea of distance on the earth's surface, in the opposite directions already specified, and nothing else. We therefore find it convenient to use those words; and it would be evidently inconvenient and improper to alter the language by inventing other words, whose elements expressed our ideas, *at present*, concerning this subject, as perfectly as the original elements expressed the ideas of the Romans, because a time may come when a superior degree of knowledge might shew that this new formed word was equally improper as the old one that had been rejected; and thus the language would be rendered so fluctuating and variable, as never to be completely understood by any one who should have occasion to study it.

Innumerable words occur in every language, that have been thus formed, and have varied their meaning by time, so as when analyzed, to express very incongruous ideas; but when considered merely as simple signs, expressive of certain notions, are perfectly good and unexceptionable. Thus, *candlestick* is well known to denote any substance employed as a stand for supporting a candle: originally this was no doubt a small piece of *wood*, usually called a *stick*, employed for the purpose of supporting the candle; but now it is made of various kinds of metal, all of which, however, are called *sticks*;

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nor would the most fastidious critic find fault with the phrases *brass candlestick* or *silver candlestick*, though evidently absurd, if the meaning of the original elements of these compound words be adverted to; though the words themselves, as commonly used, do in fact convey as distinct ideas as any others in the language. If so, then, would it not be highly absurd and improper to change them for others?

It often happens that compound words of this kind come to express the most contradictory ideas, if the meaning of the original words were considered,—which, however, when viewed as a whole, without regard to these elements, are expressive and intelligible;—*White-head* is a common name, which has been evidently derived from the colour of the hair of the person to whom it was first appropriated,—yet having passed now as a common surname, no one ever thinks of adverting to the colour of the hair, when the name is mentioned,—nor would the smallest impropriety be perceptible in any one saying that William *Whitehead* had very fine *black hair*. *Bairns-father* is another surname not uncommon in one part of the country, which originally denoted that the person to whom it had been applied was the father of children. It is now, however, applied indiscriminately to females and to males,—to those who are fathers and mothers of children, and to those who never had children at all, without exciting any other idea than that it is the name of the particular persons to whom it is appropriated, and nothing else.

Midwife, and man-midwife are words of the same kind.—And many others might be added, which are in common and universal use; but these will so readily occur to every reader, that it is unnecessary to specify them.

In science, as well as arts, words of this kind are also common; and in those branches of science which are progressive, it must happen that a word which is invented to denote new ideas as they arise, can be con-

sidered as proper, but for a very short period of time. But when a word has been once employed to denote a certain object, and has been generally admitted by the *jus et norma loquendi* to denote that object, the same object ought certainly to continue in all future time to be denoted by the same word, without any change; although it should appear at a future period that the ideas which prevailed when that word was formed, and which are denoted by the elements of the word when analyzed, are extremely erroneous; for these words, like those above enumerated, will come in time to be considered merely as names of the particular objects they are intended to denote, and nothing else. Indeed, unless we can say that our knowledge of the object is complete, so as that our ideas of them can never afterwards change, what do we gain by such innovations? Nothing but perplexity and confusion. The words, which according to the knowledge of the day, expressed the properties of the object in the most complete and perfect manner, will perhaps be found in a few months, in consequence of some new discoveries, to be altogether erroneous. This new word must then of course be abandoned, and another new one formed in its stead, which, in its turn, must give place to another, and another still, till at length philosophers shall become like the builders of the tower of Babel, so much confused among this infinity of words, as to be altogether incapable of understanding each other, and be reduced to the necessity of abandoning the study of nature, merely from the impossibility of thus giving or receiving aid to or from each other.

Considered in this point of view, no literary enterprise of modern times seems so absurd, or is so strongly characteristic of the mental weakness and vanity of mankind, as the attempt which has been of late *seriously* made in France, by a set of men otherwise of great talents, and conspicuous eminence for scientific knowledge, to establish an entire new system of chemical no-

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menclature. Philosophical chemistry has been for some years past a principal object of the attention of men of letters, in consequence of some brilliant discoveries that have been made in that science. These discoveries, however, though great, are evidently but hitherto imperfect. We are exploring the way with great ardour, and every day brings to light new discoveries that were not known before, so as to throw additional light on the objects that have been before but imperfectly understood. The theories of last year, are this year overturned; and those which are at this moment deemed unexceptionable, will no doubt in their turn give place to others. Is this the time to invent a new system of nomenclature on philosophical principles? Nothing surely but the intoxication of system, and the bewitching enchantment of theorising, could have given birth to such a wild idea. When the ardour of enterprize is somewhat abated, the very men who are now keenest in promoting these innovations, will be among the first who will discover the instability of those foundations on which they have attempted to build, and will in all probability be the most active in pulling it down, and in endeavouring to obliterate these innovations from the annals of science. Let sensible men give way to this temporary delirium; when the fever is abated, every thing will assume its proper state, and ingenious men be permitted to prosecute these important pursuits in a calm, steady and effectual manner.

On Politeness.

EXCESSIVE and too frequent marks of respect and esteem only tire those to whom they are addressed, and on that account are the contrary of true politeness, whose only end is to please. It is a great art, to know how to vary these according to persons and circumstances. That which is only due respect to a superior, would be to an equal accounted over-strained complaisance or affectation.

Account of Mr. Ledyard, continued from page 19.

THE remarks upon man and things, of one who had seen so much of the world, must always be deemed precious. They are not the unmeaning daubing of a casual observer. Every word is expressive, and has a strong meaning, and suggest new ideas to every attentive reader. The following extracts therefore from his letters, will no doubt prove interesting to the public.

“ August 26th. This day I was introduced by Rofette (the Venetian consul, at that time *charge d' affaires* for the English consul at Cairo) to the Aga Mahomed, the confidential minister of Ismael, the most powerful of the four ruling beys: He gave me his hand to kiss, and with it the promise of letters, protection and support through Turkish Nubia, and also to some chiefs far inland. In a subsequent conversation, he told me I should see in my travels a people who had power to transmute themselves into the forms of different animals. He asked me what I thought of the affair? I did not like to render the ignorance, simplicity, and credulity of the Turk apparent. I told him that it formed a part of the character of all savages to be great Necromancers; but that I had never before heard of any so great as those he had done me the honour to describe; that it had rendered me the more anxious to be on my voyage, and if I passed among them, I would, in the letter I promised to write to him, give him a more particular account of them than he had hitherto had. He asked me how I could travel without the language of the people where I should pass? I told him with vocabularies: I might as well have read to him a page of Newton's Principia. He returned to his fables again. Is it not curious, that the Egyptians (for I speak of the natives of the country as well as of him when I make the observation) are still such dupes to

the art of forcery? Was it the same people who built the Pyramids?

“ I can't understand that the Turks have a better opinion of our mental powers than we have of theirs; but they say of us that we are *a people who carry our minds in our finger ends*: meaning that we put them in exercise constantly, and render them subservient to all manner of purposes, and with celerity, dispatch and ease do what we do.

“ I suspect the Copts to have been the origin of the negro race: The nose and lips correspond with those of the negro. The hair, whenever I can see it among the people here (the Copts) is curled: not close like the negroes, but like the mallattoes. I observe a greater variety of colour among the human species here, than in any other country, and a greater variety of feature, than in any other country not possessing a greater degree of civilization.

“ I have seen an Abyssinian woman, and a Bengat man; the colour is the same in both; so are their features and persons.

“ I have seen a small mummy: it has what I call wampum work on it. It appears as common here as among the Tartars. Tatewing is as prevalent among the Arabs of this place, as among the south-sea islanders. It is a little curious, that the women here are more generally than in any other part of the world tattooed on the chin, with perpendicular lines descending from the under lip to the chin, like the women on the north-west coast of America. It is also a custom here, to stain the nails red, like the Cohin Chinese and the northern Tartars. The mask or veil that the women here wear, resembles exactly that worn by the priests at Otahaite, and those seen at Sandwich islands.

“ I have not yet seen the Arabs make use of a tool like our axe or hatchet; but what they use for such purposes as our hatchet or axe, is in the form of an adze, and is a form we found most agreeable to the south-sea

islanders. I see no instance of a tool formed designedly for the use of the right or left hand particularly, as the cotogon is among the Yorkertick Tartars.

“ There is a remarkable affinity between the Russian and the Greek dress. The fillet round the temples of the Greek and Russian women, is a circumstance of dress that perhaps would strike nobody as it does me; and so of the wampum work too, which is also found among them both. They spin here with the distaff and spindle only, like the French peasantry and others in Europe; and the common Arab loom is upon our principle, though rude.

“ I saw to-day (Aug. 10.) an Arab woman white, like the white Indians in the South Sea islands, Isthmus of Darien, &c. These kind of people all look alike.

“ Among the Greek women here, I find the incidental Archangel head dress.

“ Their music is instrumental, consisting of a drum and pipe; both which resemble those two instruments in the south seas: the drum is exactly like the Otaheite drum; the pipe is made of cane, and consists of a long and short tube joined; the music resembles very much the bagpipe, and is pleasant. All their music is concluded, if not accompanied, by the clapping of hands. I think it singular, that the women here make a noise with their mouths like frogs, and that this frog music is always made at weddings, and I believe on all other occasions of merriment where there are women.

“ It is remarkable that the dogs here are of just the same species found among the Otaheitians.

“ It is also remarkable, that in one village I saw exactly the same machines used for diversion as in Russia. I forgot the Russian name for it. It is a large kind of wheel, on the extremities of which there are suspended seats, in which the people are whirled round over and under each other.

“ The women dress their hair behind exactly in the same manner in which the Calmuck Tartars dress theirs.

“ In the history of the kingdom of Benin in Guinea, the chiefs are called Aree Roece, or street kings. Among the islands in the south sea, Otaheite, &c. they call the chiefs Arees, and the great chiefs Aree le hoi, I think this curious; and so I do, that it is a custom of the Arabs to spread a blanket when they would invite any one to eat or rest with them. American Indians spread the beaver skins on such occasions.

“ It is singular, that the Arab language has no word for liberty, although it has for slaves.

“ The Arabs, like the new Zealanders, engage with a long strong spear.

“ The Mahometans are in Africa what the Russians are in Siberia, a trading, enterprising, superstitious, warlike set of vagabonds; and wherever they are set upon going, they will, and do go; but they neither can nor do make voyages merely commercial, or merely religious, across Africa; and where we do not find them in commerce, we find them not at all. They cannot (however vehemently pushed on by religion) afford to cross the continent without trading by the way.

RIGHTS of WOMEN.

From the St James's Chronicle.

—PSHAW, says I, Mr Baldwin—rights of a fiddlestick! rights of *men*, indeed! I should not have thought of the *be* creatures talking so much about their rights—while the *rights* of *women* lie neglected—This indeed would be a subject—were not, as my friend Mr Burke says, the “age of chivalry gone!”

Have not *we* RIGHTS, Mr Baldwin, rights indisputable, natural, abstract, and social, and civil, and municipal? are not “all women equal?” Have they not a *natural* right to the privilege of speech, and have they ever basely bartered that right? Have they not the *abstract* right of visiting from home when they please?

And what did they do when even *Monsters* were employed to deprive them of this right? Did they stay at home, mending stockings, darning gloves, making holes for sleeve-buttons, and quilting counterpanes?—No—Sir—they visited ten times more!

Have they not the *social* right of preference in all societies? Do they not take precedence of every thing in breeches, every proud he-creature that calls himself a lord of the Creation? Have they not the highest right of all—the right of governing their husbands? Who dare deny this? A right, Sir, for which they paid no small price; for, to obtain it, and to have leisure and time to exercise it, they gave up another right—the right of governing themselves!

Among their *civil* rights, are we not to reckon the right of scolding, crying, falling into fits, going to watering places, and running up bills? Shall the haughty aristocracy of men deny us these rights!

No—Mr. Baldwin—no—Perish the ignoble thought—Women, Sir, *have* rights—and the time will come when the answerers of Burke (I am told they are all *bachelors* or *old maids*) shall be ashamed of themselves—and view us with the gallant eyes of a Burke, “just rising above the horizon.”

But I beg pardon, Mr. Baldwin—I trouble you with this only because my brother *Sam* will not write on the subject—forsooth he says we have more rights than we know what to do with—Well—we are but like others of the liberty-men of this country who don't know when they are well off.

Your's, Mr. Baldwin,

JENNY SARCASM.

On Conversation.

A GREAT talent for conversation requires at least to be accompanied with a great degree of politeness. He who outshines others, owes to them a great deal of polite attention.

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Season for remembering the Poor.

STERN winter is come with his cold chilling breath,
And the verdure has drop'd from the trees ;
All nature seems touch'd with the finger of death,
And the streams are beginning to freeze.

When wanton young lads o'er the river can slide,
And Flora attends us no more ;
When in plenty you sit by a good fire-side,
Sure you ought to remember the POOR.

When the cold feather'd snow does in fleeces descend,
And whiten the prospects around ;
When the keen cutting winds from the north do attend,
Hard incrustating over the ground ;

When the poor harmless hare may be trac'd to the wood
By her footsteps indented in snow ;
When the lips and the fingers are starting with blood ;
When the marksmen a cock-shooting go ;

When the poor Robin red-breast approaches the cot ;
When the icicles hang at the door ;
When the bowl smokes with something reviving and hot ;
That's the time to remember the POOR.

When a thaw shall ensue, and the waters increase,
And the winds shall violent grow ;
When the fishes from prison obtain a release ;
When in danger the travellers go ;

When the meadows are hid by the proud swelling flood ;
When the bridges are useful no more ;
When in health you enjoy every thing that is good,
Can you grumble to think on the POOR.

Since death is depriv'd of its all killing sting,
And the grave is triumphant no more ;
Saints, Angels, and men, Hallelujahs should sing,
And " The RICH should remember the POOR ! "

*For the Bee.**The New-year's Morning in Edinburgh.*

Though, on account of his English readers, the Editor will be cautious of admitting many poems written in the Scottish dialect; yet, as the following little poem possesses some degree of merit, and is descriptive of manners that are perpetually changing, he hopes his readers in general will approve of its insertion. Notes are added to explain allusions to customs, which would be otherwise unknown to strangers.

THE bard wha sang o' hallow fair,
 The daft days an' Leith races *,
 Wha's cantie sangs dis kill our care
 In mony funny places,
 Forgat to sing the morning air,
 Whan lassies shaw their faces,
 Wi guid het pints † maist ilka where,
 Ye'll kep them gau'n in braces,
 Fu' soon that morn.

Hail hogmenai ‡, hail funny night,
 For daffin' an' for drinkin',
 For makin' a' thing right an' tight,
 For killin' care an' thinkin' ;

* Ferguson.

† *Het-pints.* Among the lower classes of the people in Scotland, it is customary for some person in each family to rise very early on new-year's morning, and prepare a kind of caudle, consisting of ale mixed with eggs beat up with sugar, and a little spirits, prepared hot, which is carried through every apartment in a sloop, (pot) containing a Scotch pint (two English quarts) and a cup of this is offered to each person when in bed. This beverage is technically called *het* (i. e. hot) *pints*.

‡ *Hogmenai*, the last night of the year. A great deal of gossiping and fun goes on that evening. It was formerly the custom in the country for small parties of young people to go about from house to house *disguised*, and act a kind of play. These were called *guisarts*. The custom is now wearing out.

‡ Short
 baked hard
 to all guests
 \$ It was
 to salute,
 met her in

For rinnin' through the street like drift ;
 For kiffin' an' for clappin' ;
 For clearin' up the mind an' sight,
 Wi a weel made het chapin,
 Fu' strang that morn.

By twal o'clock we tak the street,
 There reel about like mad
 While aft we get frae some we meet
 O' guid short bread † a dad.
 Then lassies lips like cherries sweet §,
 We maun that morning prie,
 Though for't we get a braw red cheek
 Unless we be fu' slee,
 To jink that morn.

Hech wase my heart, a barber lad
 Did measure the street fairly,
 An' roar'd an' rav'd like one stark mad,
 He haud fa'an til't ower early.
 A cellar upo' the high street,
 'Bout onie ravel bare,
 Gart the puir scraper tyne his feet,
 An' tumble down the stair,
 The creels that morn.

A wee drap drink is unco good
 As lang's we keep frae anger,
 It pits ane in a merry mood,
 An' keeps them out o' langer.
 But troth I'm flied that some daft chiel,
 To some wrang place will stammer,
 An' fair against' his will atweel
 H'll see the counsel chammer,
 For it next morn.

A D S E.

† *Short bread*, a kind of cake made of flour with butter and sugar baked hard. That and other sweet cakes are then distributed liberally to all guests in every family.

§ It was the universal custom in Scotland, till of late, for every male, to salute, by kissing, every female of his acquaintance, the first time he met her in the new year.

For the Bee.

PASTORAL SIMPLICITY.

(By the Rev. Mr. TYSSON.)

WHILST other nymphs make hapless swains
 Their victuals, pensive, hate
 My *Ella* those small tricks disdains,
 For Sylvie's happier fate
 Such relish to the rural meals,
 For touch and looks impart,
 A keenness ev'ry stomach feels,
 A fondness every heart.

Ella, my sweetly-sugar'd cream,
 Can sugar sweet a-new,
 The snowy curds from *Ella* seem
 To gain a snowier hue ;
 Help'd by her hands the enliv'ning cakes
 A double life convey ;
 And from her breath the butter takes
 A ——— what no tongue can say.

With care, ye gods, when *Ella* churns,
 The gath'ring sweets secure,
 Still be the print* her board adorns
 From all errata pure ;
 Then *Ella's* praise and *Sylvie's* bliss
 Shall my soft voice employ,
 In notes that like her print or kiss
 Shall please, yet never cloy.

* Figure of an heart.

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The following piece has often been printed; but its intrinsic merit is such as to entitle it to a place in every collection of this sort. Could a miscellany be formed; that consisted *entirely* of pieces of equal value, one would have little occasion to regret their not being what are usually called original. Perhaps the homeliness of its dress may displease some; but the same circumstance will recommend it to others. It may furnish a good subject for a dissertation, to ascertain, which of these two parties have the finest taste, or the foundest judgment.

Preliminary Address to the Pennsylvania Almanack, intituled Poor Richard's Almanack, for the year 1758, Printed at Philadelphia.

Said to be written by Doctor Franklin.

I HAVE heard, that nothing gives an author so great pleasure as to find his works respectfully quoted by other learned authors. This pleasure I have seldom enjoyed; for though I have been, if I may say it without vanity, an eminent author (of Almanacks) annually now a full quarter of a century, my brother-authors in the same way (for what reason I know not) have ever been very sparing in their applauses; and no other author has taken the least notice of me; so that, did not my writings produce me some solid pudding, the great deficiency of praise would have quite discouraged me.

I concluded, at length, that the people were the best judges of my merit, for they buy my works; and besides, in my rambles, where I am not personally known, I have frequently heard one or other of my adages repeated, with "As poor Richard says" at the end on't. This gave me some satisfaction; as it shewed not only that my instructions were regarded, but discovered likewise some respect for my authority: and I own, that, to encourage the practice of remembering and repeating those wise sentences, I have sometimes quoted myself with great gravity.

Judge then how much I have been gratified by an incident I am going to relate to you. I stopped my horse lately where a great number of people were collected at an auction

of merchants goods. The hour of sale not being come, they were conversing on the badness of the times; and one of the company called to a plain, clean, old man, with white locks, "Pray, father Abraham, what think you of the times? Won't these heavy taxes quite ruin the country? How shall we be ever able to pay them? What would you advise us to?" Father Abraham stood up, and replied,—"If you'd have my advice, I'll give it you in short: "For a word to the wise is enough; and many words won't fill a bushel," as poor Richard says." They joined in desiring him to speak his mind; and gathering round him, he proceeded as follows:

"Friends, (says he), and neighbours, the taxes are indeed very heavy; and if those laid on by the government were the only ones we had to pay, we might more easily discharge them; but we have many others, and much more grievous to some of us. We are taxed twice as much by our idleness, three times as much by our pride, and four times as much by our folly; and from these taxes the commissioners cannot ease or deliver us, by allowing an abatement. However, let us hearken to good advice, and something may be done for us; "God helps them that help themselves," as poor Richard says, in his Almanack.

It would be thought a hard government that should tax its people one tenth part of their time, to be employed in its service; but idleness taxes many of us much more, if we reckon all that is spent in absolute sloth or doing of nothing, with that which is spent in idle employments, or amusements that amount to nothing. Sloth, by bringing on diseases, absolutely shortens life. "Sloth, like rust, consumes faster than labour wears, while the key used is always bright," as poor Richard says. "But dost thou love life? then do not squander time, for that's the stuff life is made of," as poor Richard says. How much more than is necessary do we spend in sleep! forgetting that "the sleeping fox catches no poultry, and that there will be sleeping enough in the grave," as poor Richard says. "If time be of all things the most precious, wasting time must be (as poor Richard says) the greatest prodigality;" since, as he elsewhere tells, "Lost time is never found again; and what we call time enough, always proves little enough," Let us then up and be doing, and doing to the purpose; so by diligence

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shall we do more with less perplexity. "Sloth makes all things difficult, but industry all easy," as poor Richard says; and, "he that riseth late, must trot all day, and shall scarce overtake his business at night; while laziness travels so slowly, that poverty soon overtakes him," as we read in poor Richard; who adds, "Drive thy business; let not that drive thee;" and, "early to bed, and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise"

So what signifies wishing and hoping for better times? We make these times better if we bestir ourselves. "Industry need not wish," as poor Richard says; and, "He that lives upon hope, will die fasting." "There are no gains without pains; then help hands, for I have no lands; or if I have, they are smartly taxed;" and, (as poor Richard likewise observes), "He that hath a trade hath an estate; and he that hath a calling hath an office of profit and honour;" but then the trade must be worked at, and the calling well followed, or neither the estate nor the office will enable us to pay our taxes. If we are industrious, we shall never starve; for, as poor Richard says, "At the working-man's house hunger looks in, but dares not enter." Nor will the bailiff or the constable enter; for, "Industry pays debts, while despair increaseth them," says poor Richard. What though you have found no treasure, nor has any rich relation left you a legacy? "Diligence is the mother of good-luck," as poor Richard says; and, "God gives all things to industry; then plough deep while sluggards sleep, and you shall have corn to sell and to keep," says poor Dick. Work while it is called to-day; for you know not how much you may be hindered to-morrow; which makes poor Richard say, "One to-day is worth two to-morrows;" and farther, "Have you somewhat to do to-morrow, do it to-day." If you were a servant, would you not be ashamed that a good master should catch you idle: Are you then your own master, be ashamed to catch yourself idle," as poor Dick says. When there is so much to be done for yourself, your family, your country, and your gracious king, be up by peep of day; "let not the sun look down, and say, inglorious here he lies!" Handle your tools without mittens; remember, that "the cat in gloves catches no mice," as poor Richard says. It is true, there is much to be done, and perhaps you are weak-handed; but stick to it steadily, and you will see great effects; for, "constant

dropping wears away stones, and, by diligence and patience the mouse ate into the cable; and, little strokes fell great oaks," as poor Richard says in his Almanack, the year I cannot just now remember.

Methinks I hear some of you say, "must a man afford himself no leisure?"---I will tell thee, my friend, what poor Richard says; "Employ thy time well, if thou meanest to gain leisure; and since thou art not sure of a minute, throw not away an hour." Leisure is time for doing something useful; this leisure the diligent man will obtain, but the lazy man never; so that, as poor Richard says, "A life of leisure, and a life of laziness are two things." Do you imagine that sloth will afford you more comfort than labour? No: for, as poor Richard says, "Troubles spring from idleness, and grievous toil from needless ease; Many without labour would live by wits only; but they break for want of stock:" Where industry gives comfort, and plenty, and respect. "Fly pleasures, and they'll follow you; the diligent spinner has a large dist; and, now I have a sheep and a cow, every body bids me good morrow;" all which is well said by poor Richard.

But with our industry, we must likewise be steady, settled, and careful, and oversee our own affairs with our own eyes, and not trust too much to others; for, as poor Richard says,

"I never saw an oft-removed tree,

Nor yet an oft-removed family,

That throve so well as those that settled be."

And again, "Three removes is as bad as a fire;" and again, "Keep thy shop, and thy shop will keep thee;" and again, "If you would have your business done, go; if not, fend." And again,

"He that by the plough would thrive,

Himself must either hold or drive."

And again, "The eye of a master will do more work than both his hands;" and again, "Want of care does us more damage than want of knowledge;" and again, "Not to oversee workmen, is to leave them your purse open." Trusting too much to others care, is the ruin of many: for, as the Almanack says, "In the affairs of the world, men are saved not by faith, but by the want of it:" but a man's own care is profitable; for, saith poor Dick, "Learning is to the studi-

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ous, and riches to the careful, as well as power to the bold, and heaven to the virtuous." And farther, "If you would have a faithful servant, and one that you like, serve yourself." And again, he adviseth to circumspection and care, even in the smallest matters, because sometimes "A little neglect may breed great mischief;" adding, "For want of a nail the shoe was lost; For want of a shoe the horse was lost; and for want of a horse the rider was lost;" being overtaken and slain by the enemy; all for want of care about a horse-shoe nail.

So much for industry, my friends, and attention to one's own business; but to these we must add frugality, if we would make our industry more certainly successful. A man may, if he knows not how to save as he gets, "keep his nose all his life to the grindstone, and die not worth a groat at last." "A fat kitchen makes a lean will," as poor Richard says; and,

"Many estates are spent in the getting;

Since women for tea, forsook spinning and knitting,
And men for punch, forsook hewing and splitting."

"If you would be wealthy, (says he, in another almanack), think of saving, as well as of getting: The Indies have not made Spain rich, because her out-goes are greater than her incomes."

Away then, with your expensive follies, and you will not have much cause to complain of hard times, heavy taxes, and chargeable families; for, as poor Dick says,

"Women and wine, game and deceit,

Make the wealth small, and the want great."

And farther, "What maintains one vice, would bring up two children." You may think, perhaps, that a little tea, or a little punch now and then, diet a little more costly, cloaths a little finer, and a little entertainment now and then, can be no great matter; but remember what poor Richard says, "Many a little makes a meikle; and farther, "Beware of little expences; a small leak will sink a great ship;" and again, "Who dainties love, shall beggars prove; and moreover, "Fools make feasts, and wife men eat them."

To be continued.

 INTELLIGENCE *respecting* LITERATURE, &c.

Society for the Improvement of British Wool.

A SOCIETY has been lately instituted under the auspices of Sir John Sinclair, Bart. M. P. for the improvement of British wool. That intelligent and active senator, in the course of his investigations respecting the revenue, trade, finances, and resources of this country, having had occasion to observe that the wool of Britain, for many centuries, had been accounted the finest, and best for the manufacture of cloth, that was then to be had in Europe, and that it now is many degrees inferior to that of Spain, was at pains to trace the cause of this singular phenomenon. The result of his inquiries was, that this change could only be attributed to neglect; and that this neglect had probably arisen from some legislative regulations that took place soon after the accession of the family of Stuart to the throne of England. Hence he concluded, that by a proper degree of attention, the wool of this country might be brought to an equal degree of fineness at least to what it formerly possessed, which, if effected, must prove highly beneficial to the manufactures of this country. In one neglected corner of the kingdom (Shetland), he discovered the remains of this fine woolled breed of sheep nearly unadulterated; but it was in so great danger of being lost, by an admixture with other breeds, that his first attention was directed to the saving of it; and having proposed it to the Highland Society of Scotland, that patriotic body of men, with their usual liberality, made haste to second his intentions; a set of premiums have been offered by them for selecting the best of this breed of sheep, and obtaining a thorough knowledge of them, which will effectually preserve them till measures can be adopted for more fully ascertaining the value of their wool and other qualities.

But as the Highland Society have many other objects that claim their attention, and exhaust their funds, it was judged expedient to establish a distinct society, whose sole object should be that of improving the quality of British

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wool. This was no sooner proposed, than many noblemen and gentlemen of the first rank, made haste to step forward in so public a cause. The Town of Edinburgh, with an alacrity that does honour to the magistrates of that city, have contributed very liberally towards that end; and the Chambers of Commerce, and other corporate bodies, have expressed a desire to do the same; so that there seems to be little doubt but the funds of the society will be soon adequate to the purposes wanted.

Each member of this society, is to contribute one guinea a year, towards its funds, while he continues a member. The money to be at the disposal of a committee, chosen annually, by the society at large.

The objects of this society are, in the first place, to select the best breeds of sheep, that are still to be found in Britain, and to keep them apart from all others, till, by a set of accurate experiments, the actual value of the wool, and other qualities of the sheep, be fairly ascertained; and, in the next place, to obtain from foreign parts, some of the best breeds of sheep that can be found, to be kept also apart from all others, till the respective value of their wool, and the other qualities of these sheep, can be ascertained, and compared with others. Then, by publishing to the world the result of these trials, to point out the particular breeds, that appear to be best adapted for every particular purpose; and the peculiar circumstances of pasturage and climature, where the flocks may best be kept. Such are the extensive views of this patriotic society, which are so liberal and beneficent, that it cannot fail to obtain the good wishes of every well-disposed citizen.

In consequence of the attention, that has been already bestowed upon this subject, some specimens of the Shetland wool have been obtained, and shewn to manufacturers, who account it an article of inestimable value. In softness of texture it far exceeds the finest Spanish wool, and may in some respects be compared with the *laine de vigogne*. And it can be had of a much purer white than any other wool, so as to admit of being dyed of the most delicate light colours, which the yellowish tinge of other kinds of wool does not admit of. We shall probably have occasion, in some future numbers of this work, to give a further account of this article.

Nautical Affairs.

THOUGH Britain bestows more attention to trade than any other nation; and though it be the general opinion, that the safety of the state depends upon her navy alone; yet it seems not a little extraordinary, that most of the great improvements in ship-building have originated abroad. The best sailing vessels in the royal navy, have in general been French prizes. This, though it may admit of exceptions, cannot be upon the whole disputed.

Nor is Britain entirely inattentive to naval architecture; though it is no where scientifically taught, and those who devise improvements, have seldom an opportunity of bringing them into practice. What a pity it is, that no contrivance should be adopted, for concentrating the knowledge that different individuals attain in this art, into one common focus, if the expression may be admitted. Our endeavours shall not be wanting, to collect together, in the best way we can, the scattered hints that shall occur under this head, not doubting but the public will receive with favour, this humble attempt to awaken the attention to a subject of such great national importance.

Dr. Franklin, among the other enquiries that had engaged his attention, during a long life spent in the uninterrupted pursuit of useful improvements, did not let this escape his notice; and many useful hints, tending to perfect the art of navigation, and to meliorate the condition of seafaring people, occur in his work. In France, the art of constructing ships has long been a favourite study, and many improvements in that branch have originated with them. Among the last of the Frenchmen who have made any considerable improvements in this respect, is Mr. Le Roy, who has constructed a vessel well adapted to sail in rivers, where the depth of the water is inconsiderable, and that yet was capable of being navigated at sea with great ease. This he effected in a great measure by the particular mode of rigging, which gave the mariners much greater power over the vessel, than they could have when of the usual construction.

I do not hear that this improvement has in any case been adopted in Britain. But the advantages that would result from having a vessel of small draught of water; to sail with the same steadiness, and to lie equally near the wind, as one may do that is sharper built, are so obvious, that many persons have been desirous of falling upon some way to effect it. About London, this has been attempted by means of *lee boards* (a contrivance now so generally known, as not to require to be here particularly described), and not without effect. But these are subject to certain inconveniences that render the use of them in many cases ineligible.

Others have attempted to effect the purpose by building vessels with more than one keel; and this contrivance, when adopted upon proper principles, promises to be attended with the happiest effects. But hitherto this seems to have been scarcely adverted to. Time will be necessary to eradicate common notions of very old standing; before this can be effectually done.

Mr. W. Brodie, ship-master in Leith has lately adopted a contrivance for this purpose, that seems to be at the same time very simple, and extremely efficacious. Necessity, in this case, as in many others, was the mother of invention. He had a small, flat, ill built boat, which was so ill constructed as scarcely to admit of bearing a bit of sail on any occasion, and which was at the same time so heavy to be rowed, that he found great difficulty in using it for his ordinary occasions. In reflecting on the means that might be adopted for giving this useless coble such a hold of the water as to admit of his employing a sail when he found it necessary, it readily occurred that a greater depth of keel would have this tendency. But a greater depth of keel, though it would have been useful for this purpose, he easily foresaw, would make his boat be extremely inconvenient on many other occasions. To effect both purposes, he thought of adopting a moveable keel, which would admit of being let down or taken up at pleasure. This idea he immediately carried into effect, by fixing a bar of iron of the depth he wanted, along each side of the keel, moving upon hinges that admitted of being moved in one direction, but which could not be bent back in the opposite direction. Thus, by means of a small chain fixed to each end, these

moveable keels could be easily lifted up at pleasure; so that when he was entering into a harbour, or shoal water, he had only to lift up his keels, and the boat was as capable of being managed there, as if it had wanted them entirely; and when he went out to sea, where there was depth enough, by letting them down, the lee keel took a firm hold of the water, (while the other floated loose), and gave such a steadiness to all its movements, as can scarcely be conceived by those who have not experienced it.

This gentleman one day carried me out with him in this boat to try it. We made two experiments. At first, with a moderate breeze, when the moveable keels were kept up, the boat, when laid as near the wind as it could go, made an angle with the wake of about 30 degrees; but when the keels were let down, the same angle did not exceed five or six degrees, being nearly parallel with the course.

At another time, the wind was right a-head, a brisk breeze. When we began to beat up against it, a trading sloop was very near us, steering the same course with us. This sloop went through the water a good deal faster than we could: But in the course of two hours beating to windward, we found that the sloop was left behind two feet in three, though it is certain, that if our false keels had not been let down, we could scarcely in that situation have advanced one foot for her three.

It is unnecessary to point out to sea-faring men, the benefits that may be derived from this contrivance in certain circumstances, as these will be very obvious to them.

North-West Passage.

Notwithstanding the many fruitless attempts that have been made to discover a north-west passage into the south seas, it would seem that this important geographical question is not yet fully decided; for at a meeting of the academy of sciences, Paris, held on the 13th of November last, M. Bauche, first geographer to the king, read a curious memoir concerning the north-west passage. M. de Mendoza, an intelligent captain of a vessel in the service of Spain, charged with the care of former establishments favourable to the marine, has made a careful examination of the archives of several departments; there he has found the relation of a voyage made in the year 1598, by Lorenzo Herrera de Maldonada.

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There it appears, that at the entry into Davis's straits, north lat. 60 degrees, and 28 of longitude, counting from the first meridian, he turned to the west, leaving Hudson's bay on the south, and Baffin's bay on the north. Arrived at lat. 65 and 297, he went towards the north by the straits of Labrador, till he reached 76 and 278; and finding himself in the icy sea, he turned south-west to lat. 60 and 235, where he found a strait, which separates Asia from America, by which he entered into the south sea, which he called the straits of Anian. This passage ought to be, according to M. Bauche, between William's sound and Mount St. Elias; The Russians and Captain Cook have not observed it, because it is very narrow. But it is to be wished, that this important discovery should be verified, which has been overlooked for two centuries, in spite of the attempts that have been made on these coasts. M. Bauche calls this passage the straits of Ferrer.

Anecdote of the Emperor Charles V.

DON Martin Yanez de Barbuda, master of Alcantara, having about the year 1390, attempted with a small force to kill all the Moors in Spain, was, together with most of his forces, slain in battle; on his tomb is the following inscription: *Aqui yace aquel, in cuyo gran corazon nunca pavor tuvo entrada.* "Here lies he, into whose great heart fear never found entrance;" which gave occasion to the Emperor Charles V. to say, *Ese fidalgo jamas debio apagar alguna candelita con sus dedos.* "Then, that gentleman never has snuffed a candle* with his fingers."

* Candles were then used, in the time of Charles V.

There is a great deal of talk of a new constitution for the British people, but it is not yet known what it will be.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

INTRODUCTION.

A Curfory VIEW of the prefent POLITICAL STATE of EUROPE, continued from page 80.

Poland.

POLAND has for some time past enjoyed a state of tranquillity that has been very rarely experienced in that country. This arises entirely from the political state of the kingdoms around it. Since the elevation of prince Potemkin to power, the court of Russia has had a predelection for the operations of war, rather than the intrigues of the cabinet; so that the state of parties in foreign nations has been less diligently attended to than formerly. And the late Emperor was so little capable of adverting to the nice springs that operate on the human heart, as to lose every advantage in political finesse that his natural situation put in his power. Between the partisans of these two potentates, and those of the king of Prussia, there was a perpetual struggle for power, which produced troubles and national disputes that often disturbed the public tranquillity. For though the influence of the former preponderated, the Prussian party always had a considerable influence. Now, however, nothing of that kind takes place. The king of Prussia, eager to improve every circumstance to his own advantage, availed himself of the opportunity that the remissness of the two imperial courts presented to him; and his party, by consequence, soon obtained an undisputed superiority in the councils of the republic. Russia, which had for a long time had the chief ascendancy there, does not seem to have been aware of the tendency of her remissness till it was too late; and, trusting to the continuance of that ascendancy, she used freedoms with the government of Poland which she had been accustomed to take; but was soon convinced of her mistake. The republic asserted its independency in a language she had not been accustomed to receive from them, at a time

when she had it not in her power, either to enforce her pleasure by violent means, or to effect it by the machinations of her party within the realm. The king of Prussia, with a well appointed army, was at hand to vindicate their rights against the one in the field; and his party was in such full possession of power, as effectually to drown the voice of the other in the senate. This must have proved a mortifying circumstance to the Empress of Russia; and some attempts have been since made by her, in conjunction with the present Emperor, to obtain an influence in Poland. How far they will succeed, time only will discover. In the mean while, the new Emperor seems to feel that he has a very delicate part to act, between the Empress of Russia on the one hand, and the king of Prussia on the other; neither of whom, he sees, it is his interest at present to break with. Hitherto he has acted, in this trying situation, with such address, as gives a favourable presage of his political sagacity.

Some overtures have been made of late, for a change of the constitution of Poland; but whether these will be effected at all, or, if it be, whither that will be carried into effect by calmness or violence, cannot at present be foreseen. Nor is it possible, till the modifications they shall adopt be fully known, to form an idea of the tendency which this change will be naturally fitted to produce. Time alone can bring these things to light.

Turkey.

It is impossible for any liberal minded person, to cast an eye over the map of the Turkish dominions, and not to feel a kind of melancholy regret, at contemplating the sad changes that a barbarous and despotic government has produced on the finest countries in the world. Ruin and desolation mark the boundaries of her dominion. Those countries, which the classic page has rendered dear to every man of letters; and which were remarkable for the extent of their commerce, the judiciousness of their legislators, the wisdom of their philosophers, the elegance of their arts, and the power of their arms, are now, by the chilling influence of despotism, reduced to one undistinguished mass of rude barbarism and indolence. The cities in ruins, the harbours choaked up, the people dispirited, and their once fertile fields, converted into morasses or extensive deserts. It is impossible to contemplate these things, without feeling an

ardent wish, that the dread power, which produces these baneful effects, were totally annihilated: And the first sensation that occurs, when a war with Turkey is mentioned, is a wish, that the enemies of that illiterate people may finally prevail against them. But, when we think of the change that would probably take place, in consequence of one barbarous government being overturned by another; of the havoc that must ensue among the people, and of the numberless evils that would unavoidably result from a change of government, where ignorance universally prevails; it is impossible for the humane mind not to shrink back with horror from the frightful idea of it. On this principle, the philanthropist will look upon the combination, that was lately formed for overturning the Ottoman empire, with aversion, and commend the humanity, as well as the policy of those European powers, which endeavour to frustrate the aims of the aggressors. That such incidents may occur, as to humble and humanize that imperious court, and gradually to enlighten and civilize that barbarous people, is devoutly to be wished; and that this may be in some measure the consequence of their present humiliation, is highly probable. May the time soon arrive, when the principles of equity shall there exert their beneficent influence, in improving their government, and protecting the people, so as to bring back that country to its former power, and restore to it that influence among nations, which the fertility of the soil, and its singular advantages for trade, ought naturally to ensure!

From the beginning of the present contest between the Porte and the confederated imperial powers, the Turkish Divan seems to have been impressed with a serious sense of danger, and to have left no means of defence unattempted, that the state of knowledge they possess, and the nature of their government admitted. Their best generals were appointed to command; their instructions seem to have been peremptory to defend every thing as long as possible; their troops have been excited to ardour by the allurements of a religious enthusiasm, and they have fought with a desperation that has few examples in modern times. They have been beaten, it is true; but every victory has been purchased at such an expence of blood and treasure, as to leave the conquerors little room to boast of their success.

The PORT not only prepared *herself* for defence by every means within her own power, but also, imitating the policy of European states, she tried to weaken her enemies by exciting a powerful diversion from another quarter. The king of Sweden, allured by the temptation of a high subsidy from them, made that rapid irruption into Russian Finland, above described; and by cutting out employment for the Russian fleet in the Baltic, prevented the Empress from attempting any naval expedition of consequence into the Mediterranean, which, had it been permitted, would have distressed the Turk more than any other mode of attack. Fortunately for them, Russia had behaved to Britain with such a haughty and insidious policy, when she had it in her power to annoy it, as made that court look with a jealous eye on any measure that tended to aggrandize her; so that it is probable, had Sweden remained quiet, the Russian fleet, in consequence of the coolness of Britain, and the present state of the other maritime powers in Europe, would have found it a difficult matter to do any thing effectual in the Mediterranean. And now even when Sweden has withdrawn, there seems to be reason to expect that Russia will still experience other checks to retard the progress of her arms by sea, which will ultimately compel her to accede to terms of pacification little suited to the hope she entertained at the commencement of hostilities. Nothing can be more foolish than war in modern times: If success attends the exertions of any potentate, new enemies spring up in consequence of every victory, so as to compel the most powerful to accept of peace at last, on terms little proportioned to the vigour of her exertions.

For many centuries, the Turk was the terror of christendom: but these days are long past; and she will now, it is hoped, begin, from necessity, to court the alliance of other nations, and with that view will be obliged to think and to act in such a manner as to secure their favour. Should that happen, commercial freedom and security must first be granted to the subjects of these friendly powers; and this kind of security will be gradually extended to the subjects themselves of the state. A police capable of discovering and punishing the guilty, and of protecting the innocent, will be found necessary. The benefits that will by this

means accrue to the revenue, will come to be felt; and it will be perceived, that fiscal wealth results from the prosperity of the people, and the consequent increase of trade. The effects of a naval force will be perceived in regard to national defence; and this, it will be found, can only be kept up by encouraging private trading vessels. A more general intercourse with foreign nations must ensue; knowledge with this must increase; and that religious bigotry, which tends so strongly to excite enmity between different nations, subside; and thus, by degrees, without any violent revolution, an empire may be established at Constantinople, which shall be as friendly as that which has hitherto prevailed there has been hurtful to the industry of mankind. When that time shall arrive, what a glorious spectacle will this exhibit to admiring nations! The Phoenix rising from her ashes, in all the ardour of youth, with renovated lustre, one would think, had been devised as a type of that happy reformation.

A Catalogue of New Publications.

Thoughts on the present scheme of extensive taxation, London, Stockdale, 1s.

Letters to the Right Honourable Mr. Burke, occasioned by his reflections on the Revolutions in France, 2s. 6d.

A System of Anatomy and Physiology, with the comparative Anatomy of Animals, 3 vols, 8vo. Robinsons, 1l. 1s. boards.

Medical Commentaries for the year 1790, by Andrew Duncan, M. D. Robinsons, 8vo. 6s.

Questions to be resolved; or a New Method of exercising the attention of young people, Translated from the French of Madame de la Fite. Murray, 12mo. 2s. 6d.

A treatise on the Extrac-tion of the Cataract, by D. Augustus Gottlib Richter. Translated from the German. Murray, 8vo. 4s.

Sacred Biography; or the History of the Patriarchs, by Henry Hunter, D. D. vol. 5. Murray, 6s.

Remarks on the Advertisement of the Committee on the Abolition of the Slave Trade. Egerton, 8vo. 2s.

T H E B E E,

OR
LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 2. 1791.

Cursorry Hints and Anecdotes of the late Doctor WILLIAM CULLEN of Edinburgh, continued from page 121.

It would seem as if Doctor Cullen had considered the proper business of a preceptor, to be that of putting his pupils into a proper train of study, so as to enable them to prosecute these studies at a future period, and to carry them on much farther than the short time allowed for academical prelections would admit. He did not, therefore, so much strive to make those who attended his lectures, deeply versed in the particular details of objects, as to give them a general view of the whole subject; to shew what had been already attained respecting it; to point out what remained yet to be discovered; and to put them into a train of study, that should enable them, at a future period, to remove those difficulties that had hitherto obstructed our progress; and thus to advance of themselves to farther and farther degrees of perfection. If these were his views, nothing could be more happily adapted to it than the mode he invariably pursued. He first drew, with the striking touches of a master, a rapid and general outline of the subject, by which the whole figure was seen at once to start boldly from the canvas, distinct in all its

VOL. I.

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parts, and unmixed with any other object. He then began anew to retrace the picture, to touch up the lesser parts, and to finish the whole in as perfect a manner as the state of our knowledge at the time would permit. Where materials were wanting, the picture there continued to remain imperfect. The wants were thus rendered obvious; and the means of supplying these, were pointed out with the most careful discrimination. The student, whenever he looked back to the subject, perceived the defects; and his hopes being awakened, he felt an irresistible impulse to explore that hitherto untrodden path, which had been pointed out to him, and fill up the chasm which still remained. Thus were the active faculties of the mind most powerfully excited; and instead of labouring himself to supply deficiencies, that far exceeded the power of any one man to accomplish, he set thousands at work to fulfil the task, and put them into a train of going on with it, when he himself should be gone to that country "from whose dread bourne no traveller returns."

It was to these talents, and to this mode of applying them, that Doctor Cullen owed his celebrity as a professor; and it was in this manner that he has perhaps done more towards the advancement of science, than any other man of his time, though many individuals might perhaps be found, who were more deeply versed in the particular departments he taught than he himself was. Chemistry, which was before his time a most disgusting pursuit, was by him rendered a study so pleasing, so easy, and so attractive, that it is now prosecuted by numbers as an agreeable recreation, who but for the lights that were thrown upon it by Cullen and his pupils, would never have thought of engaging in it at all; though perhaps they never heard of Cullen's name, nor have at this time the most distant idea that they owe any obligations to him. The same thing may, no doubt, be said of the other branches of science he taught, though of these the writer cannot speak from his own

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knowledge. Such indeed were the extensive views he took of every subject, and so luminous was the arrangement he put them in, and so vigorous were the powers of his mind, that the writer has often regretted he was ever permitted to teach any one branch of science longer than two or three years; during which time he could have formed a school capable of going on without his aid. After this was accomplished, Cullen should have been appointed to teach another branch, and another still, till he had gone round the whole circle of the sciences. This idea will no doubt to many appear absurd; but to those who have had opportunities of hearing him incidentally in conversation touch upon subjects, on which it could scarcely be thought his other avocations would have allowed him to spend a thought, will not be surpris'd at this idea. No one will suppose that either Logic or Mathematics would be studies that could have much attracted his notice; yet the writer of this has incidentally heard Doctor Cullen, in the course of not many minutes conversation, throw out such ideas on both these subjects, as plainly shewed, that had he been required to give lectures upon them, he could have done it in a manner that would have been equally pleasing and astonishing nearly, as on chemistry, or any other subject he ever taught; and as a professor of natural philosophy, it is perhaps impossible to form an idea of the ardour he would have excited, or the innumerable exertions that would have been made in consequence of it, to perfect this great and most useful branch of science.

To draw a just character of Doctor Cullen, would require talents much greater than the writer of these remarks can claim, and a degree of knowledge he does not possess: He therefore declines the task.—The following traits, communicated by a friend, appear to him so just, that he begs leave here to transcribe them. They were written by a man who knew the Doctor well, in his public as well as his private capacity.

“ There are three things which certainly distinguish-
 “ ed Cullen in a very eminent manner as a professor.

“ The energy of his mind, by which he viewed
 “ every subject with ardour, and combined it imme-
 “ diately with the whole of his knowledge.

“ The scientific arrangements which he gave to his
 “ subject, by which there was a *lucidus ordo* to the
 “ dullest scholar. He was the first person in this coun-
 “ try who made chemistry cease to be a chaos.

“ A wonderful art of interesting the students in
 “ every thing which he taught, and of raising an emu-
 “ lative enthusiasm among them.”

Let it not, however, be imagined, because of these just eulogiums, that the writer of this article wishes to represent Doctor Cullen as a perfect character, utterly devoid of faults: Far from it. To say that he never deviated into error, would not only be absurd, but it would be to contradict, in direct terms, the description that has been given, of the peculiar bent of his talents, and of his peculiar disposition of mind. It is impossible that men of such a lively imagination as he was, whatever be the stretch of their talents, should not at times lose sight of lesser objects, when contemplating those of great importance. The distinguishing characteristics of men of great talents, have ever been rather great beauties than an exemption from faults. The works of Shakespear abound with defects that writers of a mediocrity of talents never could have been guilty of—and so it was perhaps with Cullen. It was, however, a peculiar excellence, resulting from the mode of analysis that Cullen daily adopted in his search after truth, that his pupils thus became habituated to such a strict method of reasoning, and such a careful discrimination of circumstances, that they were enabled easily to perceive the casual errors even of their preceptor himself; and no sooner did these occur to himself, (which was often the case,) or were pointed out by others, than he instantly not only relinquished them,

but exposed to view the circumstances which had misled him, that his pupils might be put upon their guard against similar deceptions in future. It is little minds alone, who are incapable of acknowledging, and cheerfully correcting an error. Cullen felt he had no need of such puny aids to support his character. Truth was in all cases the object of his research. In quest of this, though he never wished to degrade another, he respected no name so much as to prevent his candid strictures when he did perceive them wrong. If even a *Boerhaave*, whose great talents Doctor Cullen much admired, could not escape reprehension where he had erred; so neither could a *Cullen* himself escape correction, where any kind of mistake could be made apparent to Doctor Cullen.

The above remarks apply to Doctor Cullen *when in his prime*. But for some years before his death, his friends perceived a sensible decline of that ardour and energy of mind, which so strongly characterised him at a former period. Strangers, who had never seen him before, could not be sensible of this change; nor did any marked decline in him strike them; for his natural vivacity still was such as might pass in general as the unabated vigour of one in prime of life. Yet then, though his vigour of body and mind were greater than others of his own age, it should never be forgot that the vigour of old age is but feeble, and the utmost energy of senility bears no resemblance to that gigantic ardour which characterises the man of genius in the prime of life. Cullen to the last was great; but how different from what he had been, those alone can tell who had an opportunity of knowing him in both situations, and who had at the same time not an opportunity of perceiving the change imperceptibly advance upon him, during the lapse of a continued intercourse. Let not those, therefore, who knew him only in the decline of life, pretend to judge of the accuracy of these sketches. It is to those who knew him at the distance of twenty

or thirty years before his death, that the writer begs leave to appeal for the justness of the picture he has drawn. Many of these are still alive: To them he cheerfully submits what he has said, in nothing doubting but that they will be ready to acknowledge, that friendship has in no case encroached on the province of truth.

Fortunate the man of genius may be deemed to be, who dies while he is yet in the vigour of life: Men have been accustomed to behold with admiration his rapid advances, and they anticipate in idea the progress he would have made; they forget, that, though like the growing tide, nothing seemed at the beginning capable of withstanding its power, yet the time approaches when its vigour shall gradually abate, when the feeblest object—a grain of sand itself—shall be sufficient to withstand its force; and when at last it shall shrink back into itself, incapable of any thing but a retrograde progress. Happy is the man of genius who dies in his youth: He is then the admiration of the great; and little minds shall never dare, even in imagination, to think they could comprehend the extent of his powers!

Doctor Cullen's external appearance, though striking and not unpleasing, was not elegant. His countenance was expressive, and his eye in particular remarkably lively, and at times wonderfully expressive. In his person, he was tall and thin, stooping very much about the shoulders. When he walked, he had a contemplative look, and did not seem much to regard the objects around him.

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To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

Though you have pointed out many important benefits that may be derived from periodical performances, yet there is one which has always appeared to me of the greatest consequences, that you have neither fully developed in your prospectus, nor in the essay you gave on this subject in the first number of your work. I now shall endeavour to supply that defect; and if you think the following observations deserving a place in your repository, they are much at your service.

Farther remarks on the utility of Periodical Performances.

AN acquaintance of mine used to say, "that all boys ought to be taught to draw, were it only to accustom them to observe with accuracy and discernment the objects that came in their way. Natural objects certainly appear in a very different light to a painter, from what they do to an ordinary person. The one, little accustomed to discriminate particulars, views them slightly as they pass in a rapid and uninteresting succession. The other marks them with precision, distinguishes beauties from defects, and is able to recollect the particulars with great accuracy, long after every trace of them is effaced from the mind of the other.

I think this remark might with great justice be extended to other objects. In particular, I, on my part, would recommend to every person who intends to prosecute a course of literature, early to habituate themselves to the art of writing and literary composition, were it with no other view than to enable them to profit by what they should read and hear in the course of

their studies. The man who has never attempted to reduce his own ideas to writing, seldom observes facts or circumstances with the degree of accuracy that is necessary for utility. His notions of things are rude and indigested. Successive ideas present themselves to his imagination for a moment, and are displaced by others, which, in their turn, give way to a following set, no one of which has been examined with accuracy, or their tendency distinctly ascertained. To the man, however, who has been accustomed to *write*, this is not the case. When a thought occurs to *him*, he has been in the habit of pursuing it, till he has been enabled to mark its tendency and consequences; and in this manner he deduces conclusions that are not only clear and definite, but for the most part are just and true also. In consequence of this process, his mind acquires a steadiness and vigour that it never otherwise could have possessed; and he in time attains a distinctness of perception, and a faculty of discrimination, that gives him a decided superiority above other men of equal talents, who have not been at the same pains to improve them. A man who prosecutes his studies by means of reading alone, or academical lectures, may be compared to one who derives his knowledge of men from observations made upon them, from a window, as they pass along the street before him. He sees their general figure, it is true, and can recollect that such or such persons he has seen before; but his knowledge is confined merely to these superficials; whereas one who has been in the habit of writing as well as reading, may be compared to that man who acquires his knowledge of others, not only from seeing them, but from mixing in their company, and conversing with them frequently, in a cordial and familiar manner.

In this point of view, no species of publications deserves a higher degree of praise, than those periodical performances, which serve as a general receptacle for

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miscellaneous essays collected from all quarters, and communicated to the people at large. By this means, a single detached thought that occurs to any one individual, however unconnected he may be with others, may be rendered, without trouble or effort to him, a matter of general investigation, if it conveys any nice idea that gives rise to additional observations, which, but for this circumstance, would never have had an existence. These observations, when nearly examined, give rise to doubts, which excite a spirit of investigation and research. In prosecuting these inquiries, new facts are discovered, which lead to conclusions, sometimes of the highest importance. Knowledge is thus drawn from a thousand sources, which, but for this encouragement, would have been for ever unobserved. A new creation may be said to be made; for mental objects are thus called into existence, that but for this circumstance would never have been brought to light; and it often happens that a man thus discovers, to his great surprise, that he himself possesses powers which he never so much as once suspected, so as to be compelled to cry out in extacy, with the celebrated Corregio, "ed io anche son pittore;" and I also am a painter.

Nor are the beneficial effects of such performances confined to the writers of such essays alone. The readers of such performances, by following the train of thoughts that occur in the essays, acquire in their turn a habit of attention, and a disposition to observe, that they never without it would have possessed. By being accustomed to perceive arguments refuted, which appeared to them at first entirely conclusive, they imperceptibly acquire a habit of suspending their judgment, till the matter shall be fully investigated; they doubt, compare, and weigh arguments with care; and thus gradually acquire that nicety of observation, and caution in forming conclusions, which constitutes the essence of sound judgment.

The foregoing observations apply in some measure to essay writing of every kind; but they are chiefly applicable to those essays that are published in succession at short intervals of time, like that which you propose; and where they are not confined to a particular class of writers, but where full liberty is given for every individual to become a writer when he feels a propensity to it, without any farther limitation than good manners and becoming politeness requires. By means of such a publication, to pursue your own simile, men may be said to be introduced to a literary society, on the most liberal plan, in which they may not only hear and observe, but may also become active members of it. They may there converse with freedom, on the footing of unbounded equality; but they are at the same time compelled to act with propriety, and to think with justness; because any deviation from this plan will immediately receive the correction it requires. What travelling therefore, and a general acquaintance with mankind, is to man in his private capacity, writing in a periodical work, is to literary persons. It is only by mixing with society, on a footing of equality, that man can learn to rub off those rude inattentions to others, which self love so naturally produces in every individual, when confined to solitude; and to acquire that suavity of manner, and attention to others, which constitutes the highest pleasure of social life, that is now denominated *urbanity*. In like manner, it is only when literary men mix with others in a periodical publication, where liberty is permitted to every one to do what he thinks proper, on a footing of perfect equality, that they can properly feel their own weight, and be compelled to relinquish those ungracious self-sufficient tones, which the fancied superiority that every man is disposed to ascribe to himself, before he has experienced the powers of others, so naturally inspires; and to give that becoming modesty in reasoning, which constitutes the highest polish of a literary character. It

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has been remarked, that clergymen, who have confined their literary efforts to discourses delivered from the pulpit, are more apt to assume that dictatorial air, and dogmatic self sufficiency of manner, than other classes of literary men. Nor can any thing be more natural: Such pulpit discourses, from the reverence due to the place where delivered, are never criticised: The pastor therefore, has no opportunity of being ever convinced of the weakness or the futility of the reasoning. He of course concludes that his arguments are strong and unanswerable; and delivers them with the tone and manner that such an idea will naturally inspire. It is perhaps to this circumstance we may ascribe the asperity of manner that so long prevailed among mankind with respect to theological controversies and literary disputes managed by divines. Fortunately it has happened that periodical publications have now become so common in Britain, as to have afforded young divines more frequent opportunities of trying their powers fairly, than formerly. The consequence has been, that gentleness of manner, and liberality of sentiment, in disputed subjects, begin to prevail even among men of this class. In those foreign countries where such periodical performances are rare, the same rudeness and illiberality is still observed to prevail in literary disputes; and we shall in general find that the progress of nations in knowledge, but more especially their advancement in literary politeness of manner, will keep pace with the number of periodical publications allowed to circulate, and the freedom of discussion that is tolerated in such publications, when under proper restrictions. As I doubt not, Sir, from the general character you bear, that your work will be conducted on the most liberal principles. I most sincerely, from these and other considerations, wish you a continuance of health and spirits to complete your plan, and that share of public support which may enable you to go forward in your enterprise with vigour and alacrity.

MEDICUS.

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On Prejudices affecting the Truth of History.

AMONG an ignorant people, human actions are never fairly appreciated: The delicate operations of the mind are not sufficiently adverted to; and a precipitant judgment is formed of the motives for every action, that is in most cases erroneous. Hence it happens, that men of great talents, when they appear among such a people, are either represented as monsters of wickedness, or adored as angels; and, those who record the transactions of their life, will allow no share of good to those they condemn, nor the smallest imputation of wrong, to those whom they have taken delight to honour.

Among a civilized people, however, the case is much the reverse: Those who have adverted to the constitution of the human mind, are sufficiently aware, that the best are not exempted from the frailties and errors of human nature, and that the most wicked, are never so thoroughly debased, as not to have something about them that would deserve applause—while among the the ordinary run of mankind, virtues and frailties are so equally balanced, as to make it often difficult to say, which of them preponderate.

Historians however, who give an account of past transactions, find it a difficult matter to delineate justly the character of persons, whose actions have been so much misrepresented by their cotemporaries. To weigh the whole with attention, and to form a just judgment of the character of any person, from the contradictory accounts of persons, who are in every respect equally worthy of credit, requires an attention, and a painful research, that many wish to avoid. Hence it is usual for the historian of modern times, in characterising ancient personages to follow with great

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exactness, the outlines that have been left to him, by the annalist he copies from,—and thus the monstrous picture is perpetuated.

The present age, however, is distinguished from all those that have preceded it, by more frequent attempts to get the better of this delusion than formerly.—Several persons of great talents, have stepped forward in defence of injured merit, and in some cases have proved far more successful than was expected. The champions of Mary of Scotland, have gone far to do away the slanderous reproaches, with which she has been too long loaded,—and an attempt to apologize even for Richard the Third, has not been without its effects.

But among all the conspicuous characters in the ancient story of Britain, Thomas Becket has had fewer favourers than any other:—Hume and Lyttleton have loaded him with blame without the smallest scruple,—nor has any one till the present time, ventured to speak one word in his unpopular cause. The character of him we now present to our readers, is very different from that they have been accustomed to read,—and whether it be just or not, it has an undisputable right to the claim of being well written; on which account, as well as the new ideas it suggests, we think to do our readers a pleasure by laying it before them.

Character of Becket, by the Reverend Mr. Berington.

“ Thus, in the 53d year of his age, died Thomas a Becket, Archbishop of Canterbury, and Primate of England. Without incurring the imputation of a vain singularity, may I say, that the character of this man has never been fairly appreciated? When the Catholic draws the portrait, all his virtues are emblazoned, and his blemishes are lost in the glare of light. They view him as a saint; and unfortunately, so imposing has that character been rendered, that the essential stains of mortality are not allowed to rest upon it. Since the recent date of the reformation, it should seem, that the moral

order of things has been inverted. Some virtues lost their name; and what had been religious, exemplary, and perfect above the reach of unassisted nature, ceased to be so. The Protestant then seized the pencil, and, viewing Becket, drew a portrait, on which were seen no lines of former beauty. On both sides is much partial judgment. The ancient historians, I know, who lie before me, wrote with too warm an impression. The glare of miracles, they thought, was flashing round them; and the praises of Rome and of Europe echoed in their ears. It is an *apothefis* which they celebrate. But because this is too much, can we sit down with too little, and say that we are just?

“With some enthusiasm on my mind, I confess, I have described the conduct of Becket. Every where I saw him great as other men, and on some occasions I saw him greater. Real excellence there may be; but it is, by comparing only, that we judge. By his side, the contemporary men of the day, the greatest the æra could produce in church or state, lose all their splendor. Alexander * is an irresolute and timid politician: The prelates of England basely deserting a cause, which their own consciences held sacred, are courtly sycophants, and excite contempt: The sacred college of cardinals, bribed by gold, forget their dignity, and bartering away the privileges of the Roman see, publicly post up their venality, and become the shame of Christendom: Henry, the lord of many people, whom Europe then admired, and whom posterity has called the greatest of English kings, through the quarrel which himself provoked, is wayward, vindictive, timorous, and deceptive, never shewing one exertion which became a king, and ever indulging a train of affections, which would have disgraced his lowest vassal: Becket, from the beginning, is firm, dauntless, composed, and manly; like a deep and majestic river, he proceeds even in his course, hardly ruffled by rocks of opposition, and true to the level he had taken.

* The Pope.

“His endowments from nature were great ; and he had given to them such cultivation, as the state of the times permitted. It would have been well, perhaps, had he never seen Bologna, and imbibed from its masters those maxims of church domination, which, though the age held them sacred, were to him the occasion of an unfortunate controversy, and to others brought much affliction. Early in life, he was engaged in business, which made him an able negociator ; and the favour of his prince, which soon followed, raised him to uncommon greatness. But the unbounded confidence he enjoyed, was all used to ennoble the source from which it flowed. He did not enrich himself, his family, or his retainers. All was Henry's. His influence he employed to gain him friends, and to spread his interest ; and when he displayed a munificence more than royal, it was his master's fame he looked to. The love of pleasure, which, in a dissipated court, can make the stoutest virtue tremble, passed over his senses, as a gentle gale. There was a sternness in his character, which would not bend to affections that enervate ; and it is remarkable, that, when his enemies were most numerous and malevolent, they never charged him with a single vice. His ruling passions, were the passions of a great mind, such as, when circumstances favour, lead men to the achievements of patriots and of heroes ; and had providence given Becket to his country but a few years later, we should have seen him, opposing with main fortitude the wild pretensions of Rome, and at the head of barons, wresting *Magna Charta* from the tyrant son of the Henry. On some occasions, I think he was too acrid in his expressions, and too unyielding in his conduct ; but when we weigh his provocations, and the incessant stress of low opposition, wonder we cannot, and we may easily forgive. His private virtues were amiable. They endeared him to Henry, who loved him with a brother's love ; nor were they soured, it seems, by adverse fortune. They made him many friends ; and John of

Salisbury, his secretary and companion, then describes him best, when he checks his impetuosity, and chides his too caustic humour; and does not give offence.

“In a word, he had blemishes, and he had many virtues: His cause which to us wears few marks of christian truth, to him was sacred, and he defended it sincerely; but if many catholics have praised him immoderately, why shall protestants be unjust? True it is,

Men’s evil manners live in brass; their virtues
We write in water.”

*Critical Remarks on the Othello of Shakespear, concluded
from page 145.*

IT has been observed of Shakespear, that he has not often exhibited the delicacy of female character; and this has been sufficiently apologized for, from the uncivilized age in which he lived; and women never appearing upon the stage in his time, might have made him less studious in this department of the drama. Indeed, when we consider his strength of mind, his imagination, which delighted in whatever was bold and daring, we would almost think it impossible that he could enter into all the softness and refinement of love: but in spite of all these disadvantages, he has shewn, that in whatever view he choosed to behold human nature, he would perform it superior to any other. For no where in the writings of Shakespear, or any where else, have we found the female character drawn with so much tenderness and beauty as in that of Desdemona. The gentleness with which she behaves to all with whom she converses, the purity, the modesty, the warmth of her love, her resignation in the deepest distress, together with her personal accomplishments, attract our highest regard: but that which chiefly distinguishes her, is that exquisite sensibility of imagination, which interested her so much in the dangers of Othello’s youthful adventures, a passion natural enough indeed, though it is not every one

who is capable of experiencing it. Othello, as we have seen, was naturally of an heroic and amiable disposition; but when by his bold undertakings he is exposed to imminent dangers, he would then shine in his brightest colours; all his magnanimity, and all his address, are brought to view; at that moment, all the generous affections of the soul would be drawn towards him; admiration of his virtues, wishes for his success, and solicitude for his safety. And when the best feelings of the heart are thus lavished on a certain object, it is no wonder it should settle into fixed love and esteem.

Such was the sublimated passion of Desdemona, inspired solely by internal beauty. The person of Othello had every thing to cool desire, possessing not only the black complexion, and the swarthy features of the Africans; he was also declined, as he says, into the vale of years: but his mind was every thing to Desdemona; it supplied the place of youth by its ardour, and of every personal accomplishment by its strength, its elevation, and its softness. Where, in all the annals of love, do we find so pure and so disinterested a passion, supported with so much dignity and nature; she loved him *for the dangers he had passed*; upon this fleeting and incorporeal idea, did she rest her affections, upon abstract feelings and qualities of the mind, which must require in her all that warmth of imagination, and liveliness of conception, which distinguish the finest genius.

The character of this exquisite lady, is always consistently supported. Her behaviour towards Cassio, shews, in a particular manner, her liberal and benevolent heart; and her conversation with Emilia, about the heinousness of infidelity, is a striking picture of innocent purity. It is artfully introduced, and adds much to the pathos of the tragedy. The circumstances of ordering her wedding-sheets to be put on her bed, and the melancholy song of a willow, are well imagined, and awaken the mind to expect some dreadful revolution.

Indeed throughout the whole scene before her death, an awful solemnity reigns; the mind of Desdemona seems to be in a most agitated condition; she starts an observation about Lodovico, and immediately falls into her gloomy thoughts, paying no attention to the answer of Emilia, though connected with an anecdote that would have at another time raised her curiosity. This absence of mind shews beyond the power of language her afflicted and tortured state: but what gives a finishing stroke to the terror of this midnight scene, is the rustling of the wind, which the affrighted imagination of Desdemona supposes to be one knocking at the door. This circumstance, which would have been overlooked as trifling by an inferior writer, has a most sublime effect in the hands of Shakespear; and till the fatal catastrophe, the same horribly interesting sensations are kept up. Othello enters her bed-chamber with a sword and candle, in that perturbation and distraction of mind, which marked his behaviour, since the supposed discovery of her guilt; remains of tenderness, still struggling with revenge in his bosom; and a conversation is protracted; during which the mind is arrested in a state of the most dreadful suspense that can well be imagined.

Had Othello been actuated by cruelty alone in this action; had he, to gratify a savage nature, put Desdemona to death, the scene would have been shocking, and we would have turned from it with aversion. But instigated as he is by the noble principles of honour and justice, and weighing at the same time the reluctance with which he performs it, and the great sacrifice which he makes to his finest feelings; it on these accounts produces those mournfully pleasing sensations, which to attain is the highest praise of the tragic poet.

In the final unravelling of the plot, there is often great difficulty; it is the grand point to which the author aims in the course of successive scenes; and upon the proper execution of it depends much of the merit of the work. Here Shakespear has not fallen off. The

same high tone of passion is preserved. Upon the discovery of Desdemona's innocence, and the intrigues of Iago, all the characters act a very consistent and natural part. Othello's distraction is painted in an inimitable manner. Unwilling to believe that he had acted upon false grounds, and confounded with contrary evidence, he knows not where to betake himself. After uttering a few incoherent speeches, which shew in the strongest light a mind rent with grief and remorse, he gradually recovers himself; and resuming, as much as possible, his natural composure and firmness, he looks around him a little, and deliberately views his wretched situation; but finding no peace for him on earth, he terminates his existence.

Iago also stands forth in the group, a just monument of his own crimes. Seeing the proof too plain against him, he can brave it out no longer. He sees no prospect of escape from any quarter; his own arts are now of no avail, and he knows that he deserves no pity; he gives up all for lost, and resolves upon a state of dumb desperation, most expressive of the horror of his mind. In this state, we have the satisfaction to see him dragged to deserved punishment.

It might now be expected that we should proceed to the ungrateful task of pointing out what a critic would blame in this tragedy. I have already observed, that it is perhaps the most sublime and finished of Shakespear's compositions; yet were I to point out all its redundancies, puns, conceits, and other faults, which are commonly taken notice of in this author, I might fill some pages: Such a detail, however, would be trivial and impertinent. No person who can relish its beauties will be much offended with any thing of this kind in the course of perusing Othello. Its excellencies are so bold and so striking as to make the blemishes almost wholly vanish in the midst of their splendor. In a rude age, it is indeed even the mark of a rich and luxuriant

mind, to abound in faults, in the same manner that a strong and fertile soil produces most weeds—

What are the lays of artful Addison,

Coldly correct, to Shakespear's warblings wild.

It is with much regret, however, we must observe, that after Shakespear had supported, with uniform propriety, one of the most difficult characters Genius ever attempted, he should at last fall off, and put a trifling conceit in the mouth of a dying man.

Oth. I kissed thee e'er I killed thee—no way but this, Killing myself to die upon a kiss.

It might also be objected to the contrivance of the plot, that Iago had not sufficient motives for the perpetration of so many horrid crimes; and this the sagacity of Shakespear has foreseen, and with much address obviated. In the course of our observations, we have already noticed, that he does not suppose Iago, in his first setting out, resolutely to plan the destruction of Desdemona and Cassio. The objects he had in view were, to get possession of the wealth of Roderigo, and to be preferred in the place of Cassio; but seeing matters beginning to be embroiled around him, the firm and undaunted Iago will not stop short, whatever should be the consequence. By thus viewing his conduct, it will appear natural and probable. He wishes (as human nature ever must) to view himself even for a moment in the light of an honest man—

And what's he then that says I play the villain, &c.

Act. 2. sc. xiv.

But the principal fault which we observe in this performance, is a want of consistency in supporting the upright and disinterested character of *Æmilia*. We can easily suppose, in the first place, that she might procure Desdemona's napkin for her husband, without seeming to concur with him, or even suspect his schemes: But when afterwards, in the tenth scene of the third act, she sees the improper use to which this napkin is applied, and the great distress which the loss of it occa-

sioned to Desdemona, without so much as wishing to explain the misunderstanding, she is no more the open and virtuous Æmilia, but a coadjutor with her dark and unfeeling husband. This is a remarkable violation of every appearance of probability, when we contrast it with her noble and spirited conduct afterwards. We are surprised to find a slip of so much magnitude from the clear and piercing judgment of Shakespear, especially when we consider, that it could have been very easily remedied, by removing her during this interview.

W. N.

Anecdote of Mr. Whitfield.

ABOUT thirty years ago, the famous Mr. George Whitfield used annually to visit this metropolis, and by his popular mode of preaching allured great multitudes, especially of the female sex, to attend his sermons. The great object of his discourses was to rouse them to acts of beneficence; and as he had instituted a charitable seminary at Georgia in Carolina, he was strenuous in his exertions to induce his audience to be liberal in giving alms for the support of the helpless persons he had there collected together. Among his constant hearers was one Mrs. the wife of a brewer, in a small line of business, in the Grassmarket of Edinburgh, who had some difficulty to provide funds for carrying on his affairs without embarrassment. He had no time to attend the daily harangues of this ghostly orator; nor was he much pleased with the time his wife spent on these occasions, and far less with the demands she sometimes made upon him for money to be given for charitable purposes. This diversity of opinion between the man and wife sometimes produced family discord; and while the lady believed the Divine was little less than an angel from Heaven, the husband considered him as no better than a thief, or a pick-pocket, who, under false pretexes, induced simple people

to throw away, upon others, the means that were necessary for the subsistence of their families; nor was he, when heated in the contest, and chagrined at times from the want of money, at all scrupulous, in expressing, without reserve, the opinion he entertained of this supposed saint. The wife, who was of a warm disposition, though not destitute of sense at bottom, was much irritated at these reflections, and thinking they proceeded entirely from the worldly mindedness of her husband, felt a strong inclination to indulge her own propensity to benevolence by every means that should fall in her way. To get money from her husband avowedly for this purpose, she knew was impossible; but she resolved to take it when she could find an opportunity for that purpose. While she was in this frame of mind, her husband, one morning while he was writing at his desk, was suddenly called away, and, intending to return directly, he did not close his desk. His wife thought this too favourable an opportunity to be missed; and opening the shuttle where she knew the money was kept, she found about 25 guineas, which the husband had provided to pay for some barley he had lately bought. From this she took out ten pieces, and left every thing else as before; nor did the husband, on his return, take any notice of it.

She was now very anxious to get this money properly disposed of; and with that view dressed herself in great haste; and having wrapped the pieces in a bit of paper, she took them in her hand to go out; but as she passed a mirror, she observed something about her head-dress that required to be adjusted, and putting the money on a bureau beneath the mirror, she spent a little time in making the necessary adjustments; and recollecting she had omitted to give some directions before she went out, she stepped hastily into the kitchen for that purpose, without taking up the money. Just at this nick of time, the husband came into the room, and seeing something on the top of the bureau, he took it

up to examine it ; and, seeing what it was, he immediately conjectured what was the truth. Without saying a word, however, he took out the gold, and put an equal number of halfpence in their stead, leaving the paper to appearance as he found it, and went out again. The wife having heard her husband go out of the room, was in great fear that he had discovered her treasure, and returned with great anxiety to search for it ; but seeing it happily just as she had left it, she hastily snatched it up, without looking at it, and went directly to the lodgings of Mr. Whitfield to dispose of it.

When she arrived, she found him at home—and a happy woman was she ! Having introduced herself, by telling him how much she had been benefited by his pious instructions, &c. which he returned with a ready politeness ; she expressed her regret that she had it not in her power to be as liberal to his poor orphans as she could wish ; but she hoped he would accept in good part the mite she could afford to offer to him on their account ; and with many professions of charitable dispositions, and thanks for the happiness she had derived from attending his discourses, she put the money into his hands, and took her leave. Mr. Whitfield, in the mean time, putting the money into his pocket without looking at it, made proper acknowledgments to her, and waited on her to the door.

He was no sooner, however, alone, than he took it out to examine the contents, and finding it only copper—and comparing the sum with the appearance of the person who gave it, he instantly imagined it must have been given with intention to affront him ; and with this prepossession on his mind, he hastily opened the door, and called the lady back, who had not as yet got to the bottom of the stair. This summons she instantly obeyed. On her return, Mr. Whitfield, assuming a grave tone and stern manner, told her, that he did not expect she could have had the presumption to offer to affront him ; and, holding out the halfpence, asked

her what she could mean by offering him such a paultry compliment as that. The lady, who was very certain she had put good gold into the paper, and recollecting that she had often heard him called a cheat and an impostor, immediately concluded that he himself had put the halfpence in place of the gold, and made use of that pretext to extort more from her; and fell upon him most bloodily, telling him, she had often heard him called a swindler and a rascal, but till now she had never believed it. She was certain she had given him ten red guineas out of her hands, and now he pretended he had got only as many halfpence; nor did she leave him till she had given him a very full complement of abuse. She then went home in a great hurry; and had a much better opinion of her husband's discernment and sagacity ever afterwards. He kept his secret; and till her dying day, she made a good wife to him; nor ever afterwards went after field-preachers of any sort. A.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

YOUR ingenious correspondent's observations on the Flowers of the Forest, go far to prove that it is not of as old a date as has been generally supposed. But what he has suggested, has not produced full conviction on my mind.

The first dawnings of the Reformation in Scotland were in the end of the 15th century. In the beginning of the 16th, we know for certain there were many preachings in churches, private houses, the streets, fields, and sea-shore. Is there any thing incredible in supposing, that then, as at all times, people resorted to them from various motives: Some from mere curiosity; and that the youth of both sexes might occasionally improve these seasons for the purposes of love?

As to the language, it may have undergone changes, from transcribers and publishers bringing it nearer the orthography and diction of their own times. This, indeed, does not apply to the rhyming words; there the sound at least cannot be easily changed. Thus, *away* occurs four times, always rhyming *day*, which fixes its sound. I confess I should have supposed *awa*, nearer the dialect of the 16th century. Perhaps it may help to account for this, to suppose that in the southern parts of Scotland, where this poem may have been composed, from their intercourse with England, there might be more of the English dialect amongst them, than in other parts of Scotland.

These hints are offered with diffidence. It is not pretended that they give an answer to your correspondent's observations—this was not intended, as I wish not to make your useful miscellany the vehicle of controversy. All that is aimed at, is to shew the possibility of this poem being composed soon after the battle of Flodden.

I agree with your correspondent, that in the present case it is a matter of little consequence when it was composed. The poem possesses intrinsic merit, and will be admired on that account, though its author and the time of its composition should remain unknown.

Upon perusing it, some observations occurred to me, which, if you should think them worthy a place in your miscellany, are at your service. They were made, you will see, under the idea of its being composed soon after the battle, which idea the author has not yet seen reason entirely to abandon. But even on the supposition of its modern composition, they may still be applicable; because the author evidently personates one living at that time. And in this view, there is this additional to be considered; the art of the poet in removing himself from his own times; entering so much into ancient

manners, as to give you what we suppose a just description of their feelings on that melancholy event. I am, &c.

TRANSFORTHANUS.

The observations in our next.

Advice to the Bee.

Mistress Bee, when you hum, whether prose or soft lyrics,

Whether cynical satires, or puff'd panegyrics,
Pitch nor high, nor too low—Still avoid in your tones,
The ill-nature of wasps, and the dullness of drones.

ARISTAEUS.

A Sonnet.

SEE, o'er the water's far extended plain,
Yon vessel comes with all her canvas spread ;
Beats on the waves, and, rising, falls again :
Still passing on, she slowly moves ahead.

So man is toss'd upon a sea of cares ;
Now rais'd to honour, wealth, and short-lived fame ;
Now sunk in misery's vale with fullen fears ;
Still passing to the land from which he came.

Time hasteth on with drowfy wings, while sad ;
Just so yon ship, when adverse gales arise :
But when the hour of pleasure is survey'd,
As darting sun-beams, the seducer flies.
Ah that I warn'd might be from this sad truth ;
Nor split on pleasure's rocks, and wreck my youth.

Q. D. C.

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Song.

How blest the man, while circling years
 Their numbers still increase,
 Who, far from Grandeur's tumult, dwells
 With Innocence and Peace :
 Whose days, no envious angry strifes—
 Whose nights, no troubles fill ;
 But smoothly rolls the tide of life
 'Mid comforts growing still.

In vain to him, Ambition strives,
 And Av'rice hoards in vain ;
 In vain the sons of Pleasure seek
 That pleasure to obtain.
 His mind alone, with freedom blest,
 From baneful passion's sway,
 Can taste the joys those passions seek,
 But seeking, drive away.

To him, sweet health and competence,
 Alternate toil and ease—
 A cheerful friend, and peaceful home,
 Where all those comforts please,
 Are all he asks of earthly bliss,
 And Change but threats in vain—
 He views the future without dread,
 Nor views the past with pain—

While each around the social board
 Now feels the joys we sing ;
 Let mirth and glee—and friendship too,
 Their joyous tribute bring,
 To raise the song, and make it last,
 While circling years increase—
 " How blest the man who, cheerful, dwells
 " With Innocence and Peace."

Sir Edward, a Story.

SIR Edward F—, to whom I had the pleasure of being introduced at Florence, was a character much beyond that which distinguishes the generality of English travellers of fortune. His story was known to some of his countrymen who then resided in Italy; from one of whom, who could now and then talk of something besides pictures and operas, I had a particular recital of it.

He had been first abroad at an early period of life, soon after the death of his father had left him master of a very large estate, which he had the good fortune to inherit, and all the inclination natural to youth to enjoy. Though always sumptuous, however, and sometimes profuse, he was observed never to be ridiculous in his expences; and though he was now and then talked of as a man of pleasure and dissipation, he always left behind him more instances of beneficence than of irregularity. For that respect and esteem in which his character, amidst all his little errors, was generally held, he was supposed a good deal indebted to the society of a gentleman who had been his companion at the university, and now attended him rather as a friend than a tutor. This gentleman was unfortunately seized at Marseilles with a lingering disorder, for which he was under the necessity of taking a sea-voyage, leaving Sir Edward to prosecute the remaining part of his intended tour alone.

Descending into one of the vallies of Piedmont, where, notwithstanding the ruggedness of the road, Sir Edward, with a prejudice natural to his country, preferred the conveyance of an English hunter to that of an Italian mule, his horse unluckily made a false step, and fell with his rider to the ground, from which Sir Edward was lifted by his servants, with scarce any signs of life. They conveyed him on a litter to the nearest house, which happened to be the dwelling of a peasant, rather above the common rank, at whose door some of his neighbours were assembled at a scene of rural merriment, when the train of Sir Edward brought up their master, in the condition I have described. The com-

passion natural to his situation was excited in all; but the owner of the mansion, whose name was Venoni, was particularly moved with it. He applied himself immediately to the care of the stranger, and with the assistance of his daughter, who had left the dance she was engaged in, with great marks of agitation, soon restored Sir Edward to strength and life. Venoni possessed some little skill in surgery, and his daughter produced a book of receipts in medicine. Sir Edward, after being blooded, was put to bed, and attended with every possible care by his host and family. A considerable degree of fever was the consequence of his accident; but, after some days it abated, and in little more than a week, he was able to join in the society of Venoni and his daughter.

He could not help expressing some surprise at the appearance of refinement in the conversation of the latter, much beyond what her situation seemed likely to confer. Her father accounted for it. She had received her education in the house of a lady who happened to pass through the valley, and to take shelter in Venoni's cottage (for his house was but a better sort of cottage) the night of her birth. "When her mother died," said he, "the Signora, whose name at her desire we had given the child, took her home to her own house; there she was taught many things, of which there is no need here; yet she is not so proud of her learning as to wish to leave her father in his old age; and I hope soon to have her settled near me for life."

But Sir Edward had now an opportunity of knowing Louisa better than from the description of her father. Music and painting, in both of which arts she was a tolerable proficient, Sir Edward had studied with success. Louisa felt a sort of pleasure from her drawings, which they had never given her before, when they were praised by Sir Edward; and the family concerts of Venoni were very different from what they had formerly been, when once his guest was so far recovered as to be able to join in them. The flute of Venoni excelled all the other music of the valley; his daughter's lute was much beyond it; Sir Edward's violin was finer than either: but his conversation with Louisa—it was that of a superior order of beings!—Science,

taste, sentiment!—It was long since Louisa had heard these sounds. Amidst the ignorance of the valley, it was luxury to hear them: from Sir Edward, who was one of the most engaging figures I ever saw, they were doubly delightful. In his countenance there was always an expression, animated and interesting; his sickness had overcome somewhat of the first, but greatly added to the power of the latter.

Louisa's was not less captivating—and Sir Edward had not seen it so long without emotion. During his illness, he thought this emotion but gratitude; and when it first grew warmer, he checked it, from the thought of her situation, and of the debt he owed her: but the struggle was too ineffectual to overcome, and of consequence increased his passion. There was but one way in which the pride of Sir Edward allowed of its being gratified. He sometimes thought of this as a base and unworthy one; but he was the fool of words which he had often despised, the slave of manners he often condemned. He at last compromised matters with himself; he resolved, if he could, to think no more of Louisa; at any rate, to think no more of the ties of gratitude or the restraints of virtue.

Louisa, who trusted to both, now communicated to Sir Edward an important secret. It was at the close of a piece of music which they had been playing in the absence of her father. She took up her lute, and touched a little wild melancholy air, which she had composed to the memory of her mother. "That," said she, nobody ever heard except my father; I play it sometimes when I am alone, and in low spirits. I don't know how I came to think of it now; yet I have reason to be sad." Sir Edward pressed to know the cause; after some hesitation she told it all. Her father had fixed on the son of a neighbour, rich in possessions, but rude in manners, for her husband. Against this match she had always protested, as strongly as a sense of duty, and the mildness of her nature would allow; but Venoni was obstinately bent on the match, and she was wretched on the thoughts of it.—"To marry where one cannot love,—to marry such a man, Sir Edward!"—It was an opportunity beyond his power of resistance. Sir Edward pressed her hand, said it would be profanation to think of such a mar-

riage; praised her beauty; extolled her virtues; and concluded by swearing that he adored her. She heard him with unsuspecting pleasure; which her blushes could ill conceal. Sir Edward improved the favourable moment, talked of the ardency of his passion, the insignificancy of ceremonies and forms, the inefficacy of legal engagements, the eternal duration of those dictated by love; and, in fine, urged her going off with him, to crown both their days with happiness. Louisa started at that proposal. She would have reproached him; but her heart was not made for it: she could only weep.

They were interrupted by the arrival of her father with his intended son-in-law. He was just such a man as Louisa had represented him; coarse, vulgar, and ignorant. But Venoni, though much above their neighbour in every thing but riches, looked on him as poorer men often look on the wealthy, and discovered none of his imperfections. He took his daughter aside, told her he had brought her future husband, and that he intended they should be married in a week at farthest.

Next morning Louisa was indisposed, and kept her chamber. Sir Edward was now perfectly recovered. He was engaged to go out with Venoni; but, before his departure, he took up his violin, and touched a few plaintive notes on it. They were heard by Louisa.

In the evening, she wandered forth to indulge her sorrows alone. She had reached a sequestered spot, where some poplars, formed a thicket on the banks of a little stream that watered the valley. A nightingale was perched on one of them, and had already begun its accustomed song. Louisa sat down on a withered stump, leaning her cheek upon her hand. After a little while, the bird was scared from its perch, and flitted from the thicket. Louisa rose from the ground, and burst into tears. She turned, and beheld Sir Edward. His countenance had much of its former languor: and, when he took her hand, he cast on the earth a melancholy look, and seemed unable to speak his feelings. "Are you not well, Sir Edward?" said Louisa, with a voice faint and broken. "I am ill indeed," said he, "but my illness is of the mind. Louisa cannot cure me of that. I am

wretched; but I deserve to be so. I have broken every law of hospitality, and every obligation of gratitude. I have dared to wish for happiness, and to speak what I wished, though it wounded the heart of my dearest benefactress—but I will make a severe expiation. This moment I leave you: Louisa; I go to be wretched, but you may be happy, happy in your duty to a father; happy it may be, in the arms of a husband, whom the possession of such a wife may teach refinement and sensibility. I go to my native country, to hurry through scenes of irksome business, or tasteless amusement, that I may, if possible, procure a sort of half oblivion of that happiness which I have left behind; a listless endurance of that life which I once dreamed might be made delightful with Louisa!"

Tears were the only answer she could give. Sir Edward's servants appeared, with a carriage, ready for his departure. He took from his pocket two pictures; one he had drawn of Louisa, he fastened round his neck, and kissing it with rapture, he hid it in his bosom; the other he held out in a hesitating manner. This, said he, if Louisa would accept of it, may sometimes put her in mind of him who once offended, who can never cease to adore her. She may look on it, perhaps, after the original is no more, when this heart shall have forgot to love, and ceased to be wretched."

Louisa was at last overcome. Her face was first pale as death; then suddenly it was crossed with a crimson blush. Oh! Sir Edward, said she, what—what would you have me do?—He eagerly seized her hand, and led her, reluctant, to the carriage. They entered it; and, driving off with furious speed, were soon out of sight of those hills which pastured the flocks of the unfortunate Venoni.

To be continued.

Anecdote of Zink.

WHEN Zink was in the greatest practice, he was in a very bad state of health; and being well respected by a number of the most celebrated physicians, had their assistance and advice. All of them pronounced that he was in a decline; but about the method of cure, they were not unanimous.

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Some prescribed one drug, and some another; and one of them recommended breast-milk. The drugs he swallowed; but the breast-milk he did not much relish the thought of. Finding himself grow rather worse than better; and being told that air and exercise was the best remedy for his complaint, he tasked himself to walk through the Park, and up Constitution Hill, every morning before breakfast. This did not relieve him; but from habit rather than hope, he still continued his perambulations. One summer morning, a handsome young woman, very meanly clad, with a child about six weeks old in her arms, asked his charity. He gave her some pence, and asked her how she came into her present distressed situation. Her history was short: She had been a servant; she became partial to a footman in the same house, and married him; they were both turned away; the man had no other resource but to enlist: he became a soldier; was sent abroad: she had never heard from him since; had been delivered of the child now at her breast, for whose support and her own she should beg till her infant was a few months older, when she should try to get some more reputable employment.—“ Her frankness,” said Zink, “ pleased me;—her face pleased me;—her complexion pleased me;—I gave her my direction; she came to me; I took her infant into my house; I did bring myself to take her milk; it recovered me; I made inquiry after her husband, and found he was killed in the first engagement he was in, at the pillaging a village in Germany. I married her; and a better wife no man ever had.”

With this woman he lived near twenty years. The soldier's child he educated for the army, and promised to get him a commission when he was twenty-one; but the boy died at fourteen.

By Monsieur Zink she had two children, each of them were well provided for; and one of them was a very few years since alive, and well situated in a northern province.

LUDOVICO DOLCE.

*Intelligence respecting Literature, &c.
Africa.*

THE good effects of patriotic associations, have been so strongly felt in Europe itself, that the inhabitants of Europe begin to introduce them into all those regions, where they establish themselves. This affords a happy presage of growing improvements, and is a blessed effect of that social spirit of freedom, which makes man consider himself, not as an insolated being, incapable of any efforts, beyond the power of his own arm, but as a part only, of a great body, whose power is irresistible, when all its exertions can be directed towards one point only.

The island of Saint Helena, is an insolated rock, far detached from all land, rising boldly from the sea, about 1200 miles west from the coast of Africa.—It seemed at its first discovery, a barren rock, incapable of producing any thing that might afford food to man;—but being situated in the tract of ships, bound to or from the East Indies, it was thought expedient, to settle some people upon it, and try if any fresh provisions could be there reared, to accommodate ships with, on their long voyages.—For many years after it was settled, little could be depended on from thence, but water, and a few goats, that browsed on the pointed cliffs of that rocky island;—but by degrees, it began to be cultivated in small patches, and it now yields more abundant returns.

Still the vegetable productions of that rock are but few.—Some gentlemen, however, who have been stationed there by government, and other settlers, having taken a careful survey of the whole, observed, that by attention, skill and care, the produce of that island might be greatly augmented.—To promote the improvement of that sort, a number of gentlemen in the island, with governor Brooks at their head, resolved in the year 1788, to form themselves into a patriotic society, for promoting the improvement of that island, each member agreeing to contribute a stipulated sum annually, to be applied for the purpose of importing the seeds or plants of such productions, as promised to prosper in the island, and be useful to the inhabitants; and to give premium for exciting the industry, and awakening the attention of the common people, to those important objects.

No sooner was the society instituted, than they cast their eyes on Dr. Anderson of Madras, as a person on whose good offices they could depend, in forwarding any plan, that promised to render the lot of any part of the human race more agreeable than it had been. The president accordingly wrote to him, acquainting him with the nature of the institution, and requesting his aid in procuring for them, seeds or plants of any vegetable production, that he judged proper for their island. The following is the answer Dr. Anderson returned to this letter; with a copy of which, the editor of this work has been lately favoured. The information it contains, may be of use to the inhabitants of other warm regions, and therefore it deserves to be made public, that the example may help to stimulate others, to pursue a similar plan of conduct.

“ *To Robert Brooks, Esq. Governor, and the rest of the Governors and Members of the St. Helena Planters Society.*

GENTLEMEN,

“ I have been favoured with your letter and plan, which must afford general satisfaction, from the very laudable objects of its views.

“ There can be no doubt, but the whole may be executed, from the variety that appears in the temperature of your atmosphere.

“ At present, however, I shall confine myself to three objects that seem of the first importance, viz. the supply of roots, grain and herbage for food, wood for fuel, timber and shelter for the yam vine, cotton and indigo, as some employment for persons that might otherwise remain idle.

The yam I have seen in your island, being the *Arum Esculentum*, requires a marshy soil; and the lofty situation of the arable land in St. Helena will never admit of much land being laid out in this manner; whereas the yam, *Dioscoria Alata* of Linnæus, is more wholesome and pleasant for food, and in light garden mold, the dews from heaven will almost prove sufficient watering for its nourishment.

The *convolvulus Batatas* may be planted with the plough, and affords a good kind of food.

In case you establish Tanks, I would recommend, as soon as their waters sink three or four feet, little holes may be

dug near the water's edge, and filled with garden mould into each of which two or three seeds of the *Nymphæa* (Egyptian bean) should be planted and gently watered till they vegetate; after which, they can live at a considerable depth, and will cover the water with their leaves and a most beautiful flower. The seeds afford a good pulse, and the root a wholesome yam, that are eat by the natives of Southern Asia.

I send by Captain Gregory, a box filled with the yam, *Dioscoria Alata*. The *Convolvulus Batatas* shall be sent, when they have taken root here, in tubs of earth, as it is propagated by cuttings of the stalk; and, in case you are not already in possession of these two roots, I take this opportunity to assure you, they will prove a great means of maintaining the inhabitants, if the planters betwixt the upper part of Lemon Valley and the governor's garden will pay attention to their culture.

Amongst the seeds in a box, which I have likewise committed to Captain Gregory's care, I must distinguish a small parcel of the *Phaseolus Bengalensis*, on account of the prolific nature of this *Phaseolus*, and valuable bean it affords for food. The *Cynosurus Coroçanus*, *Panicum*, *Milium*, and *Zizania*, will afford food for the poultry, and fodder for the cattle,

The tree seeds I have put up in this box, are chiefly with a view to establish sufficient fire wood, and to serve as a shelter, and to support the vine of the yam and the sweet potatoe, although some are fit for other purposes, as you will see by the remarks attached to the inclosed list of them.

In low latitudes, we frequently find islands of considerable height, covered with wood to their summits; but the height and exposure of St. Helena may be some bar to this.

I have no doubt, however, that by degrees your society will establish shelter of trees on the summit of the island, to protect more tender plants from bleak winds.

"That no assistance may be wanting which this country affords, I have directed your plan to be published in our Courier.

"In return for your attention, I can only inclose accounts of an attempt in agitation for the culture of genuine cochineal in the honourable Company's possessions, in the promoting which, the society, by its central situation, may become very instrumental. I am, &c. JAMES ANDERSON."

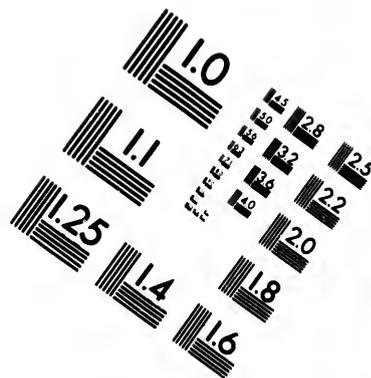
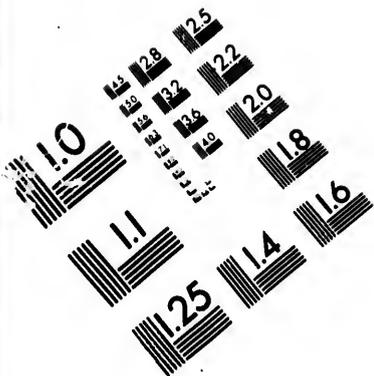
Fort George, 4th Feb. 1789.

List of Seeds for the St. Helena Planters Society, alluded to in the foregoing Letter.

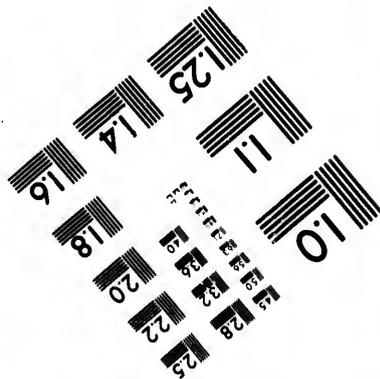
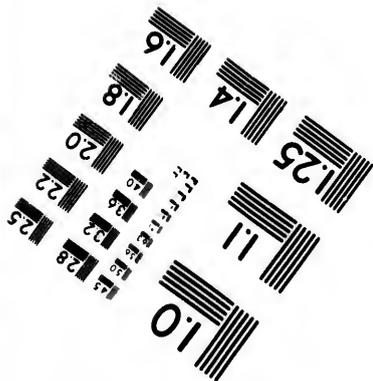
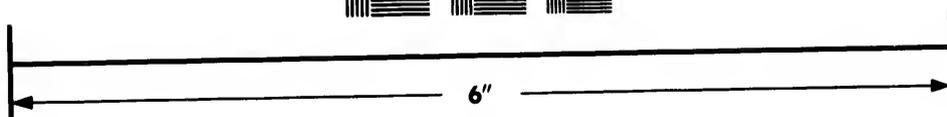
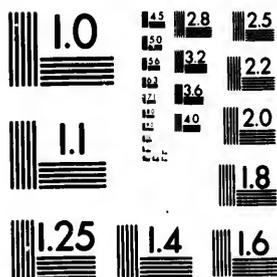
- “ *Nymphaea*,—The Egyptian bean, or great water lily.
- “ *Phaseolus Bengalensis*,—Kidney bean.
- “ *Cynosurus Corocanus*, *Panicium*, *Milium* and *Zizania*,
Grass seeds.
- “ *Tectonia*,—The timber is elastic, strong and durable, resists the worm, and is superior to any other timber for ship-building, and beams for houses.
- “ *Eritrina Corollodendron*, is so light, that rafts are made of it, as well as many kinds of toys.
- Mimosa odoratissima*, fit timber for carriages of burden, such as carts, &c.
- “ *Thespisia Populnea*,—Light smooth grained timber, and strong enough for wheel carriages.
- “ *Casalpina Sappan*,—Logwood for dying.
- “ *Mimosa Nilotica*, yields gum-arabic, and bark for tanning leather. The seed pods equal galls for ink.
- “ *Mimosa Cinerea*, the inspissated juice of this tree, is called *terra Japonica*.
- “ *Mimosa Madraspatensis*,—Hedge mimosa.
- “ *Robinia Mitis*.
- “ *Robinia Grandiflora*,—Its leaves are boiled and eaten as greens.
- “ *Annona Squamosa*, custard apple.
- “ Cachu nut.
- “ *Tamarindus*, the Tamarind tree, of which the leaves and fruit are a pleasant acid. This tree grows wild here among steep rocks.
- “ *Gossypium*, Cotton of the finest grain.
- “ *Indigofera*, Indigo. The large seed from Surat; the smaller, the best sort of indigo made here.
- “ *Moringha*, Indian horse radish.
- “ All these seeds are fresh gathered: Some of them are mixed with powdered tobacco; and the bags in which they are contained dipped in a solution of corrosive sublimated mercury, to prevent insects destroying them.”

What benefits would result to society, if men of letters would in general turn their attention towards useful pursuits! How much might the lot of mankind be meliorated in a few centuries by such pursuits! Europe, Asia, Africa and Ame-





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rica, would thus each contribute its share to the general improvement. And every country on the globe would be benefited for it. The mention of one plant alone, introduced into Europe from America, the potatoe, is enough to awaken the attention of every person, whose soul can feel the expansive glow of beneficent affections, and make them look up with gratitude to those, who by attentions of this sort, have proved the best friends of mankind.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

INTRODUCTION.

A Cursory VIEW of the present POLITICAL STATE of EUROPE, continued from page 120.

Spain.

SPAIN, though greatly weakened by the unwieldy extent of her foreign possessions, which have ruined her own domestic industry, and reduced her to a state of debasement she never could have otherwise experienced, seems to be not yet aware of the evils that have resulted to her from this cause. She cannot make use with advantage to herself, of even the hundredth part of those territories, that all the world admit belong to her; yet she greedily grasps at more. They are in terror every moment, of hearing, that their best settled provinces have thrown off the yoke, and asserted their independence; yet she is eager to assert her right to settlements, which she has it not her power to occupy; and which if she could occupy, would be productive of nothing but additional embarrassments. In these respects, Spain is only on a footing with other powers; who in general pursue with as inconsiderate warmth, projects alike delusive and destructive. The contest for power, which has just been ended between Britain and Spain, if no other object was concealed under it than what was avowed, was one of the most inconsiderate, that has been entered into in modern times; nor can the evils originating from that be palliated by the equivocal nature of that

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convention which has been patched up between them. An equivocal treaty will always be deemed highly prejudicial to all the powers that are concerned in it, by every politician of sound sense, however much it may be relished at times, by those of another denomination.

The Count de Florida Blanca, who has had the principal direction of affairs in Spain for some time past, seems to be seriously disposed to augment the internal prosperity of that fine country, as much as is in his power—but he has many difficulties to overcome, that must retard his progress. He has the prejudices of the people, and the prejudices of the minister himself to get over, before he can make those rapid advances he wishes.—Time,—much time must be required, before these can be effectually got over. This æra, he never can hope to see.—In the mean while, he does the best he can:—The operations of war he dislikes, as only tending to derange the private economy of the state. His attention seems to be directed to the exciting a spirit of industry among the people,—by directing their attention to agriculture, manufactures, and commerce.—Under his auspices, navigable canals have been formed, for facilitating internal commerce: Roads have been projected, and in part made, under his inspection; bridges built; societies instituted in every part of the kingdom for encouraging agriculture and useful arts,—and every thing else that can be expected from a man in an exalted station of life, who never can be supposed to know the best means of alleviating the distress of the poor, or of removing those, apparently small, but irresistible obstructions, that stand in the way to retard their feeble progress. May success attend his endeavours, and may those that shall succeed him, be able to profit by the experiments he will have made, and the experience he shall have obtained!

Spain is much less known in Europe than it deserves to be; and though far behind some other nations in useful arts, is still less backward than has been in general supposed. The bigotry, for which she was so remarkable in the days of Philip the second, is now much relaxed. And among other benefits, conferred upon the people by Count Florida Blanca, must be reckoned, the check he has given to the power of the clergy; not by directly curtailing their established prejudices by force, but by introducing a mode of reasoning and

thinking on those subjects, far more liberal than formerly. In short, among the rulers of a bigoted and ignorant people, this respectable nobleman will probably occupy a distinguished rank, in the recording pages of future historians.

It has been generally believed, that the government is much afraid, of having that free mode of reasoning which now prevails in France, introduced into Spain;—and probably it is so:—Nor is it to be doubted, but the infection will spread thither sooner or later. It has also been supposed, that the late armaments were secretly intended to favour the cause of the king of France against his subjects, with a view to reinstate him upon the throne, had circumstances appeared to be favourable for it.—But what truth was in these allegations, we pretend not to say.—It is easier to say, that if these were his real intentions, it was probably more lucky for the king of Spain, that he has been prevented from interfering in that quarrel; as it is highly probable, had the subjects of the two states been suffered to mix freely together, they might have caught the so much dreaded disease, as the French did in America; and have carried it with them into the heart of their own country, long before the time it could otherwise find its way thither.

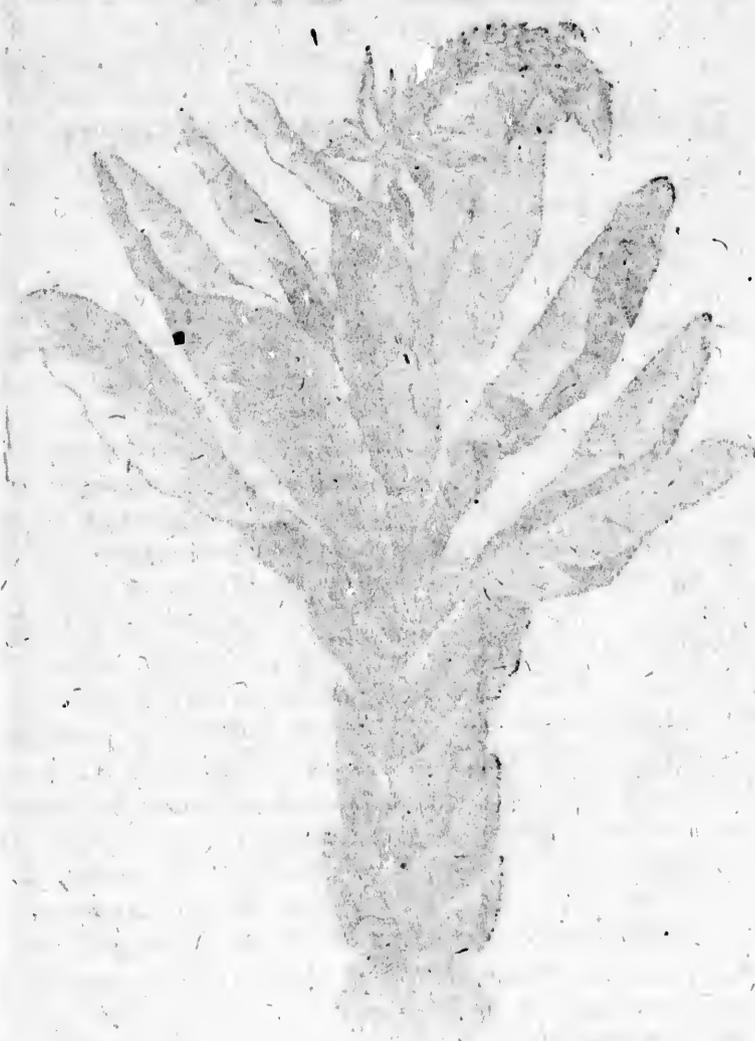
Spain had carried on a sort of desultory war, with the piratical states of Barbary, which is now also concluded; so that at present, that country enjoys the most profound peace. Long may it continue so! Nor, from the pacific temper of the minister, do we expect, that she will be easily induced to disturb that tranquillity, with an intention to forward the ambitious views of the Empress of Russia, who wishes to get them heartily to espouse her cause.

The late king of Spain, was of a mild pacific disposition, and remarkable for the upright integrity of his mind,—though his talents were much below par.—What will be the bent of the dispositions of the present king, is not yet known.—While Prince of Asturias, he was much esteemed at court.—Some have supposed, that the stiffness of the Spanish court in her late struggle with Britain, was to be ascribed solely to him.

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THE BEE,

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 9. 1791.

Enfete.

BOTANICAL researches, when united with a disposition to philanthropy, are highly useful. They bring to light many plants that may prove beneficial to man, by being transported from the places of their native growth to other favourable situations, where they have not been planted by nature.

In his researches, perhaps the botanist should bestow his chief attention to the discovery of such plants as afford a wholesome nourishment to man himself, especially if they thrive in situations where the common kinds of esculent plants do not abound. The *Enfete* of Abyssinia, according to Mr. Bruce's account, must be ranked in this class. It prospers only in marshy wet situations; without any culture. It rises with a thick succulent stem, to the height of eight feet, which being soft and pliable, bends by its own weight at the top. The leaves, and whole figure of the plant, has some resemblance to the Banana, though it differs from that in many obvious particulars. The whole appearance and habit of the plant is so well represented by the figure, that a more detailed description of it is unnecessary here.

The part of the *Banana* tree which forms the food of man, is the fruit. It is the stalk only of the *Enfete* which is eatable. "The figs of the *Enfete* are not eatable; they are of a tender soft substance, watery, tasteless, and in colour and consistence similar to a rotten apricot; they are of a conical form, crooked a little at the lower end about an inch and a half in length, and an inch in breadth, where thickest. In the inside of these is a large stone, half an inch long, of the shape of a bean or Cashew nut, of a dark brown colour; and this contains a small seed, which is seldom hardened into fruit, but consists only of skin."

"When you make use of the *Enfete* for eating, adds Mr. Bruce, you cut it immediately above the small detached roots, and perhaps a foot or two higher, as the plant is of age: You strip the green from the upper part, till it becomes white; when soft, like a turnip well boiled, if eat with milk and butter, it is the best of all food, wholesome, nourishing, and easily digested." It might add much to the conveniencies of life, were this plant to be transplanted to some parts of the West Indies, or other tropical climates suited to its nature. They have already in the East Indies a plant which does not grow in swamps, but in deep water, the *Nymphaea aquatica*, which affords food to a great part of the natives of these countries.

The general appearance of this plant so much resembles that of the *Banana*, that Mr. B. with great probability conjectures it has been often mistaken for that plant by modern authors. The Hippopotamus, he shrewdly observes, is generally supposed to represent a Nile, that has been so abundant, as to be destructive. When therefore we see upon the obelisks the hippopotamus destroying the *Banana*, we may suppose it meant that the extraordinary inundation had gone so far, as not only to destroy the wheat, but also to retard or hurt the growth of the *Enfete*, which was to supply

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its place. I do likewise conjecture, that the bundle of branches of a plant, which Horus Apollo says the ancient Egyptians produced as the food on which they lived before the discovery of wheat, was not the papyrus, as he imagines, but this plant, the Ensete, which retired to its native Ethiopia, upon a substitute being found, better adapted to the climate of Egypt."

Had the ancient Egyptians been possessed of the *Nymphaea aquatica*, they could never have experienced a famine from a superabundance of water. When too much for wheat, the Ensete would thrive; when too deep for the Ensete, the *Nymphaea* would have prospered.

Historical Notices concerning the Moors in Spain.

At a time when Europe was buried in barbarism and ignorance, the natives of Africa were a great people, highly civilized, and far advanced in arts, in industry, and science. It was during that epoch, that the Moors, invited by the profligacy of the prince, and the barbarity of the people of Spain, invaded that fertile peninsula; and during the course of two campaigns, made a total conquest of that country, a few mountainous provinces on the northern borders of it alone excepted. The fertility of the soil, the mildness of the climate, and the industry of the Moors, who now occupied these regions, all contributed alike to render it in a short time one of the most delightful regions in the universe. Along the coast of the Mediterranean, where nature has proved singularly bountiful, the Moors chiefly delighted to settle;—and accustomed at home to a feudal dependance on a superior, the kingdom was divided into feudal seigneuries, depending upon their common chief, the great Miramolin, who then reigned with unrivalled splendor in Africa. But upon the disasters that befel the descen-

dants of that great prince, the subordinate Moorish chiefs in Spain, gradually assumed an independent authority, and erected each for himself a small kingdom, his right to which none of the neighbouring princes had any authority to controvert. Thus was laid the foundation of the kingdoms of Valencia, Murcia, Granada, and many others, which, under the dominion of a set of wise and civilized princes, abounded in men, in money, and in industry, so as to become a kind of universal garden, a terrestrial paradise, in which all those arts that can minister to the delight of a wealthy and luxurious people, were carried to a very high degree of perfection.

Among those independent states, the kingdom of Granada became in time the most conspicuous. Her princes were distinguished by their wealth, liberality, courtesy, refinement of manners, and military prowess. Her people, in possession of every enjoyment that industry, when allied with freedom, and softened by a taste for literature and the fine arts, could inspire, enjoyed for many ages a degree of happiness, that few nations ever could boast of—and knew alike how to enjoy the blessings of peace, and to defend their rights in the struggles of war. They adored their princes, and were beloved in their turn. *They strengthened his throne, and he protected them from insult.*

If love can find an entrance into the hearts of the most savage people, and can tend to sweeten the lot of those who groan under the rod of oppression, it must have had an infinitely more powerful, though more gentle influence on the minds of this people, who lived so much at their ease.—And whenever love assumes a sovereign power, there the finer arts, and all the gentle contrivances that tend to soothe the heart, and cherish the beneficent affections, will be adopted. In these circumstances, the court of the prince became the seat of pleasure.—The splendor of his throne dazzled the eyes of all beholders; and among a people of lively fancy,

the impresson it made upon the mind, was little short of adoration.

It was during the happiest years of this happy period, that the palace of Grenada, called in the language of the country, *Alhambra*, was built; a magnificent palace, accommodated with spacious halls, adorned in the most sumptuous stile of Moorish architecture, furnished with copious fountains of limpid water, tending to moderate the heat of the climate, and to give a pleasing coolness, highly gratifying to the soul.—To this palace was annexed spacious gardens, watered with innumerable rills of pure water, which gave a luxuriance to the magnificent trees that there abounded, and a perpetual verdure to innumerable plants that sprang up around, to adorn this seat of voluptuousness, and to scent the air with fragrant odours.—This palace, situated on the summit of a lofty eminence, commanding, on the one hand, a distant prospect of those towering mountains called the Sierra Nevada or snowy mountains, as being covered with perpetual snow; which, melting in summer, filled the streams that washed its walls with an inexhaustible abundance of water, highly refreshing in such a sultry climate:—On the other hand, it looked down upon a fertile plain, thick strewed with hamlets, gardens, and fields, abounding in corn, in wine, in oil, and other rich products of the mildest of temperate climates.

Among these people, whom we have been accustomed to view as rude barbarians, a strong sense of religious veneration for the supreme being prevailed; and a respectful attachment to that form of worship they had been taught to cultivate, formed a very striking characteristic feature. This we learn from the most undisputable authority, that of their public inscriptions, which are still preserved; which, on account of the sublime simplicity of expression, the purity of the morals they inculcate, and the respect for sovereign power, undebased by the meanness of adulation, that under the garb of praise, for the most part conveys the found-

est advice,—form upon the whole a species of composition, so uncommon, and at the same time so pleasing, that I hope my readers will be well pleased with the following morcels, which have been selected for their entertainment. At the same time that these inscriptions may be prized as objects of taste, they deserve to be held in high estimation, as historical records, that tend to give a distinct idea of the state of the country, at the time they were written, and of the modes of thinking of its people.

The following inscription was copied from the front of a building, erected as an hospital in the year 1376, which answers to the 778th year of the Hegira. It runs thus :

“ Praise be to God. This hospital, an asylum of mercy,
 “ was built for the benefit of poor and sick Moors; a work,
 “ the piety and utility of which no tongue can sufficient-
 “ ly praise. It stands a monument of the faith and cha-
 “ rity of the founder, and will be his recompence, when
 “ God shall inherit the earth, and all that it contains.
 “ The founder is the great, the renowned, and the vir-
 “ tuous, Abi Abdallah Mahomad : May he prosper in
 “ God ! the zealous king, the friend and benefactor of
 “ his people ; who employs his minister for the glory
 “ of his religion, and of God ; the courageous prince,
 “ the propagator of pious works ; the prince protected
 “ by angels ; the pure saint ; the protector of the laws
 “ and of morality ; the worthy emperor of the Moors ;
 “ may he prosper in God ! He is the son of our Lord,
 “ the *just* king, the high and powerful, the conqueror,
 “ the fortunate, the *pious* governor of the Moors, Abi-
 “ alhageg, *who bears witness to the laws*, son of the re-
 “ nowned, of the sublime Abi Algualid, the destroyer
 “ of those by whom companions are given to God ; son
 “ of Nazar the privileged, happy in his works, and in
 “ every thing which is resolved in the decrees of God,
 “ for his service and with him : *He* projected this aedi-
 “ fice, from the moment the Moorish nation became love-

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“ reign of this city, and thus made a provision of merit. He filled her ark with charity and good works; and his whole intention was directed in the presence of God. God is he who inspires good thoughts, and who communicated to him his light, that it might be communicated to those who should come after him; and for the day when riches and ancestors will avail nothing, and when nought will remain to us, but that which God in his mercy shall have given us.

“ The plan of this hospital was drawn in the ten days in the middle of the month Moharram, in the year 777, and finished in the ten days in the middle of the month Zagnet, in the year 778. May God preserve the pious work of the founders, and never leave without recompense, the meritorious labours of these illustrious princes. God be with Mahomet and his adherents for ever!”

Europe owes great obligations to the magistrates of Granada, who some years ago caused all these inscriptions to be carefully copied, and lodged in the archives of that city, together with accurate translations of the whole, there to be preserved, after the works themselves on which they were inscribed, shall be crumbled in the dust.

The following inscription, yet more simple, and in a still better taste, was placed over the principal gate of the palace, which was employed, as was usual in eastern nations, as a tribunal of justice.

“ This gate, called the gate of the judgment, or tribunal, (may God cause it to promote the happiness of the Moorish people, and perpetuate it to the end of nations), was built by our lord the Emperor and King of the Moors, Joseph Abulhaggeg, son of the just and warlike Abigualid, son of Nazar; God give a happy end to his works for the good of the Mussulman nation, and prosper the edifice built for its defence. It was finished in the month of Maulen Annadam, in the year seven hundred and forty-nine.

“ God render it lasting on its foundation, and perpetuate in the memory of men, the epocha of its completion.”

One would believe that the French nation had borrowed the idea of the language they wish to adopt, with respect to their prince, from this inscription. But unfortunately, we do not find in modern times, the piety of the ancient people.

Instead of paintings, which are prohibited by the Coran, the principal apartments of the Moorish princes were adorned with inscriptions allusive to the circumstances and situation of the place.—The following inscription formed one of the ornaments of an open court, surrounded with galleries, that led to different apartments of the palace.

“ Let God be extolled ; he has given to the nation a governor, who has brought it to the highest degree of glory and renown. Oh ! from how many, and from what heresies has he delivered the people ! He has affectionately conducted them to their inheritances ; but they who have shut their eyes against his light, have been reduced to slavery, and made useful to the welfare of his kingdom. With his sword and invincible courage has he reduced nations to obedience, and conquered provinces. Thou, *Nazar*, hast achieved heroic deeds, before unheard of. Thou didst enter and conquer twenty renowned cities ; thou didst return crowned with victory and immense riches, with which thou hast rewarded thy brethren and people. If they know how to direct their prayers, when their soul becomes elevated, they will ask of the great, the sublime, and the only God, length of days for thee, and for thy states duration and prosperity. O *Nazar*, although born in the midst of greatness, thou shinest by thine own lustre, like the stars of heaven : Thou art our fortress, our support, and our arm of vengeance : Thou guidest us like a flambeau, which dissipates darkness from before us. The stars

" fear thee in their course ; the great star of heaven
 " lights thee with respect ; and the highest tree which
 " can bend, gains by thy side."

We shall conclude these extracts for the present, with the following short, elegant, and pious inscription which was placed over the door of the same court, which appears to have been paved with marble of the purest white, and which was no doubt, when in its pristine lustre, of beautiful workmanship. It runs thus :

" If thou admirest my beauty, without thinking of
 " God, who is the author of all things, I warn thee
 " that it is a folly ; because thou mightest make thy ad-
 " miration turn to thy profit, and God may bring thee
 " to death. O ye who look upon this marble of per-
 " fect workmanship and beauty, watch over its defence ;
 " and that it may be lasting, protect it with your
 " whole power *."

Should these extracts prove agreeable to our readers, we shall, in some future numbers of this work, communicate farther particulars concerning this people, whose character and history is in general very little understood in Europe.

On Cruelty to Animals.

Nocuit sua culpa duobus. Ovid. Met. lib. xv. v. cxv.
 His fault to both was fatal.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

I FORMELY told you that I was not an original genius ; and of consequence my thoughts must chiefly arise from occurrences that happen under my own observation,

* The passage is, " Protect it with your five fingers and your hand, alluding to certain tenets not understood by us.

which you may insert or suppress according as you think them acceptable to the public or not.

The following speculation was suggested by an event, which, though distant in time, affects me still with a sensation, rather to be felt than described.

As I was walking with a young lady from the New Town to Leith, I saw a monster who conducted a cart heavily laden, of which, the horse, pressed with his burden, had fallen. The unfeeling wretch, with implacable fury, lashed the prostrate creature, or alternately struck him with the handle of his whip, till our souls were agonized with the prospect. "Oh heaven!" cried the lady, whose frame shuddered in every nerve with horror and compassion, "why do you torment the poor creature in such a manner?" The fellow, who to insensibility of heart added depravity of mind, gave her such an answer as would be too brutal to repeat. He continued his diabolical operation on the poor animal, who at last, after much struggle, and many a vain effort, raised his heavy burden, and recovered his feet.

To me, unless I had seen it, it would hardly have been conceivable that one living being should be thus capable of tormenting another. I could not have imagined that education and habit could have such dreadful effects upon a rational being. Predatory animals indeed, with insatiable voracity devour the victims which they pursue; but they are stimulated by the rage of hunger, and probably unconscious of the pain they give: even boys do not torment flies, reptiles, insects, and birds, from a wanton propensity of giving anguish; they are only amused by the strange contortions and uncommon attitudes into which the creature is thrown by what it suffers; yet this cruel custom loudly demands severe animadversion from parents and tutors; but for a man endued with a rational soul, thus to harden his heart against the sharp compunctions of nature, is in my view a degree of wickedness that is scarce conceivable.

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I am not even convinced that those philofophers are not deferving blame, who, for the fake of *experiments*, put poor animals to exceffive and agonizing pain ; important indeed fhould the objects aimed at be, which fhould authorife fuch cruelties : and are the objects of research for which fuch experiments are made always of great importance ? Or, can the facts wanted be afcertain'd in no other way ? It is furely on thefe conditions alone they fhould be tolerated. We are told by an ancient oriental fage, "that the merciful man will be merciful to his beaft ; but the tender mercies of the wicked are cruelty." I am no Pythagorean ; yet my foul abhors the gratuitous and wanton cruelty, daily praftifed upon animals.

If neceffity fhould extort from us the otherwife unnatural meafure of hurting or even of killing them, let it be done with a gentle hand, and a compassionate heart.

The lamb thy riot dooms to bleed to-day,

Had he thy reafon, would he fkip and play ?

Pleas'd to the laft, he crops the flow'ry food,

And licks the hand juft rais'd to fhed his blood.

Pope's Eflay on Man, Epift. I. l. 77—80.

Humanity is one of the moft pleafing and important feelings of our nature. It enters into all our conduct ; it is the mother and guardian of the virtues, which without it would degenerate into selfish habits or mercenary collufions.

Next therefore to piety towards heaven, let us cultivate thefe precious fentiments ; let us beware of becoming fpectators in fcenes of cruelty, left by repeated and horrid fpectacles of this kind, we lofe the fympathetic fenfe which vibrates at the pain of another. When the natural horror of recent blood, even fhed by animals, is leffened or extinguifhed in us, we foon transfer the fame callous difpofition to fufferers in our own fpecies ; and when any advantage of their perfons, fortunes, or reputations may be taken with impunity,

which either gratifies our avarice, our taste for illegitimate pleasure, our ambition, or our revenge, we improve with avidity the infernal occasion, till at last we fall the victims of our own infatuation, and suffer the miseries which we have inflicted. Domitian and Caligula did not arrive at the height of their atrocity all at once. "Is thy servant, a dog, said Hazael, to the prophet that he should do these things."

But I fear I have dwelt too long on a subject, though in itself interesting, and shall therefore conclude with subscribing myself, Your most humble servant,

ADAM EARD-APPLE.

On Imprisonment.

OF all the evils to which mankind are subjected in their perigrations in this world, perhaps those which result from imprisonment are the most deplorable. Bodily pain, when it becomes excessive, must soon be terminated by death. Sickness, while it weakens the human frame, deadens the senses, and mitigates that distress to the sufferer, which afflicts those who behold it. In the same manner, almost every other evil brings with it a natural remedy, which tends to alleviate distress. The very sympathy that nature irresistibly extorts from every person who beholds another in distress, affords a healing balm that tends to administer comfort to the afflicted. But from the solitary prisoner, every kind of thing that could administer comfort is withdrawn. Confined in a dungeon, out of the sight of every person, he becomes dead to society, while still alive to the anguish of life. He is forgot by the person who confined him; and in consequence of that forgetfulness, is suffered to spend whole years perhaps in agonizing distress, which the person who shut him up could not have tolerated, could he but see it for one hour. It is with justice then that all nations have exalted their

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voices in the present day, and with an unanimity that never was seen before, demand a total abolition of the power of arbitrary imprisonment by any human being. And though it may happen that laws for this purpose will not be enacted in every state at the present time; yet the examples that have been given in a neighbouring country, of the danger of making a wanton use of this power, will serve to overawe those monarchs who may still claim a right to exercise it, from daring to exercise that right in the manner it has hitherto been exercised. Blessed be the spirit which hath abolished such an intolerable evil!

Every man, when he reflects seriously on this subject, must be sensible of the evils that accrue from this source; but it is not at all times that man is disposed to reflect seriously on any subject, nor is it at all times that he can form a lively image of what he has never had an opportunity of observing. He is therefore under obligations to those who take the trouble off his hands. The following picture, drawn by the masterly pencil of Sterne, when he is disposed to turn his thoughts on this subject, will have its effect.

The Captive.

“The bird in his cage pursued me into my room; I sat down close by my table, and, leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement; I was in a right frame for it; and so I gave full scope to my imaginations.

“I was going to begin with the millions of my fellow creatures born to no inheritance but slavery; but finding, however affecting the picture was, that I could not bring it near me, and that the multitude of the sad group in it did but distract me,

“I took a single captive; and having first shut him up in a dungeon, I then looked through the twilight of his grated door, to take his picture.

“I beheld his body half wasted away with long expectation and confinement, and felt what kind of sick-

ness of the heart it was which arises from hope deferred. Upon looking nearer, I saw him pale and feverish. In thirty years, the western breeze had not once fanned his blood. He had seen no sun, no moon in all that time; nor had the voice of friend or kinsman breathed through his lattice, his children——

“ But here my heart began to bleed; and I was forced to go on with another part of my portrait.

“ He was sitting upon the ground upon a little straw, in the farthest corner of his dungeon, which was alternately his chair and bed. A little calendar of small sticks were laid at the head, notched all over with the dismal days and nights he had passed there. He had one of these little sticks in his hand; and with a rusty nail, he was etching another day of misery to add to the heap. As I darkened the little light he had, he lifted up a hopeless eye towards the door; then cast it down; shook his head, and went on with his work of affliction. I heard his chains upon his legs, as he turned his body to lay his little stick upon the bundle. He gave a deep sigh. I saw the iron enter into his soul. I burst into tears. I could not sustain the picture of confinement which my fancy had drawn.”

Think not however that this is a mere fancy picture, which has no reality in existence. Could the horrid walls of all those gloomy mansions, allotted for the confinement of human beings in every part of the world, be now cast down, and the miserable objects they contain be laid open to the view, what human being could bear to look at it? The heart of the most savage tyrant would be melted at the sight; and the millions of miserable beings who are there, now, at this very moment, dying in the agonies of misery, and those who sigh at the distant prospect of that only termination of their wretchedness, would freeze up his soul with horror. Yet the man who could not bear the sight for one moment, can, without one painful effort, order hundreds from his sight to be shut up in these dreary mansions

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for ever; and the next moment, forgetting them entirely, indulge himself in every excess of sensual gratification.

And dost thou not, my gentle reader, whoever thou art, in some measure participate in his guilt, if thou never spendest a thought on the miseries of those who are shut up from their families and friends in the mansions of sorrow, provided in every town for the punishment of the guilty. Would to God I could say of the guilty alone! But I must add, for the destruction of the unfortunate. The beneficent Howard acquired that enthusiasm of philanthropy for which he was so remarkably distinguished, merely by visiting these unfortunate mansions. Nor could any one whose soul was not grown callous in iniquity, have done as he did, without having felt a sensation of the same kind that animated him. It is merely because the miserable objects are not seen, that they are not attended to; and it is because they are not attended to alone, that some method is not adopted for freeing them from the intolerable distresses under which they groan; and that a practice is tolerated in Europe which is the opprobrium of those who call themselves a civilized people.

But I have dwelt perhaps too long on this melancholy subject. I therefore relinquish it for the present. O that it were in my power to suggest a means of alleviating this evil; for to prevent it entirely, I fear, is impossible! That the evil may be diminished, is certainly in our power; an attempt to do it deserves to be received with favour. In the hope that it will be so by my readers in general, I shall perhaps venture on an early occasion to suggest some hints calculated for that purpose.

A.

Vol. I.

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E e

Anecdote of Mr. de Sallo, the first Inventor of Periodical Performances.

IN the year 1762, when Paris was afflicted with a long and severe famine, M. de Sallo, returning from a summer's evening walk, with only a little foot-boy, was accosted by a man, who presented his pistol, and in a manner far from the resoluteness of a hardened robber, asked him for his money. M. de Sallo observing that he came to the wrong man, and that he could get little from him, added, "I have only three pistoles about me, which are not worth a scuffle; so, much good may you do with them; but, let me tell you, you are in a bad way."

The man took them, and, without asking him for more, walked off with an air of dejection and terror.

The fellow was no sooner gone, than M. de Sallo ordered the boy to follow him, to see where he went, and to give him an account of every thing. The lad obeyed; followed him through several obscure streets, and at length saw him enter a baker's shop, where he observed him change one of the pistoles, and buy a large brown loaf. With this purchase, he went a few doors farther, and entering an alley, ascended a pair of stairs. The boy crept up after him to the fourth story, where he saw him go into a room, that had no light but that it received from the moon; and peeping through a crevice, he perceived him throw it on the floor, and burst into tears, saying, "There, eat your fill; that's the dearest loaf I ever bought; I have robbed a gentleman of three pistoles; let us husband them well, and let me have no more teazings; for soon or late these doings must bring me to the gallows; and all to satisfy your clamours." His lamentations were answered by those of the whole family; and his wife having at length calmed the agony of his mind, took up the loaf,

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and, cutting it, gave four pieces to four poor starving children.

The boy having thus happily performed his commission, returned home, and gave his master an account of every thing he had seen and heard. M. de Sallo, who was much moved, ordered the boy to call him at five in the morning. This humane gentleman arose at the time appointed, and taking the boy with him to shew him the way, enquired in the neighbourhood the character of a man who lived in such a garret, with a wife and four children; when he was told that he was a very industrious good kind of man; that he was a shoe-maker, and a neat workman, but was overburthened with a family, and had a hard struggle to live in such bad times.

Satisfied with this account, M. de Sallo ascended to the shoe-maker's garret; and, knocking at the door, it was opened by the poor man himself, who, knowing him at first sight to be the person he had robbed the evening before, fell at his feet, and implored his mercy, pleading the extreme distress of his family, and begging that he would forgive his first crime. M. de Sallo desired him to make no noise; for he had no intention to hurt him. "You have a good character among your neighbours, said he, but must expect that your life will soon be cut short, if you are now so wicked as to continue the freedom you took with me. Hold your hand; here are thirty pistoles to buy leather; husband it well, and set your children a commendable example. To put you out of farther temptations to commit such ruinous and fatal actions, I will encourage your industry; I hear you are a neat workman, and you shall take measure of me, and of this boy, for two pair of shoes each, and he shall call upon you for them." The whole family appeared struck with joy, amazement, and gratitude. M. de Sallo departed, greatly moved, and with a mind filled with satisfaction, at having saved a man, and per-

“haps a family, from the commission of guilt, from an ignominious death, and perhaps from eternal perdition.” Never was a day better begun; the consciousness of having performed such an action, whenever it recurs to the mind of a reasonable being, must be attended with pleasure, and that self-complacency and secret approbation, which is more desirable than gold, and all the pleasures of the earth.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

WHETHER, as a young observer in that dissertation asserts, the mole, by a sense of instinct, pursues any particular worm through the earth, or not, I will not here attempt to prove, as the task appears to me too difficult; though, from what is there said, it might at first sight appear to be so, from the mole disappearing, and retiring as disappointed. But not one word is said, whether the mole was near the surface of the earth, at, or near the place where the worm rose.

That the worm rose to escape its pursuer, or in other words, its enemy, whatever means were used to follow it, whether that particular worm was pursued or not, is certain; as I think I can easily demonstrate from the following simple fact, which will also solve a young observer's difficulty of comprehending by what means the worm is made sensible of its danger.

Being, when a boy, very partial to the amusement of angling, and frequently at a loss for want of worms, I was often reduced to the necessity of digging them up. Once, when employed in this toilsome business, as to me it was, I was accosted by an old mole-catcher, nearly as follows; and since that, by following his instruction, I have obtained as many worms in one hour as I could before in a whole day.

Take a pretty thick long stick, a dung fork, or a spade, insert it in a slanting direction into the earth, in

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a garden bed that has not lately been moved, or any other piece of ground where the grass is not thick, as otherwise the effect will not be so well seen, and begin with a gentle agitation, gradually increasing the force applied. At first the neighbouring worms will rise, and endeavour to escape with surprising agility; and as the agitation is increased, not only the bright red worms, but every worm large and small, will be in immediate motion upwards, as far as its influence extends, and require a very quick hand to take them. By this I think I have solved the difficulty of a young observer; and though I have communicated to you a fact, which I hertofore thought of no consequence; yet, if you think the communication of it in any shape will add one particle of honey to your combs, it will be extremely satisfactory to

D. L. M.

Observations on the Poem intituled Flowers of the Forest.

I HAVE felt peculiar emotions on hearing the song sung or played. The pleasure may in part arise from the pathos of the air itself: but it is heightened by an association with those affecting circumstances which occur in the poem. Indeed, music has most effect, when happily combined with poetry.

There is a satisfaction in dwelling on past scenes, to which few reflecting minds are strangers. When advanced to manhood, with what pleasure do we think of the occurrences of early life? Many are so much affected with this retrospect, that they would wish, it possible, to recall those happy days; and for the time consider the enjoyment of manhood as not to be compared with those of infancy. There is here a fallacy in our reasoning: We view only the beauties of the picture;—its defects are unnoticed. The pleasurable scenes of early life are remembered with delight: Its troubles are

forgot; or if remembered, no longer give uneasiness, but pleasure, from having called forth exertion.

Analogous to the satisfaction with which we contemplate, the scenes of youth is the pleasure we have, in reading the history of our forefathers; and in contrasting the simplicity of their times, with the more polished manners of our own. Here too, the mind is often, and by a secret charm, captivated with the description; and forms the romantic wish of having lived in their times, and having witnessed the scenes in which they were engaged. The satisfaction we feel on these occasions, is of the melancholy kind. To use a favourite expression of a bard of our own country, on the same subject, "The tale of other times is, as the joy of grief, pleasant and mournful to the soul."

In most nations we discover a relish for this melancholy pleasure, in their strong attachment to their early writers, particularly to the productions of their poets. And the strength of this attachment sometimes leads us to ascribe to those early productions, an excellence above their merits. Now, though I confess myself an enthusiastic admirer of the early productions of our own country, both in music and poetry; yet I hope I shall so far guard against prejudice, as to illustrate its beauties, without incurring the charge of being too lavish in its praise.

We may suppose it to have been composed in winter, after the poet had witnessed the scenes alluded to, of cutting down the grain, and having it brought into the barn yard. Winter was well fitted to suggest the melancholy ideas to the poet. The flowers of the field faded, the leaves of the trees fallen, the sky overcast with clouds, could not fail of making an impression on his mind.—But he had then a cause of grief which more deeply affected him. The flowers now faded, would again blossom;—the trees now naked, would again be clothed with foliage;—the sun, whose rays were now obscured, would again shine forth in his glory, and by

his genial heat restore life and beauty to the face of nature. But the flowers to which the poet's thoughts were turned, were never again to blossom. They were cut off for ever. The place which once knew them, should know them no more.

The passion, therefore, which we must suppose prevailing in the poet's mind, and which he describes in the poem, is grief: Grief of a peculiarly aggravated kind; and which we, who live in happier times, cannot easily conceive. The sorrow was general in the country. Many a mother then bewailed her son: many a sister her brother: many a widow her husband: many a maid her lover. No family but had cause to weep at the mention of Flodden Field.

It is the nature of this passion to dwell on those circumstances which nourish it; and to aggravate the misery of the present, by contrasting it with the joys of the past. This is exemplified in the poem now before us. The great cause of the grief, the death of the young warriors, is repeated in almost every stanza: and all the circumstances introduced, have a tendency to heighten the sorrow.

There seems, indeed, great art in the selection of these circumstances. The poet did not mean to paint the effects of grief upon the whole body of the people. This could not have been successfully attempted in a short poem. He therefore confined himself to paint its effects on those whose situation, he well knew, would in general be most interesting, namely, the virgins. Nor does he describe all the various ways in which they might be affected by this disastrous event; he considers it only in one point of view, and that too, the most interesting, as it affected them with regard to love, when

Ilk ane sits dreary,
Lamenting her deary.

Thus, we may observe an unity of design kept up throughout the poem. All the circumstances introduc-

ed, relate to the young virgins; and relate to them in respect of love.

There are three circumstances laid hold of by the poet, all expressive of the greatness of their grief; their *sighing*, their *silence* as to words, and their *love of solitude*. Instances of these, we shall have occasion to remark, in particularly examining the poem. When the first anguish of grief is abated, we may have satisfaction in the *society* of our friends, and may have a pleasure in unbosoming our thoughts to them, and in listening to the consolations they suggest. But the grief which the bard describes, was yet unabated. It refused to be comforted. It could not be expressed by *words*; but by sighs and tears. It had no pleasure in the *society* even of friends; but sought in *solitude* freedom of indulgence.

The bard too heightens this description of their sorrow, by contrasting it with their former scenes of merriment. This he has done in four instances; which we proceed now to examine.

I.

I've hear'd a liltin' *
At the, &c.

In this and the following stanza, the poet gives us the 1st instance, in describing the milking of the ewes. He begins by mentioning the cheerful scene which he used to witness in the morning. Joy was in every virgin's face, as she went forth to her work. They manifested the gaiety of their hearts, by joining in the song; and every observer partook of their joy.—But now

* *Liltin' and milkin'* are not allowable rhymes according to modern rules. Considerable latitude is indeed given to the rhyming vowels, as *grove, love, join'd, kind, &c. &c.* which frequently occur in our best poets. But the rhyming consonant must be invariably the same. There is a more striking violation of this rule in the last stanza, *forest, foremost, wait,* and *away*, are also improper rhymes, the rhyming syllables being in fact the same in sound. We find, however, among the old poets, less nicety in these respects. By the way, do not these afford some presumption in favours of the poet's antiquity?

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how different was the case. Nothing now struck the ear, but the voice of mourning: and what met the eye was the weeping virgins. They were not, as formerly, cheerfully associating together: but wandering by themselves in a very retired path, to give vent to their sorrow. There is a beauty and pathos in this contrast, that cannot fail of touching the heart. That love was the great cause of this sorrow, though it be not expressly mentioned in this stanza, is abundantly evident from what is said in the next.

II.

At buchts in the morning,
Nae blyth, &c.

The same contrast is carried on in this stanza. The first described their going to the buchts; this what is done at their arrival there. The lasses are said to be *lonely*, not only in respect of their fallen lovers; but in respect of each other. They have no relish for society; they seek for solitude. Even when engaged together in the same employment of milking the ewes, not a word is exchanged; nothing heard but sighing and sobbing. They seem desirous to retire as soon as possible; and they go away, not in a company, but one by one. "*Ille ane lifts her leglin.*"

III.

At e'en in the glom'ing,
Nae swankies, &c.

In this stanza, we have another instance of their grief; their not partaking of any of their amusements. Here too the contrast is preserved, and the imagery introduced simple and beautiful. We are pleased to see innocent amusements going on after the labours of the day. Even the diversions of children constitute a gay and pleasant scene. It becomes more interesting, when we suppose the persons engaged, so far advanced, as that love can bear a part. But how much more interesting

is the scene contrasted with it. The lovely virgins now forgo all their amusements. They are retired, each by herself: They weep in secret their fallen lovers; and refuse all comfort. What heart not destitute of feeling, but must sympathize with them, and join the poet in lamenting the untimely fate of the *Flowers of the Forest*. This metaphor used to express the youth, is a happy one. In those times, we may easily suppose, gardening was not carried to any degree of perfection. In the fields and the woods only, they beheld the beauties of nature's spontaneous productions. And what could be a fitter emblem of the youth who had lately fallen, than those wild flowers, which at best were but for a season; and which were often cut off prematurely, from various incidents. This metaphor suggests the age of those who had fallen. They were in the bloom of youth, in the prime of life. It suggests also their beauty. They were fair and lovely flowers. They were lovely in the eyes of the virgins. They appeared still more lovely at their death.—They had fallen in a glorious cause, fighting for their king and country. We find in scripture a beautiful allusion, very similar to this: “Man that is born of a woman, is of few days, and full of trouble. He cometh forth as a flower, and is cut down.”

IV.

In har'ft at the shearing,
Nae blyth, &c.

In this stanza, we have another instance of the change that had taken place, since the fatal battle. As the poet had mentioned *Stacks* in the former stanza, his thoughts were naturally turned to the cutting down of the grain in the harvest; which used to be a time of great mirth and festivity. But now the women only were engaged in this work, no youths to assist them.

There is something very affecting in the circumstance of the *binders*. They are all old men—the fathers,

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we may suppose, of those who should have been engaged in this work. They were too much overcome with grief themselves, to administer comfort to the weeping maidens. The grief of both too was embittered on this occasion, by the recollection of the former merry scenes, at that season.

In the latter part of this stanza, the poet mentions another instance, in which the change was remarkable. There were now no love ploys, as formerly at the fairs and preachings. Love had for a season taken wing; and given place to sorrow and despair.—Here, I confess, I could have wished a change; that preachings had either not been attended to, or attended to in a different manner*. We commend the young men for shewing all attention to the maidens at the fairs; and improving such seasons of leisure for cherishing a virtuous affection. But when attending the public ordinances of religion in the church or in the fields, they ought to have something higher in view, than what relates merely to themselves. Poetry should ever be employed in the service of religion and virtue; and keep at a distance from the appearance of licentiousness.

V.

O dule for the order,
Sent our, &c.

After having thus beautifully described the effects of grief upon the virgins, the poet in this stanza naturally gives vent to his own: vainly exclaiming against the unhappy mandate, which had proved the cause of such misfortunes. He discovers here a partiality to his countrymen, which is at least pardonable. He al-

* The remarks above, may shew that the author is not so partial as to find no fault with the poem. It is the more necessary, because the abuse, there alluded to, is at this day common in some parts of Scotland. Tent preachings are often considered as a ploy of the same kind with the fairs. When they resort to them with such views, we may easily suppose little attention will be given to the worship of God, or to the instructions delivered by the preachers.

lows the English had gained the day; but would insinuate that it was not their usual custom; for anes, says he, they got the day. Nor will he allow them the glory of a fair victory: *by guile*, says he, they got the day. From the youth being all cut off, he draws an argument in favour of their bravery. It was no wonder then that they should have been cut off, for they were always the foremost in battle. They never feared their enemies, but rushed on boldly to death or victory.

Thus hath he raised a trophy to their memory, which hath yet escaped the devastations of time, and which we hope shall yet be long preserved by the fair daughters of Caledonia. And while they tune their harps and their voices, to raise this mournful song, they shall sometimes drop a tear for the brave youths, who fell in Flodden field; and for the disconsolate virgins, who were left lonely in the halls, to bewail the untimely fate of their lovers.

Copy of a Letter from an English Slave-driver at Algiers to his Friend in England.

By the blessing of God, I have now got into a very good birth. I have the command of twenty slaves, some Spanish, some English, and some Americans. I get my victuals, and equal to one shilling a day besides, and all for driving the slaves to the field, and keeping them to their work when they are there. To be sure it went hard with me at first to whip my country-folks; but custom, as the saying is, is second nature. So I whip them now without minding it, just for all the world as if they were a parcel of horses; only when they commit a fault, I make them whip one another, which you know horses cannot do. I hope, Tom, that neither you nor any of my friends will think the worse of me for being as I am in my present birth. People may say this or that of the infidels; but sure am I they

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do not deserve to be extirpated any more than the English themselves. For one white slave that we have here, the English have ten black ones in the West Indies, and they use their slaves much more cruelly than we do ours. And what though we sometimes make the English sailors slaves; they are much better here than at home, for they are nothing at the best but slaves. You know, Tom, how both you and your brother Jonathan were knocked down and pressed before you could hand a rope; and how, being crammed into the hold, your brother died of the bad air; but you being stronger, was saved, by the blessing of God. You know how you have shewn me the marks of the flogging which the captain ordered you, and all for falling from the main yard, and killing his whore's lap dog, though sure I am he might have had pity on your broken collar bone. And besides, we do not make the slaves fight for their masters, and they never come by any wounds, as the Englishmen who are pressed for sailors do. We only make them work as they would be obliged to do, or starve, at home. Their victuals are of the best; and for fruit, the best English lord in the land might wish to get what they throw away; so that our dealings are mercy, compared with your treatment of the poor nigers, which both you and I have seen at Kingston, and which you will remember, by this same token, that when we got aboard again, we wished they would rise and cut all the white men's throats. So you must take care of taking up wrong notions to my disadvantage; for we just do here to the whites what the whites do to the blacks in the West Indies; only we use them more mercifully.

I am, &c.

Algiers, 3d February 1790.

*A Petition from the Ladies of Edinburgh to Doctor
Moyes.*

DEAR Doctor, let it not transpire,
 How much your lectures we admire ;
 How at your eloquence we wonder,
 When you explain the cause of thunder,
 Of lightning, and of electricity,
 With so much plainness and simplicity :
 The origin of rocks and mountains,
 Of seas and rivers, lakes and fountains ;
 Of rain and hail, and frost and snow,
 And all the winds and storms that blow :
 Besides an hundred wonders more,
 Of which we never heard before.
 But now, dear Doctor, not to flatter,
 There is a most important matter ;
 A matter which you never touch on,
 A matter which our thoughts run much on ;
 A subject, if we right conjecture,
 Which well deserves a long long lecture,
 Which all the ladies would approve,
 The natural history of love.
 Oh list' to our united voice,
 Deny us not, dear Doctor Moyes ;
 Tell us, why our poor tender hearts
 So willingly admit love's darts :
 Teach us the marks of love's beginning ;
 What is it makes a beau so winning ;
 What makes us think a coxcomb witty,
 A dotard wife, a red coat pretty :
 Why we believe such horrid lies,
 That we are angels from the skies ;
 Our teeth are pearl, our cheeks are roses ;
 Our eyes are stars ; such charming noses !
 Explain our dreams, waking and sleeping ;
 Explain our laughing and our weeping ;

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Explain our hoping and our doubting,
 Our blushing, simpering, and pouting;
 Teach us all the enchanting arts
 Of winning, and of keeping hearts :
 Teach us, dear Doctor, if you can,
 To humble that proud creature, Man ;
 To turn the wise ones into fools,
 The proud and insolent to tools ;
 To make them all run helter skelter,
 Their necks into the marriage halter :
 Then leave us to ourselves with these ;
 We'll rule and turn them as we please.
 Dear Doctor, if you grant our wishes,
 We promise you five hundred kisses ;
 And rather than th' affair be blunder'd,
 We'll give you six score to the hundred.

J. S.

300 pretty Ladies.

To the Bee.

SIR Bee, if you are not splenetic,
 But malleable to the critic,
 I'd these few lines inculcate under,
 My sentiments—on your first number ;
 And should I chance in any thing
 T' offend, retort, Sir—use your sting ;
 All's fair ; and be assur'd I'll scorn it,
 Bee though you are, nay though a hornet—
 And, *primo*, as to Doctor Cullen,
 I'm sure he would look marvellous fullen,
 Broke he from Nature's bond, to see
 Himself in such a strange fossée ;
 With not one single leading feature
 To mark the man from such a creature ;
 Which shews to all, at the first view,
 No more like him—than I'm like you.
 And then, how oddly the descripture

Befits so hideous a picture !—
 Next, as to your muse irritant,
 Her rage is just ; but then her cant,
 'Bout Hecate fell, and fraught her diction
 With such combustible like fiction ;
 And Lethe's fumes, that 't would make a stranger,
 To read it, think his life in danger :
 And still the author seems to jump—
 As in the vacuum of an air pump ;
 Scorps Nature, and thinks of creating
 A world's of's own out of a nothing.—
 Your linnet sings a little better,
 Though colour'd scarce to common nature.—
 Now, if you deem us poets fools.
 We think you chemists statesmen's tools,
 Nor are our brains so very addle,
 But we can turn on you the table :
 Would not two grains of Peter Pindar,
 Your motely menstruum of wonder,
 And dull, pedantic, pond'rous metal,
 Amply precipitate and settle ?—
 Though dread you need not sublimation :
 But now I've wrote to saturation ;—
 So farewell to your first ; I propound
 Next to address me to your second.
 Th' muse your threats being so annoy'd at,
 Will just devour it as you void it.

P. S. Print this, and let the great world see.
 That you are an impartial Bee*.

T.

* The editor returns thanks to Mr. T. for the above lines, which, though not possessing all the merit he could wish, have still one merit,—*Sprightliness*, which he is forty to say, is a very rare one among his correspondents. As he has not one grain of that quality in his own composition, he wishes very much to find it among his correspondents, and will pay a particular attention to those compositions, either in prose or verse, where it is discoverable, when natural, and not affected.

But though with him, cheerfulness, like charity, will cover a multitude of faults, it will not alone be sufficient to atone for every defect. He observes that *Claudio* of facetious memory, in an intro-

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Sir Edward, a Story.

THE virtue of Louisa was vanquished; but her sense of virtue was not overcome.—Neither the vows of eternal fidelity of her seducer, nor the constant and respectful attention which he paid her during a hurried journey to England, could allay that anguish which she suffered at the recollection of her past, and the thoughts of her present situation. Sir Edward felt strongly the power of her beauty, and of her grief. His heart was not made for that part, which, it is probable, he thought it could have performed; it was still subject to remorse, to compassion, and to love. These emotions, perhaps, he might soon have overcome, had they

duction to some poems printed by him, desired his readers, if they chanced to find a *foot* too short, to go on a little farther, and they would probably meet with another with a foot too long, which, he hoped, would be considered as making up for the first defect. Perhaps, our hobbling bard reasons after the same manner. Yet we would advise, when he next intends to bestride his hobby, oft misnamed Pegasus, he would carry him to the smith, and give the poor animal a set of new shoes, to keep his feet sound in going over the rugged road which he is likely to encounter;—and also, that he would put a little *hard meat* in his belly, to give him bottom, before he grasps the whip, and ties on his spurs; for it is a painful thing to see a poor beast pushed by whip and spur beyond his natural speed, coming wheezing and limping on; and we are afraid some of our tender hearted readers might dislike that kind of sport;—besides, he might have a chance of being distanced and thrown out; which, according to the rules of the turf, would put it out of his power to start again for the same prize.—But by keeping his feet in good order, and his body hearty, he may be enabled to scamper away with ease to himself, pleasure to the rider, and satisfaction to the spectators.

The editor begs also to observe, that though he is not so hardy as to dispute the canon of Pope,—“one line for sense, and one for rhyme” for fear of the consequences; as, if he is to judge from their practice, he has no doubt but the whole of the rhyming race would be immediately at him, to defend their sacred rights.—Yet as he knows not if it is an article in the *magna charta* of poetsasters, that for the sake of rhyme they have a right to coin new words at pleasure;—till this privilege be clearly ascertained, he shall object to the practice as licentious, and contrary to the spirit of the laws of Parnassus. Indeed, poor prose writers will think it a very unreasonable demand, after the confession that has just been made; for if sense be sacrificed to sound, it must be a very extraordinary case indeed, where a known word cannot be found to clink with another. That our impartiality may not be called in question, we have copied the a

been met by vulgar violence or reproaches; but the quiet and unupbraiding sorrows of Louisa nourished those feelings of tenderness and attachment. She never mentioned her wrongs in words; sometimes a few starting tears would speak them; and when time had given her a little more composure, her lute discoursed melancholy music.

On their arrival in England, Sir Edward carried Louisa to his seat in the country. There she was treated with all the observance of a wife; and, had she chosen it, might have commanded more than the ordinary splendor of one. But she would not allow the indulgence of Sir Edward, to blazon with equipage, and shew that state which she wished to hide, and, if possible, to forget. Her books and her music were her only pleasures, if pleasures they could be called, that served but to alleviate misery, and to blunt for a while the pangs of contrition.

above lines from the author's manuscript with all possible fidelity, *verbatim et literatim*; that our readers may be able to decide whether he has been culpable of a licentious trespass on the established law in this respect or not.

Satire is a weapon, that if rightly wielded, the editor has ever thought may be of the highest utility in the republic of letters;—but it is a weapon that few can handle with adroitness;—and he recommends the following lines to the consideration of those who think themselves qualified to wield it:

As in smooth oil, the razor best is whet,
So wit is by politeness sharpest set;
Their want of edge from their offence is seen;
Both pain us least when exquisitely keen.

If these rules be adhered to, he will be better pleased with the salutary lash, than with the most studied language of panegyric.—Much good results from a just and well timed reprimand;—but little good can ever attend the language of compliment, even when there is some foundation for it. He begs his young correspondents to advert to this, and they will reap much benefit from it. If at any time they feel a smart under the lash of satire, let them be assured the satire is well founded.—And instead of being enraged at the person who wounds them, let them study to avail themselves of the light he affords to them, and so to conduct themselves as to disarm him in future. Let them not, however, dread the lash of captious satire; for the editor will put himself between them and danger in this respect. They may rest secure in his protection against those mischievous shafts that are pointed by malevolence, rather than a spirit of just censure; for though he courts sound criticism, he will banish from his miscellany, with contempt, every hint that seems to be dictated by ill-nature or malevolence.

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These were deeply aggravated by the recollection of her father; a father left in his age to feel his own misfortunes, and his daughter's disgrace. Sir Edward was too generous not to think of providing for Venoni. He meant to make some atonement for the injury he had done him, by that cruel bounty which is reparation only to the base, but to the honest is insult. He had not, however, an opportunity of accomplishing his purpose. He learned that Venoni, soon after his daughter's elopement, removed from his former place of residence, and, as his neighbours reported, had died in one of the villages of Savoy. His daughter felt this with anguish the most poignant; and her affliction for a while refused consolation. Sir Edward's whole tenderness and attention were called forth to mitigate her grief; and, after its first transports had subsided, he carried her to London, in hopes that objects new to her, and commonly attractive to all, might contribute to remove it.

With a man possessed of feelings like Sir Edward's, the affliction of Louisa gave a certain respect to his attentions. He hired her a house, separate from his own, and treated her with all the delicacy of the purest attachment. But his solicitude to comfort and amuse her was not attended with success. She felt all the horrors of that guilt, which she now considered not only as the ruin of herself, but the murderer of her father.

In London, Sir Edward found his sister, who had married a man of great fortune and high fashion. He had married her, because she was a fine woman, and admired by fine men; she had married him, because he was the wealthiest of her suitors. They lived, as is common to people in such a situation, necessitous with a princely revenue, and very wretched amidst perpetual gaiety. This scene was so foreign from the idea Sir Edward had formed of the reception his country and friends were to afford him, that he found a constant source of disgust in the society of his equals. In their conversation, fantastic, not refined, their ideas were frivolous, and their knowledge shallow; and with all the pride of birth and insolence of station, their principles were mean, and their minds ignoble. In their pretended attachments, he discovered only designs of selfishness; and their pleasures, he experienced, were as fallacious as their friend-

ships. In the society of Louisa, he found sensibility and truth; her's was the only heart that seemed interested in his welfare. She saw the return of virtue in Sir Edward, and felt the friendship which he shewed her. Sometimes, when she perceived him sorrowful, her lute would leave its melancholy for more lively airs, and her countenance assume a gaiety it was not formed to wear. But her heart was breaking with that anguish which her generosity endeavoured to conceal from him; her frame, too delicate for the struggle with her feelings, seemed to yield to their force; her rest forsook her; the colour faded in her cheek; the lustre of her eyes grew dim. Sir Edward saw these symptoms of decay with the deepest remorse. Often did he curse those false ideas of pleasure which had led him to consider the ruin of an artless girl, who loved and trusted him, as an object which it was luxury to attain, and pride to accomplish. Often did he wish to blot out from his life a few guilty months, to be again restored to an opportunity of giving happiness to that family, whose unsuspecting kindness he had repaid with the treachery of a robber, and the cruelty of an assassin.

One evening, while he sat in a little parlour with Louisa, his mind alternately agitated and softened with this impression, a hand-organ, of a remarkably sweet tone, was heard in the street. Louisa laid aside her lute, and listened. The airs it played were those of her native country; and a few tears, which she endeavoured to hide, stole from her on hearing them. Sir Edward ordered a servant to fetch the organist into the room. He was brought in accordingly, and seated at the door of the apartment.

He played one or two sprightly tunes, to which Louisa had often danced in her infancy: She gave herself up to the recollection, and her tears flowed without controul. Suddenly the musician changed the stop, introduced a little melancholy air, of a wild and plaintive kind. Louisa started from her seat, and rushed up to the stranger.—He threw off a tattered coat, and black patch. It was her father!—She would have sprung to embrace him; he turned aside for a few moments, and would not receive her into his arms. But nature at last overcame his resentment; he burst into tears, and pressed to his bosom his long-lost daughter.

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Sir Edward stood, fixed in astonishment and confusion—
“I come not to upbraid you,” said Venoni; “I am a poor, weak old man, unable for upbraidings; I am come but to find my child, to forgive her, and to die. When you saw us first, Sir Edward, we were not thus. You found us virtuous and happy: we danced and we sung; and there was not a sad heart in the valley where we dwelt. Yet we left our dancing, and our songs, and our cheerfulness; you were distressed, and we pitied you. Since that day, the pipe has never been heard in Venoni’s fields; grief and sickness have almost brought him to the grave; and his neighbours, who loved and pitied him, have been cheerful no more. Yet, methinks, though you robbed us of happiness, you are not happy; else why that dejected look, which, amidst all the grandeur around you, I saw you wear; and those tears which, under all the gaudiness of her apparel, I saw that poor deluded girl shed?”—“But she shall shed no more,” cried Sir Edward; “you shall be happy, and I shall be just. Forgive, my venerable friend, the injuries which I have done thee; forgive me, my Louisa, for rating your excellence at a price so mean. I have seen those high born females to which my rank might have allied me; I am ashamed of their vices, and sick of their follies. Profligate in their hearts, amidst affected purity, they are slaves to pleasure, without the sincerity of passion; and, with the name of honour, are insensible to the feelings of virtue. You, my Louisa!—but I will not call up recollections that might render me less worthy of your future esteem—Continue to love your Edward; but few hours, and you shall add the title to the affections of a wife; let the care and tenderness of a husband bring back its peace to your mind, and its bloom to your cheek. We will leave for a while the wonder and the envy of the fashionable circle here. We will restore your father to his native home; under that roof I shall once more be happy without alloy, because I shall deserve my happiness. Again shall the pipe and the dance gladden the valley, and innocence and peace beam on the cottage of Venoni!”

An account of the culture of the plant, called by Linnæus, Oldenlandia Umbellata, and by the Indians on the Coromandel Coast, Che;—the roots of which afford the fine permanent red dye to cotton.—Communicated by James Anderson, M. D. physician to the presidency at Madras, in a letter to James Anderson, L. L. D. at Gosfield near Leith. Dated August 3, 1788.

THE seeds of *Oldenlandia* or *Che*, are gathered in January, and sown in July: the roots are dug up in march. When the seeds are fresh gathered, I shall send you enough to arrive without any risque of losing their vegetative power.

It grows every where here, a small weed; but it is only by particular culture the roots become possessed of the beautiful and permanent red dye, the seeds of which only are preserved for crop.

To enable you to judge whether our West India islands are capable of its culture or not, I must give you a sketch of the Coromandel coast, and the nature of the soil employed for raising *Che*: Of the climate, you have somewhat in the philosophical transactions.

It appears to me, that the decomposition of the mountains, washed down by the freshes, have extended a clay soil which encroaches some miles on the ancient bed of the sea, so as to form a level plain along the coast, about two or three feet higher than the sea's surface.

This being established, there are rivulets at a few miles only from each other, which wash great quantities of sand from the soil of the inland country, till it reaches the sea, when it is carried off at a right angle by the current, and thrown out by the surf, so as to form the beach.

Now, the high winds that frequently blow here, drive this sand farther backwards; so that in ages, the clay soil is in many places covered with pure sand to the height of two or three feet, and here and there, a sand hill thirty or forty feet high.

It is on those parts, where the sand is evenly spread, the *Che* is cultivated. The sandy plain is evenly laid out in

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beds like a garden, on which the seeds are sown, and carefully watered every third morning at sun-rise for the first month.

The value of the root here prevents its being sent to Europe, as well as that the power of the sun's rays are necessary to obtain the full effect of the dye; so that a dyer must sometimes repeat his process 200 times before he hits the right colour.

The root, which is very slender and long, when dried, is cut up in bundles about a span in girth, and brought thus to market, where it sells according to its quality, at the rate of from ten pagodas, or four pounds Sterling, to seventy pagodas or twenty-eight pounds Sterling the maund, or quarter, of a hundred weight.

Translation from the Talinga, for the cultivation of the Che or Chay.*

The way of gathering seeds of Chay root, when the plants are well grown and red-coloured, and after they have flowered and produced fruit and long roots, then it is time to get the seed; as the seeds are very small, and drop down under the plants, it can only be gathered with the sand, which must be kept as in a heap till next year, as it cannot be used that year.—The ground should be sandy, and where there is sweet water, well manured with sheep's dung; or sheep should be kept on the ground for that purpose, and then ploughed, the more frequently the better, seven or eight times. It must be perfectly level, without grass, and divided into beds of one yard breadth, and four yards long, with a narrow water course. The seeds must be sown thinly therein, and Palmira leaves placed over the surface, and the water poured on them to prevent the seed being washed out of the ground until they shoot up, which will be in 5 or 6 days. For two months after this, the ground must be kept constantly wet and sprinkled besides with water, having cow dung mixed with it every morning, to prevent the shoots being blown off by the wind; during the remaining months, the cow dung may be omitted, and the ground only water-

* This was read in the Royal Society of Edinburgh, November 3; and the original from whence the translation was made, lodged with the secretary of the society.

ed twice a-day, morning and evening.—Grass must not be allowed to grow.—If managed as above, it will be grown in six months, when it must be dug up with a large iron-bar, to prevent the roots being broke, and bound into small bundles that are to be dried and bound into larger bundles of two maunds weight, or 150 pound weight.

After cutting or beating off the upper part, the roots must be well powdered, and mixed up with four times their quantity of water in a pot, and boiled for some time. both for painting and dying red. For the painted Calengary or Chintz, the painters use other stuffs together with chay root, according to their convenience, as Brasil wood, to shew them where the red is to be put, but the Che root is the principal.—The ground that is planted with Chay root cannot be used for the same purpose again for five years.

N. B. Seeds of the *Oldenlandia Umbellata* were sent by three different conveyances, which all arrived safe in Britain.—One parcel was given to the royal society for the promotion of arts in the Strand, London; another parcel to the society of agriculture, Bath; and another to the philosophic and literary society at Manchester; with a request to the first, that a small parcel of the seeds should be communicated to Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. and another to the king's gardener at Kew;—the remainder to be distributed among such persons here, and in the West Indies, as were most likely to give this plant a fair trial. It was also requested, that the members of the other societies would take the trouble to send these seeds, chiefly to their correspondents in the West Indies, so as to give it a chance of a fair trial in different places.—At the same time, as the root is of so great value, it could admit of being imported directly from India, as an article of commerce; and some of the roots have been accordingly ordered home for a trial.

It must, however, be admitted, that the use of this drug is not now so much wanted here as formerly, seeing an ingenious gentleman, now at Glasgow, has discovered a method of dying cotton of a permanent red, little inferior to that from India.

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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 16. 1791.

To the Editor of the Bee.

Thoughts on the modern prevalence of Bankruptcies.

SIR,

YOUR publication, which, though yet in its infancy, I flatter myself will be of extensive utility to the world, invites the philosopher, the scholar, the merchant, or the observer, alike to communicate their ideas, which, after being sanctioned by your approbation, are thus given to the public. Perhaps, in the present situation of the commercial world, the number of bankruptcies which have of late happened, may claim a few thoughts, as a subject highly interesting to a mercantile nation. To remedy the evil entirely is perhaps impossible, while trade exists, and fortune is capricious; but ought not some distinction to be made in the eye of the world, between the situation of the extravagant unthinking villain, the hasty spectator, and the worthy man, who has been ruined by their schemes, struggling under the burden of a numerous family, and deeply affected with his fallen condition? A man in the situation of the latter, is most deserving compassion; on him the creditor ought not to wreck that vengeance

VOL. I.

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which is only destined for guilty heads. Yet how often do we see him reduced to poverty and want, exposed to the misery of a jail, without friends and without help! A man in this situation is an object of pity: he who refuses it is unworthy of a better lot. On the other hand, the more splendid spendthrift, who indulged himself in all the fashionable follies of sensuality and extravagance, who perhaps was the ruin of the former, whose credit was never supported but by the most ruinous means, viz. "wind bills, and personal assurance," often meets with that pity which the other never has found: in a short time surmounts his difficulties or seeming embarrassments: overleaps the bounds of prudence, and begins again his ruinous career with undiminished splendor; despising alike the censures of the world, and of his own conscience, hackneyed in iniquity. Ought not the one to be admired in his misfortunes, and the other reprobated in his splendor, and detested, though surrounded with the glare of tinzied shew?

As matters have stood for some time past, there is no man who deals extensively but must suffer; and the fraudulent bankrupt is generally the one who lives most splendidly.

When we trace bankruptcies to their source, we generally find extravagance at home, ruinous speculations, or misfortunes, the cause to which they have been owing. Could not some mode be adopted to check the growth of this growing evil? Could not some mark of odium be stamped upon them by the public? The wise most surely would applaud a scheme for that purpose: 'tis a pity it has not been already put in execution. For instance, when it was clearly proved that a man had fairly ruined himself by heedless expenditures, which he well knows his circumstances could not admit of; if he is a member of a mercantile society, and it is insinuated that either fraudulent practices, or some other cause, owing to himself, have been the cause of his

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failure, why not make inquiry? and if that is found out, ought he not to be expelled society by the unanimous voice of honest men? We are told, shame acts more powerfully than principle; and I am persuaded, a man will often hear general surmises with a deaf ear, who would start at the thoughts of open reprobation. This must, however be prudently and carefully examined; but may be done after due investigation. On the other hand, could not an institution be made to bring forward the unfortunate, and succour the distressed citizen. The rich who fear not the hour of adversity, may perhaps spurn at the proposal; but the sober thinking man would approve. Suppose an institution was formed for the express purpose of relieving decayed merchants, after the circumstances attending their failure were duly inspected by a committee: I dare say it would meet with encouragement; and a small annual contribution too trifling to be regarded by the opulent, would do the business, and it is too useful a scheme to be disregarded by the humble. Were this proposed by some patriotic gentleman, I dare say it would meet with encouragement: and, surely to be the means of depressing and affronting the villain, and encouraging the honest and virtuous, is an undertaking worthy of man.

If this is thought worth inserting in your work, it may perhaps bring forward some more able arguments, and be the means of at least making the villain blush, while the honest cannot but commend.

I am, indeed, of opinion, that had this institution been formed for some years past, the payments to real objects would have been very few; but in all probability, the evil will increase, till the public take the alarm, and by some mark of odium, assume that authority, which our laws, in their present situation, cannot impart.

Q. D. C.

* * In our next, will be offered to the public some hints, tending to remedy the evil here complained of.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR, Hamilton, Jan. 7th 1791.

As I see it is within the compass of your design, I would recommend to the public by your means, a publication I have lately read with a good deal of pleasure, and I hope with some profit too; and am persuaded it is worth the attention of landholders, farmers, and manufacturers; but as it is not my custom to say of any human performance it is without a fault, I must own there are several pretty palpable mistakes scattered up and down through the whole, besides one entire heterogeneous chapter. The performance I mean is intituled, *Thoughts on various Objects of Industry, &c.*, by John Naimith, and forelaid chapter, the 5th of the 2d book, which, with your leave, I mean to comment upon with such freedom, as it shall be ashamed to shew its face again in the 2d Edition; but as the commentary may perhaps be longer than the text, which is a fault you know very common to commentators, I shall only give you the contents of the several papers, at present, reserving the filling of them up to some future occasion, when it may suit the conveniency both of you, Sir, and your readers.

Ch. I. A dissertation on hobbies—What a hobby is, as distinguished from an useful beast, or a beast of burden.—The benefit the revenue derives from hobbies, or the keepers of hobbies. This is well known to all able financiers: therefore they will be very cautious how they discourage the breed of hobbies. Some men will as soon part with their wives as their hobbies—How an useful beast may be converted into a hobby, and by whom—The bad effects of such a practice, as men are as ready to differ about their hobbies as any thing, especially learned men; an example of this in your first number. The linen, woollen, and cotton manufactures, all three very useful in themselves, and might

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both stand and thrive very well in the same stable, were it not for the same whimsical tribe that are always setting them on to kick at each other.

Cb. II. The author's apprehensions for the ruin of the linen manufacture, by the introduction of the cotton, ill founded.—The coarse linen manufacture can receive but little damage from the cotton.

Cb. III. An inquiry, whether it be most advantageous for Scotland to push the manufacture of coarse linen, or fine, most; a question very proper to be satisfactorily answered for the benefit of both landholders and flax-raisers. This will lead me to take notice of a very palpable mistake of the author, in contrasting the average value of the linens stamped in Scotland, with the average value of the linens stamped in Ireland, which has made him throw a very unjust aspersions on the honourable board of trustees officers, intrusted with the Scots stamps, as if they were generally a third part out in their judgment, of the value of the linens stamped by them. He indeed supposed they do not take the same care of the value, as the measure of their cloth; but I must acquaint all whom it may concern, that it is the duty of every officer, after looking over and measuring a piece of cloth, to put a value on it to the best of his judgment, which he affixes over the number of yards; which values are summed up, as well as the yards, to make up the aggregate sum of each sent to the office, and that each of these officers considers himself as upon oath, as well to value, to the best of his judgment, as to the number of yards. I had other three chapters more to add; but as I have already cut out work for a twelvemonth, and who knows what change may be in that time; besides this is already run to a considerable length; so, for the present, I am your most humble servant,

Criticus sed non Creticus.

P. S. As the author has inserted two or three large blads of Latin, which I do not well understand, though

Once a Latin scholar, but as honest a one as ever came from a school; for, so far from carrying away any thing that did not belong to me, I chose rather to leave the greatest part of what I had honestly paid for. A task for your learned correspondents, to give a good English translation of my name; and for the future, when they insert more than four Latin words at a time in any English book, I would propose that they give a good translation below, for the benefit of English readers, if they be able that is to say.

Remarks on Liberty.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

ON reading the article France, No. IV. of your historical chronicle, the following thoughts were suggested.

Revolutions in societies and nations are not affairs universally demonstrable, that owe their perfection or circumscription to the powers of the human mind. These belong rather to the nature of cause and effect. Their hidden and secret nature are best known by their consequences. One cause however is obvious, *the oppression of men in power*. Despotic governments might preserve the peace and felicity of their subjects by lenity and equity of administration. The people under such princes might be cemented to their sovereigns without so much as knowing for why—at least without any inquiry into the rights of sovereignty: But whenever oppression begins, the painful chains speak to their understanding more emphatically than all the eloquence of Demosthenes. Another evident reason of state-revolution is, *the introduction of commerce*. The heads of the people might even be generous and hu-

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mane in framing an absolute government : But these principles being only flexible, and corruptible by interest, what can save a nation from utter ruin, but the common and commercial people ? and how shall these become saviours of their country, unless by mechanical ingenuity and commerce, they obtain influence to raise up their dignity ? Unless they industriously cultivate those arts, which have fertility to supply the defects of nature ? Oppression, therefore, matching with influence and mental refinement, will struggle and debate from their own weight and importance ; and the result must turn out according to the superior balance of contending powers. Such things appear to have been two causes of the French Revolution, which, if as stedfastly maintained in infancy, as at the birth, must be productive of the manhood of liberty. If these principles laid down are general, Spain in its multiplied degrees of society, and ill situation for trade, on account of the influx of the Mexican specie, must yet spur long in the furrows of slavery.

Un ami inconnu.

Paisley, 31st January 1791.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

As a friend to every attempt to serve the community, I cannot but be interested in the success of your weekly publication. I send you a short paper on the means of promoting agricultural knowledge, and the great benefits which may be derived from it to this country. If my future correspondence shall be thought worth your acceptance, I will pursue this subject.

JAQUES.

Ceteris specimen esto, said Cicero to Atticus : and he said wisely ; for such is the influence of example over

the human mind, that one virtuous and conspicuous character will more effectually promote the cause of morality, than an hundred mere declaimers, in or out of the rostrum. So, one good farmer will more extensively disseminate his improvements in agriculture, than an hundred theorists. I have long wished for some public establishments, to extend and promote the art of husbandry: The societies have done much; but they have left more undone. And to any person who is much conversant with farmers, the cause of their failure is sufficiently obvious. The same objections will in part apply to the many valuable treatises upon rural economics. Much praise is due to Mr. Young, to Mr. Marshal, and though last, not least, to you, Sir. Since I have been informed of Mr. Pulteney's design, to establish a regular course of lectures upon agriculture in this university, the plan has met my full approbation; and no endeavour shall be wanting to promote its general utility, so far as the exertions of an individual can avail. The universal testimony that is born of the ability of the professor, affords the fairest hopes of success; and his well known modesty and candour, must highly prejudice the public in his favour. At present, he must necessarily stand in need of much assistance, not only in point of practical information, but of countenance and support from the neighbouring gentlemen. Much of the success of any new institution depends on the outset. I own myself an enthusiast in the cause, from my full conviction of its certain utility, if well conducted, and steadily supported. A numerous and respectable attendance is the first object; the second, free and full communications of authentic experiments, and real and tried improvements in the methods of agriculture, as well as descriptions, drawings, or models of the different instruments which are found useful, and which are reasonably supposed to be better than those commonly in use. To communicate these will be necessary. It is certainly the interest of the

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farmers, to attend regularly upon these lectures, as they will thereby be enabled, with little loss of time, and at a still less expence, to possess the concentrated wisdom of ages. They will collect without trouble all the modern improvements, not only in this island, but upon both the continents of the old and new world, without the waste of time and money, in long and expensive journeys: They will have the practice of the whole world of agriculture laid fully before them; and if a desire of further information, and of a more perfect practical knowledge should be excited, an event not more to be wished than expected, they will leave home, stored with such previous information, and so general a knowledge of the object of their inquiry, as will enable them to direct their researches to the most important objects, and to make the most of their information, by a judicious arrangement and well-directed investigation. I would particularly recommend these lectures to the attention of those who are destined for the Church. They will come prepared by a liberal education, and their attendance will be only a relaxation from severer studies. As they will be resident in the country, and connected by their situation and office with this most useful body of the community, their instructions and advice will be attended to with almost filial reverence; and thus they may employ the many hours of leisure, which must here be a burden to themselves, in dispensing useful knowledge, and throwing, at the same time, a strong bar in the way of vice, by promoting a spirit of virtuous industry and laudable exertion. In my opinion, a knowledge of the principles and practice of agriculture, is necessary to the perfection of the sacerdotal character; as a minister so endowed, will imitate, and in some measure cooperate with God in giving the highest perfection to his works, and diffeminating the most extensive blessings amongst mankind. They surely will not think this a mean employment or an inferior duty. If they should, let them call to mind Becket, Hooker, and a

thousand other venerable ecclesiastics, who esteemed it a pleasure, as well as an obligation, to till the ground, who have been contented in the shades of retirement and even obscurity, to see God's blessings spring out of the earth, and eat that bread, which they could properly call their own, in peace and privacy. I need not add, that it is no less their interest than their duty, to promote in their several parishes every possible improvement in agriculture, when peace and plenty shall succeed to wretchedness and want; when the cattle shall be upon a thousand hills, and every valley shall laugh and sing.

On the Iniquity of prescribing Oaths in certain Cases.

'Tis he that takes the oath that breaks it,
Not him that for convenience takes it.

HUDIBRAS.

AMONGST the many social virtues that attend the practice of true religion amongst mankind; that of a strict adherence to truth in every transaction in life, is of the greatest importance:—It establishes confidence and fair dealing in every situation; to maintain the adherence to truth, and to maintain religion in the people, are the same thing:—without the one, the other cannot subsist; and it ought to be the first object of a legislator, in the making of such statutes as have any connection with the morals of the people, to frame them in such a manner, as not to introduce great and frequent temptation for dissimulation and lying.

It is pretty generally allowed, that religion in an enlightened age, cannot exist in the breasts of the people, when it subjects them to very great temporal inconveniences.—Men will not adopt any plan of conduct, without the prospect of gaining some advantage thereby:—the hopes of reward from religion, in the limited view by which the ignorant and the bulk of mankind consider it, are confined entirely to a future state, I

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mean, to a period after they have departed from this world:—these hopes, distant and uncertain, yield to the nearer and more obvious pursuits of this life; and therefore, when in the exercise of religion, great temporal inconveniences are occasioned, the religion ceases, and the semblance of it only is kept up.

Hence, I give it as my opinion, that it is a most destructive doctrine, in all cases, to admit of a man's oath, when it operates either for or against his own interest. Yet I am sorry to observe, that the legislators of my country, have of late been of a different manner of thinking. They have enacted, that every retail dealer of foreign spirits, wines and tea, shall make oath from time to time, that he does not sell above the quantity of goods specified by him in a certain book,—or, in other words, he must swear that he is an honest man.—Not a farthing of duties can be drawn back on the exportation of goods, without one or more oaths of the parties connected in the transaction.—A bankrupt must swear that he has not cheated his creditors:—and I believe there is scarcely a branch of trade or manufacture under taxation, wherein people are not obliged to swear that they will not take a farthing from the king, although they have it in their power. Upon this, let any man reflect, and ask his own mind, if men will adhere to these oaths, when it is evidently losing them very great profits.—I am confident, that in such situations, there is not one in a thousand who will.—I recollect of hearing an anecdote of a dealer in tea, who was one of those apparently austere religious people, to be met with in every place: When the invention of shopkeepers swearing to the excise officers of the fairness of their trade was first put in practice, this man, who had always been in the practice of smuggling a little, and was now very unwilling to forego the advantages thereof on account of an oath, set his invention to work in contriving a method of smuggling, swearing, and having a sound conscience:—the result of mature deliberation

was, that on a Sacrament Sunday, he shut himself up in his room, and after a long prayer, made a solemn oath that he should never in his life speak a true sentence to a gauger (excise officer). He ever afterwards considered this oath of greater weight than the other; and his conscience as very free from stain, although he perjured himself once every three months.

“How easy can lasses true what they desire.” are the words of a famous Scottish bard, and apply to men and wives as well as lasses.

Such are the practices of men; and while temptation is in action, ever will be.—I shall not however, be without the hope of seeing a better system of checking evil practices, and of seeing the administrators of government, employ the same able talents that were exerted last year in evincing the propriety of obliging all mankind to think in the same way †, in devising methods of establishing virtue, honour, and liberty among the people. A. A. L.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

If you think the following observations deserve a place in your miscellany, they are very much at your service. *A constant reader.*

On Imagination, and the Abuses of it.

It has been observed of imagination, that it holds a middle place betwixt the pleasures of intellect, and those of sense. Elevated above mere feeling, it partakes also much of the refinement of understanding. It retains as much feeling as to interest deeply, and at the same time reaches to the variety of mental powers.

† Test A&c.

The most dull and phlegmatic are not altogether void of it; and to possess it in a high degree, is to possess the highest honour of genius.

Though the distinctive qualities of judgment, imagination, and an anal sensation, be sufficiently marked; yet, upon a near inspection, we will find these three regions of our nature so interwoven, as never to exist separately. Imagination is sometimes used as another word for feeling; and without mental images there can be no judgment. Imagination cannot be employed without asserting the qualities of the objects with which it is conversant; and this is the peculiar province of judgment.

A late eminent philosopher * has probably gone too far in asserting, that there is really no difference at all, betwixt judgment and imagination; that one endowed with greatness of mind, must have necessarily both these faculties in equal perfection. With vigorous powers to grasp any great or exalted subject, may be said equally of the poet and philosopher; and therefore, says he, if the mind of Newton had been directed to the subject of Milton, he would have been a poet of the first order, and *vice versa*.

In this ingenious remark there is some plausibility; but, as I have said, it is carried too far: for though fruitfulness of imagination may be equally ascribed to a Euclid, who invents a process of mathematical reasonings, as to a Shakespear, who brings together a group of human characters, and a series of actions; and in other respects there may be a similarity of operation in the exercise of judgment and imagination; yet the objects to which they are separately directed, form betwixt them a decided distinction; a distinction which cannot be accounted for, but from an original bias of nature. On the mind of the poet is imprinted, qualities of beauty, sublimity, and grandeur, which habit

* Doctor Johnson.

may indeed improve, but never will supply. A mind thus adorned, would avail nothing; nay, perhaps would be unfriendly to him who would dwell among the pure abstractions of mathematics. It is enough to say on this subject, that coolness, and activity of mind, constitute the philosopher; fire and feeling, the poet. It is not so proper therefore to term judgment and imagination distinct faculties, as the same faculty, or in general, *mind* impressed with different qualities.

Invention, or the power of creation, has been commonly considered as the distinguishing characteristic of imagination: but this must be understood in a certain sense. A poet, or painter, may imagine a landscape, which for beauty of colouring, and exact disposition of parts, will exceed whatever is to be found in nature, and produce an aggregate, or one complex idea, which in itself is new; but to this, creation is limited. The objects of which it is composed are all familiar; the shepherd and his flock, the river, the mountain, and the tree.

But it is not so much the power of extending beyond the common appearances of nature, and exhibiting pictures of original design, which characterize this faculty, as the nature of those pictures which it exhibits: its sphere is among what is magnificent and beautiful in matter, or what is heroic and amiable in mind; its business is to seize with whatever is astonishing, or melt with whatever is amiable; for judgment may also, in its own sphere, among *qualities* and *relations*, discover many new aggregates, and many new combinations, the one however with more splendor and extravagance, the other with more sobriety and truth. Perhaps in this respect the work of Locke is an edifice, though less glaring, yet constructed with as much fertility of invention, and consistency of design, as that of Homer.

It has been asserted that the poet is at liberty to transgress the laws of nature, or contradict its com-

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mon operations, that he may create beings which have not existed, or which, according to the known analogy of nature, cannot exist. But this is surely founded upon a mistake; for without nature and truth, nothing can please. In the infancy of human reason indeed, it is not to be expected, that men should be so much enlightened with regard to the laws of God, respecting this earth, as to estimate with exactness all the possibilities of things. In rude ages, the propensity to believe whatever exceeds the common course of events, seems to know no bounds. Mountains, and rivers, and trees, have been supposed acting in concert with human personages; and it is no way surprising that the abstracted idea of fixed and immutable laws, should have small place in that mind whose only gratification is wonder and admiration. As long therefore, as the bounds of nature's operations were not determined, he could not be said to transgress them, who asserted extravagancies, which long experience, with the history of the world, and philosophical reasonings could alone countervail. Homer, I make no doubt, believed, with the rest of his countrymen, the supernatural events which he relates; and what we sometimes ascribe to his invention, was perhaps often the consequence of credulity only. Virgil, whose more enlightened age, and philosophical principles, rendered less credulous of the theological system of Homer, evidently enters with less spirit, and with less nature, into the actions of supernatural beings. The adventures of Æneas, with the principal events, were however traditionary stories commonly believed, and which he probably also believed himself, and the embellishing circumstances were what happened to Homer's heroes in similar situations, and might also happen to his. The romantic imagination of Tasso and Ariosto, might very naturally delude them into the common belief of the times, with regard to the many

wild transactions of knight-errantry which they relate; and the ghosts, the witches and the fairies of Shakespear, were no doubt also the subject of his own belief. It is not indeed natural to suppose that these writers were so refined, as first coldly to sit down, and consider what actions they should relate that would be most acceptable to the multitude; but that rather, themselves fired with the generous love of poetry, they sung of those great and splendid scenes which most flattered their imagination, or were most congenial with their belief. Keeping entirely out of sight the interested idea of writing for approbation or gain, they allowed themselves, according to the bias of their genius, to be hurried along among those objects that were great and interesting, or detained among those that were calm and beautiful. They chose a story which the obscurity of tradition had rendered venerable, assimilating the actors, and the scenes, to their usual pitch of conception, and adorning the whole with those sentiments, and that colouring, which is at the same time natural and grand; and as long as the probability of these wonderful actions and scenes could not be called in question, so long did they remain the same as if natural and true. But in an after age, when the light of philosophy had dispelled the visionary phantoms of popular credulity, he would act a very injudicious part indeed, who would continue to address men as if possessed with these prejudices. A story, however wonderful, founded on the religious notions of the ancients, with all the appendages of Fauns, of Satyrs, and of Nymphs, would have now few readers. On the same principles, the giants, the dragons, and enchanted castles, which amused the dark ages, are at present neglected for the more natural adventures of a Crusoe, or a Jones.

It is not therefore what is new, what is wonderful, or what is fictitious, which is the subject of poetical

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imagination. It is only when these qualities are consonant to our knowledge of history, or our feelings of truth. The frequent allusions to the fabulous tales of antiquity, with which modern poetry is interlarded, are none of its ornaments; and in the progress of taste, it has been gradually difused. Invocations to beings who have no existence, and the supposed interposition of their power, can have little impression on the imagination of those who have been initiated into the rational tenets of christianity. Though Fenelon has made use of the mythology of the ancients with considerable success, yet the artifice is too obvious to impose upon us; and were it not for the eminent merit he possesses of displaying what is amiable in manners, and what is respectable in virtue, and the many beautiful rural scenes with which he charms the fancy, the poem of *Telemachus* would be displeasing to every reader of taste.

A poet therefore may decorate and heighten, but he must never lose sight of nature: He may describe scenes and actions which never existed, but which may exist. It would not be proper at this day to talk of castles removed to distant places instantaneously, and all the astonishing adventures of eastern relations. How preposterous would it be, when we are taught to think more worthily of the government of the universe, to suppose that the ruler of the main would create storms in order to disconcert petty undertakings, or which is still worse, to introduce Neptune, Boreas and Eolus, with all their kindred train assisting at the operation. Had Ceres been admitted an actor in the harvest scene of Thomson, our thoughts would have been distracted betwixt nature, and the poetical notions of the ancients; an absurdity however of this kind, an inferior writer would have very readily fallen into. As intimately connected with the subject of these remarks, we shall conclude with a few observations on what is called *taste*.

It is somewhat difficult to settle the exact limits betwixt genius and taste : that genius cannot exist without taste, that is, without a relish for its peculiar exercises, cannot be called in question †; but whether we can completely discern the excellencies of an author, without possessing an equal portion of his genius, is perhaps a matter of doubt. There is however a pleasure which attends the invention or fabrication of a work, distinct from an after survey of its beauties ; and the first of these, one would think, is peculiar to the author alone; the last, in common with his readers. It may indeed be replied, that we cannot be said completely to enter into the views of an author, if we cannot follow him in all his progress ; if we do not go back with him in his effort, view along with him the materials as they lie rudely scattered through nature, and arrange them with him into that goodly fabric which we mutually survey with so much delight. But whether we can follow him in this progress, and enter fully into his conceptions, without that force, that grasp, and that activity of mind which the author possesses, is not so evident : certain it is that we cannot do justice to any work of merit, without completely comprehending it ; and that we can be said completely to comprehend it, without viewing it in every respect, as the author has done, I do not see ; and this operation we know cannot be performed without the same powers of mind, and the same sensibilities of enjoyment.

As a very conclusive proof of what has been mentioned above, it may be observed, that the number of eminent critics has been as few, perhaps fewer, than the number of eminent poets : the reason is obvious ; to that sensibility and ardour, which is requisite to catch the flame of high genius, there must be superadded dis-

† We suspect the author here may be in a mistake. Great compass of mental power, which we should imagine constitutes the essence of genius, may certainly exist, where that peculiar modification of it called *taste* is not to be found. *Edit.*

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cernment of judgment, and coolness of attention; and these qualities are not to be often expected united among mankind. An accomplished critic is then a higher, and more respectable character than that of a poet; he must have the imagination of the poet, and that judgment which distinguishes himself.

Completely to relish the beauties of poetry, is then the lot of a few; but to view them at a distance, to have a glimmering prospect, is diffused through a multitude; and those who have this incomplete knowledge, are generally of that class, denominated people of taste; though incapable of discerning what is high in invention, or all that is beautiful in execution, they see enough to please; part they can entirely comprehend, part faintly and dimly; and for what is beyond their reach, they are compensated with the pleasure of being supposed capable of following the opinion of the few who can decide with precision, on these high subjects.

These observations cannot apply to statuary and painting, as a great share of the merit in these arts, depends upon mechanical operation.

Towards the latter part of this essay, the ingenious writer seems not to have been sufficiently guarded in the use of his terms: Other subjects than those of taste, may be the objects of criticism; and in judging of these, or in other words, properly criticising them, those faculties that have been supposed to constitute a fine taste, seem as little required in the critic, as in the writer whose works he examines. EDIT.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

AMIDST the multiplicity of applications similar to the present, should you think the following worthy a place in your miscellany, an insertion of it will oblige a reader. Having sometime ago, projected a history of the lives of the ministers of state, from the revolution to the present time, I find that my progress has been but small, as I am too frequently attracted by other and indispensable avo-

cations. If what is annexed, is held to merit public attention, I may be induced to methodise my materials, and send you the work completed. At present I transmit you the abridged characters of a few eminent statesmen, as a specimen of my manner and stile.

I am, Sir, Your Servant, T. R.

Sir Robert Walpole.

SIR ROBERT WALPOLE had a great fluency and readiness of language, though destitute of nervousity or elegance. He possessed a certain easiness of soul and callousness of sentiment, which made him proof against all attacks, and raised him superior to every embarrassment. By an unwearied attention to figures and calculation, he had acquired a little knowledge in the subject of finance. The maxim which he uniformly pursued, and shamefully avowed, was, that every man had his price. He ridiculed the very ideas of patriotism and public spirit, thought self-interest the wisest principle by which a man could be actuated, and bribery, the most elevated and comprehensive system, that ever entered into the human mind.

Lord Carteret.

THIS statesman was possessed of the finest abilities, the most elegant taste, the most splendid eloquence: All the treasures of polite literature were his own, and he perfectly understood the interests and the politics of every court in Europe. Had his integrity kept pace with his talents, he was formed to be the brightest ornament of the court in which he lived. His patronage might have given new vigour to the republic of letters, and his political skill, new lustre to the annals of Britain.

T. R.

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The Bee.

A Bee, the busiest thing alive,
The most industrious of the hive,

Had toil'd for many hours ;
Had rifled gardens, lawns and fields,
Or what the spicy shrub'ry yields,
Of balmy herbs and flowers.

Each hill and dale well knew his song ;
To him their honied stores belong ;

Then why new scenes explore ?—
Ambitious of a nobler prize,
He through my *Anna's* window flies,
To crown his plunder'd store.

There, buzzing round her beauteous lips,
Which did the blooming rose eclipse,

Their tempting sweets to spoil,
Eager he whirls round the fair,
'Till, 'tangled in her lovely hair,
He's seized amid the toil.

Ye swains, take warning from the Bee,
Flee the enticing snare, ah ! flee ;

By him and me be taught :
Avoid those dear bewitching charms,
Nor hope to gain her to your arms,
Or, like us, you'll be caught.

E. W.

Edinburgh,

January 19, 1791.

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Epitaphium Felis Fortini.

“*Esse apibus partem divinæ mentis.*” VIRG.

FESSA annis, morboque gravi, mitissima felis
 Infernos tandem cogor adire lacus :
 Et mihi subridens, Proserpina dixit, “Habeto
 “Elyfios soles, Elyfiumque nemus.”

Sed, bene si merui, facilis regina silentium
 Da mihi saltem una nocte redire Domum :
 Nocte redire domum, dominoque hæc dicere in aurem,
 “Te tua fida etiam trans Styga felis amat.”

Imitated, and applied to a Lady.

Epitaph on a Cat.

DEATH, that fell tyrant, to one end who brings,
 Cats, dogs, and lords, and ministers, and kings ;
 Has seized my cat, with age and pains oppress ;
 She mew'd, she lick'd my face, and sunk to rest.
 Farewell, thou mildest of the tabby race,
 Ah ! ne'er shall such a puffy fill thy place.

Stern Pluto's queen received my favourite Puss
 With smiles benignant, and address'd her thus :

“In blest Elifium's bowers of deathless green,
 “Where never mastiff, foe to cat, was seen ;
 “With endless joys, Squalina, thou shalt dwell,
 “For thou on earth did'st fill thy station well ;
 “Did'st well perform great Jove's allotted task ;
 “From Cats,—from Men,—'tis all that heaven can ask !”

1791.

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" Goddess (she said), since poor Squalina more
 " Thy favour gains, than e'er did cat before ;
 " O grant me yet *one day* to breathe the air
 " In the lov'd presence of my mistress fair,
 " To tell her with my last, my parting breath,
 " Thy faithful puffy loves thee after death !"

Love, a Rondeau.

PEACE ! thou fond flutt'rer, prithee peace !
 Why shak'st thou thus my troubled breast ?
 O ! let thy painful throbbing cease,
 And give me back my wonted rest :
 For now forlorn I waste the day,
 And now forlorn I waste the night ;
 I court the sun's declining ray,
 I languish for the morning's light ;
 Then peace, fond flutt'rer ! prithee peace,
 And let thy painful throbbing cease.

" While my resistless troubled head,
 " Rolls the warm tide thy veins along ;
 " Still shall thy pulses madly beat,
 " Irregular, and wild, and strong.
 " Ne'er shalt thou quell the inward storm,
 " Till Isabella's heavenly charms,
 " Her gently yeilding, lovely form,
 " Shall pant within thy circling arms :
 " Then I'll ease thy troubled breast,
 " And give thee back thy wonted rest."

CARLOS.

Method of making Parmesan Cheese.

A respectable correspondent communicates the following account of the method of making *Parmesan cheese*, in hopes it may prove useful for improving the quality of the cheeses of his country, The receipt was brought from Italy by Mr. Arthur Young, well known for his labours in agriculture.

The Lodisan is chiefly low grounds, and mostly watered.

A dairy farm of 100 cows, makes daily a cheese of 70 lb. or 75 lb. of 28 ounces. The cheeses in winter smaller, but better. The cows fed only four or five hours a day upon pasture, the rest on hay at home. Eighty cows for the dairy, 20 for calves, and the farm 1000 perticas of land, 800 of standing meadow, and 200 in corn and grass. Rotation; the cows milked twice a day, and give, one with another, about 32 cocallis of 30 oz. of milk. The evening's milk is put to the morning's. At 16 Italian hours or 5 in the morning, the evening and morning's milk, after being skimmed, were put together into a boiler, 8 feet diameter at top, 5 feet 3 deep at the bottom, about 2½ wide, about 272 cocalli, and put under it two faggots of wood, which made the milk rather more than lukewarm; then the boiler was withdrawn from the fire, and a ball of rennet about an ounce weight dissolved in the milk, turning it in the the hand in the milk; it was not sufficiently coagulated till about noon, being early in the Spring; but in Summer it is done in half or three quarters of an hour; but they then use half as much more rennet as was coagulated, so as to be taken in pieces from the surface of the boiler.

The foreman with a stick that had 18 points, or rather 9 small pieces of wood fixed by their middle in the end of it, and forming nine points on each side, began to break exactly all the coagulated milk, and continued to do so for more than half an hour, from time to time examining it to see its state. He ordered to renew the fire, and four faggots of willow branches were used all at once. He turned the boiler, that the fire might act; and then the uuderman

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began to work in the milk with a stick like the above, but with only four smaller sticks at the top, forming eight points, four at each side, a span long each point. In a quarter of an hour, the foreman mixed in the boiler, the proper quantity of saffron (about one third of an ounce) and the milk was all in knobs, and finer grained than before, by breaking continually. Every moment the fire was renewed or fed, but with a faggot only at a time, to keep it regular. The milk was never heaped much, nor does it hinder to keep the hand in it, to know the fineness of the grain, which refines continually by the stick work of the underman. It is of the greatest consequence to mind when the grain begins to take a consistence. When it comes to this state, the boiler is hurried from the fire, and the underman immediately takes out the whey, putting it into proper receivers. In that manner, the grain subsides at the bottom of the boiler, and leaving only in it whey enough to keep the grain covered a little, the foreman, extending himself as much as he can over, and in the boiler, unites with his hands the grained milk, making like a body of paste of it; then a large piece of linen is run by him under that body of paste, while another man keeps the four corners of it, and the whey is directly again put into the boiler, which facilitates the raising the paste, which is put for a quarter of an hour into the receiver, where the whey was in the linen: The boiler is then put on the fire to extract a poor cheese; after a quarter of an hour, the paste is put into a wooden form without top or bottom; a piece of wood like a cheese, put on top of it, putting, and gradually increasing weights upon it; in the evening, the cheese so formed, is carried into the ware-house, where, after 24 hours, they begin to give the salt. It remains in that ware-house 15 or 20 days, but in Summer only from 8 to 12, where the crust will be formed, when it is carried into another ware-house. They turn all the cheeses under six months every day; after that, once in 48 or 60 hours, keeping them clean, otherwise they acquire a bad smell, distinguished by the name of grained cheese.

 LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

Society for the Improvement of British Wool.

IN our third number, we had occasion to mention the patriotic exertions of Sir John Sinclair, for restoring to Great Britain its long lost superiority over other nations, in respect to the quality of its wool. We are happy to add, that the people in this country seem to be now so fully sensible of the benefits that may be derived from this article, that many patriotic individuals have eagerly inrolled their names as members of this patriotic society; and several towns and respectable corporations have contributed liberally towards the same end. It will always afford us particular pleasure to mark the progress of improvement in this branch; and with that view we shall be careful to acquaint our readers with such transactions of this society, as have a claim to attract the public attention.

The first general meeting of this society was held at Edinburgh on Monday the 31st of January. At this meeting, among other specimens of fine woollen manufactures of Scotland, was produced three shauls, one made of the best English worsted that could be obtained; one made of fine Spanish wool, and one made of Shetland wool, all manufactured by the same person, and treated in every respect alike, to afford a fair comparative trial of the quality of these kinds of wool respectively. The gentlemen there met were *unanimously* of opinion, that in respect of softness as well as of pure whiteness, the Shetland wool exceeded both the others in a very high degree, though the manufacturer owned, that the wool of which this shaul was made, had not been properly sorted, much coarse wool being intermixed among the fine; and that if it had been properly sorted, the quality of the stuff would have been greatly superior to what this was.

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After a full examination of the specimens offered, and a free discussion of many interesting particulars connected with the business of the day,

SIR JOHN SINCLAIR of Ulbster, Bart. was called to the Chair,

And opened the meeting with a speech of considerable length, pointing out the objects of the proposed institution—the means by which they were the most likely to be attained, and the material advantages that would result from it.

The Earl of Hopetoun next rose, and entered very warmly into the national importance of the objects in view; and after several other Gentlemen had delivered their sentiments in favour of the proposed institution, the Meeting

RESOLVED

1. That the establishment of a Society for the Improvement of British Wool, is one of the most likely means of promoting the commercial interests, and permanent prosperity of these kingdoms.

2. That the Meeting here assembled, and those for whom they are empowered to act, together with such other persons, whether in Great Britain and Ireland, or its dependencies, as are willing to co-operate with them, will constitute a Society for that sole purpose, either to act separately, or in conjunction with other Societies of a similar nature, as may be thought most advisable.

3. That the important objects of the institution be respectfully laid before his Majesty, by the Chairman, in name of the Society, in full confidence, that a Sovereign, whose attention to the welfare and happiness of his subjects is so well known, will be graciously pleased to take this society under his royal protection.

4. That application be made to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, that he will honour this institution, by accepting the office of being Patron of the Society; and that the Chairman be also requested to make that application to his Royal Highness, in their name.

5. That the affairs of the Society be conducted by a Board of Directors, consisting of a Chairman, deputy Chairman, and fourteen Directors, to be annually chosen on the

last Monday of January (this anniversary), by the signed lists of a majority of the members present at such meetings, any five of the said Directors to be a quorum, with power to elect a Chairman for the time, in absence of the Chairman and deputy Chairman; and that a Treasurer and Secretary shall be annually elected at the same time, and in the same manner.

6. That the said board of Directors shall hold four stated meetings in each year, viz. on the last Monday of January, the last Monday of May, the last Monday of June, and the last Monday of November; with power of adjournment; and that there shall be also four general meetings of the whole Society held on the same days.

7. That upon requisition made by three Directors to the Chairman or Deputy Chairman, or, in absence of both, to the Secretary, Extraordinary Meetings of the Court of Directors shall be called; and that extraordinary General Meetings of the Society shall be also called, on application as above, by any nine of the members; eight days previous notice of such extraordinary meetings of the Directors, and 14 days previous notice of such extraordinary general-meetings of the Society, being always given in the Edinburgh newspapers.

8. That the Directors and other office bearers shall, for the ensuing year, consist of the following Noblemen and Gentlemen, viz.

Sir John Sinclair, Bart. Chairman.

Sir Alexander Ramsay, Bart. Deputy Chairman.

DIRECTORS.

His Grace the Duke of Argyle

Right Hon. Earl of Dumfries

Right Hon. the Earl of Hopetoun

Right Hon. Lord Sheffield

Right Hon. James Montgomery, Lord Chief Baron

Right Hon. the Lord Provost of Edinburgh

Sir John Edward Swinburne, Bart.

Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. President of the Royal Society

Sir James Foulis of Colinton, Bart.

John Erskine, Esq. of Mar

Robert Oliphant of Rossie, Esq.

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Robert Belches of Greenyards, Esq.
 George Ramfay, Esq. Younger of Barnton
 Gilbert Hamilton, Esq. of Glasgow

Sir William Forbes, Bart. *Treasurer*
 James Horne, writer to the signet, *Secretary*.

9. That the subscription of each member shall be one guinea *per annum*, or ten guineas at admission, the Society being desirous of having as many persons as possible connected with it, and confiding in the farther support of patriotic individuals, and of public spirited bodies of men, in the prosecution of the great national objects they have in view.

10. That the Chairman, deputy Chairman, and Directors, do, betwixt this and the last Monday of June next, draw up such laws and regulations as may appear proper for the future government of the society, to be laid before the general meeting to be then held; and that they be in the mean time empowered to take such steps as may seem proper to them for promoting the views and interests of the Society.

11. That the thanks of the meeting be given to Sir John Sinclair, for his patriotic assiduity in instituting this Society; and that he be requested to permit the able speech he has this day delivered, to be published, as tending to excite attention to the great objects in view, by diffusing a knowledge of their importance and practicability.

12. That the thanks of the meeting be also given to the Earl of Hopetoun, for his warm and patriotic zeal for the success of the establishment, and the information his Lordship has now communicated on that subject.

13. That these resolutions be published in the London, Edinburgh, and other newspapers, for the information of all persons who may be inclined to become members of the Society.

Extracted from the minutes of the meeting, by

JAMES HORNE, Secretary.

Statistics.

SIR John Sinclair's patriotic exertions have not been confined to the foregoing object only: His active mind, which suffers no abatement of exertion when useful improvements are in view, has been, for some time past, busy in pursuit of another object of great national importance, which he has now the prospect of bringing to a happy conclusion. In the course of his extensive inquiries respecting the finances and resources of this country, he had innumerable occasions to remark, that without an accurate knowledge of the real state of the country at the present time, when compared with that at former periods, with respect to population, industry, commerce, and other circumstances, a financier must proceed in the dark, and be not only obliged to grope his way at first, without being able to discover any ray of light to direct his steps, but must go on in the same way without either he himself or his successors being able to know whether the measures have proved hurtful or beneficial.

To remove this uncertainty in a matter of so much importance, no method appeared so natural to our enlightened legislator, as that of obtaining an authentic account of the present state of the country, in respect to every particular that can tend to affect, directly or indirectly, the happiness and the prosperity of the people;—and to obtain this, with respect to Scotland, he has called in the assistance of the clergy, a set of men in this country, which, considered as a *body*, is perhaps as respectable a community as any on the globe. By his own vigorous exertions, and the assistance of these worthy men, he has already obtained, as we are assured from the most undoubted authority, materials for giving a very perfect *statistical* * account of many parishes in that country; in digesting which into proper form, Sir John has been busily employed during the short recess of Parliament; and in the prosecution of which, we are assured, he will go on with unremitting diligence, during every hour that can be spared from his active duties as a British senator.

* *Statistical* is a word hardly yet naturalized in the country.—Without entering into a laboured etymology of the word, it is sufficient to inform our readers, that it means an account of the state of any country respecting population and industry.

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Sir John has just finished the printing an account of *four* parishes in Scotland, which he means to distribute to all the clergymen in that country, as a specimen of his intended work, and as an incitement to those who have not yet finished their accounts, to go on with their inquiries, which, for the honour of all concerned, we hope and sincerely believe, will be the most complete and authentic account that ever was published.

It is only necessary farther to add, that with that disinterested philanthropy, which is so commonly the attendant of great minds, Sir John Sinclair has appropriated the whole profits that shall be derived from the sale of this work to the augmenting the funds of a society lately instituted in Scotland, for the relief and support of the children of such clergymen as shall be left in hampered circumstances.

The following extract is offered as a short specimen of the work. It respects the town of *Port Patrick*, near which is the shortest ferry between Ireland and Britain.

“*The Packet-Boats to Ireland.*—The mode of conveying the mail between the two kingdoms, has undergone many changes. At first regular packet-boats, with salaries, were established. But before the quay was built, and, while the passage was attended with the difficulties above described, delays were frequent. The sailors, especially as their wages at all events were running on, often chose to rest themselves. Established packets were therefore abolished, and a rule fixed, That whoever sailed first should have the mail, and a certain sum for carrying it. This operated as a premium, and produced, for some time, a very good effect. Soon after, however, as trade increased, the allowance made by government became of less consequence. The packets were no longer the same object. It often happened, that a boat would not sail with the mail, unless she had something else to carry. The mail coach also was established, and the conveyance of travellers became an object of attention. The boats which carried cattle, were peculiarly offensive to passengers, not to mention that such a cargo, with a gale of wind, was even dangerous. Passengers were therefore disgusted or deterred, and were often induced to take another rout. It was one great branch of Mr. Palmer’s public-spirited plans for promoting the commercial intercourse of the

British empire in general, to unite as much as possible the three great offices of London, Edinburgh, and Dublin. His mail coaches regularly went from Dublin to Donhaghadee, on the one side; and from London and Edinburgh to Portpatrick, on the other. Nothing, therefore, remained to complete the chain, but to obviate the inconveniencies of the ferry at Portpatrick; this he did by restoring established packets. We have now four elegant vessels fitted up with every accomodation, whose only object is to forward the mail, and to convey travellers from the one island to the other.

“The town, which is in a great measure supported by the concourse of travellers, has in a peculiar manner felt the benefit of these improvements. Almost every house is an inn, where strangers may find accommodation suited to their circumstances. The money they leave is the great fund out of which the inhabitants pay their rents, and support their families. The rapid change, however, which has taken place, is greatly to be attributed to the late Sir James Hunter Blair, who happened to live at the critical period when the change began. He had sagacity enough to foresee the many advantages which must result from it, and forwarded the projected improvement as much as possible, by filling the harbour immediately with vessels, and building almost entirely a new town, to accommodate the inhabitants and the travellers who passed through it. Such is the origin and the progress of improvement, which is generally owing, whether in a great capital like Edinburgh, or a provincial town like Portpatrick, to the spirit and exertions of particular men, who seem born for the purpose of rousing the multitude from a state of ignorance or torpor, from which they are too often unwilling to be emancipated.

“*Manufactures.*—Manufactures have not yet made their way to Portpatrick. Ship-building is the only one as yet attempted. Under the auspices of the active and public spirited citizen above mentioned, some companies of shipwrights have been formed, who are likely to carry on that branch successfully. The depth of the water, and the shortness of the run, render it one of the most convenient launches that can be conceived.

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Commerce.—Both our exports and imports have greatly increased. We export here goods from Paisly, Mancheller, &c. ; and we import considerable quantities of the Irish linen manufacture. The inhabitants of Portpatrick, however are generally only the carriers; the dealers are those, who, not being sufficiently opulent to freight and load large ships, carry on a hauling business by land. They bring their goods in carts, and hire the Portpatrick vessels to convey them from one shore to the other.

Irish Cattle.—But of all the articles of the commerce of Portpatrick, the import of black cattle and horses from Ireland is by far the most interesting. Formerly such a commerce was prohibited, for the purpose of encouraging our own breed. The free importation was first permitted by 5th George III. cap. 10. § 1. for seven years, and from thence to the end of the next session of Parliament. It was afterwards continued by several temporary acts, and at last made perpetual, by 16th George III. cap. 8. From the first removal of the prohibition, there was a small annual importation; but it was never carried on to any great extent till 1784, when it rose suddenly, without any cause that has yet been assigned for it. In that year there were imported, between the 3th of January 1784, and the 5th of January 1785, no less than 18,301 black cattle, and 1233 horses. The importation of cattle and horses, for the last five years, ending the 10th of October 1790, has varied in the following manner:

	Black Cattle.	Horses.
From 10th Oct. 1785 to do. 1786	10,452	1,256
1787	7,507	1,623
1788	9,488	2,777
1789	13,321	2,212
1790	14,873	2,402
Total in five years,	55,141	10,270

which, at an average, is about 11,000 head of cattle, and 2000 horses *per annum*. Great as this importation has been, it has not as yet materially hurt the sale, or diminished the price of cattle, in the neighbourhood of Portpatrick. On

considerably increased. It appears from an enumeration recently made, that there are in the country part of the parish, 484, and in the town, 512, souls; so that the whole population amounts to 996, being an addition, in that space of time, of 445 souls.

The births, deaths, and marriages, as entered in the parish register, for the last eight years, are as follows:

Years.	Births.	Deaths.	Marriages.
1783	26	13	5
1784	25	18	9
1785	27	13	4
1786	31	16	9
1787	34	20	7
1788	50	16	8
1789	37	30	4
1790	34	21	9

Rent of the Parish.—About the year 1761, the whole parish was valued, for the purpose of ascertaining the amount of the teind, or the value of the tythes, and it was then estimated at 472 l. Sterling. But as the increase has since been very considerable, the land rent alone is now about 1000 l. *per annum*; the town rent is at least 200 l. more; the dues of anchorage, and a duty of 2 d. *per head* on all cattle and horses exported or imported, payable to the Blair family, may also bring in about 120 l.; so that the rent of the parish is rather better than 1300 l. a year.

* * *A fuller extract will be given from this valuable performance in our next.*

Hastings Turnip.

Mr. HASTINGS, when he was in the East Indies, was attentive to every rural object that promised to prove useful to the country. Among other products of the East, that he imported hither, were the seeds of a kind of turnip from Bentar, which has not yet been long enough cultivated to ascertain its qualities.—The following letter from Sir Joseph

Banks, Bart. to Mr. Arthur Young, contains some hints relative to it. I have an experiment with the turnips which Mr. Hastings brought home from Bentay, that I hope may prove very interesting. I sowed some seed in March last, without producing one turnip. My gardener said, the seed had degenerated, and could never bring turnips again. I differed in opinion from him, and told him, I thought it would prove a valuable autumnal turnip; for as the increasing heat had forwarded its growth so rapidly, as to change a biennial plant into an annual one, I concluded that in the decreasing heat of autumn it would increase in its biennial form, with more than usual rapidity; I accordingly ordered him to sow some in August, as soon as the wheat and oats were well off the ground; he sowed accordingly on the 26th of August, and on the 30th of November, took up his turnips, as is his usual mode, to bury them in holes, that they be preserved from frost: twenty turnips then taken indifferently from the heap, weighed eight pounds; twenty other turnips he had sown about the same time, had scarce bottled at all. What say you to the hopes of a valuable stubble crop from this?

Soho-Square; December 16, 1790.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

INTRODUCTION.

A Cursory VIEW of the present POLITICAL STATE of EUROPE, continued from page 120.

Great Britain,

Nothing can exhibit a more striking proof of the justice of this maxim, that extent of empire does not always augment the prosperity of a nation, than the present state of Great Britain. A few years ago, she lost several extensive provinces that were generally deemed of so much consequence to her, that few people imagined she could well subsist without them.—Yet it is now universally admitted, that since

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that period, her trade has augmented, her manufactures have become more flourishing, and her internal prosperity is greater than was ever known at any former period. It is not to be expected, however, that this strong example should either check her own desire of acquiring farther dominion, or teach other nations to judge rightly in this respect. All mankind are accustomed to act from the influence of habit, rather than from reasoning; and they will continue to do so.

Since the peace of 1782, Britain had no just cause for being alarmed for her own safety, or for dreading the effects of foreign powers: she might therefore have been permitted to attend quietly to her own domestic concerns. But tranquillity is not so suitable to the wishes of the people, as some bustle; and most ministers will think it their interest to indulge the people in this their favourite pastime. Till a man, therefore, can be found, acting as prime minister, who shall prefer the substantial interests of the country to his own private gratification and that of his friends, a long tract of continued tranquillity cannot be expected: And he who looks for such a man, must search a long while in vain. Twice since that period, has Britain been alarmed with imaginary fears, and forced to equip powerful armaments, at a very great national expence, which have been again laid down as useless.

“ The king of France, with twenty thousand men,
“ Went up the hill, and then—came down again.”

These facetious lines may with justice be applied to our late armaments,—which would not have been here taken notice of, did it not seem that this mode of obtaining mock victories, at an immense expence, appears to be a sort of systematic arrangement, to which recourse is meant to be had whenever it is intended to put the good people of Britain into good humour, when any favourite point is to be aimed at. It would be well if a less expensive kind of pastime could be contrived; or one that would tend less to injure trade, to derange the national economy, or to distress individuals; for such a sudden adoption of measures in themselves so arbitrary, ought surely never to be resorted to, but in cases of the most urgent necessity.

These troubles are for the present overblown; and though Spain had reason to complain, that by the overbearing im-

petuosity of her rival, she has been put to a great deal of unnecessary expence; yet she had the wisdom to see at last how matters really stood; and to acquiesce in the good old proverb, that it was more for her interest to ———. The proverb is so trite, that it is unnecessary to repeat it. To shew, however, to all the world, that there was no other object aimed at but an *apparent* victory, and to prove that the *real* victory was on the other side, she has dictated a pacification in such terms, as to throw every real advantage she could aim at into her own scale; while she made a shew of giving something to her opponents. This kind of legerdemain in politics, is however, at best, a mean sort of attainment, which a candid mind would think it beneath its dignity to adopt, whatever were the temptation to do it.

Vanity is the ruling principle of nations. It has been the immediate cause of the ruin of almost every state that has ever attained celebrity in the world, and will be so to the end of time. Wherever power is lodged, there will this passion be displayed; and wherever it is displayed, it must provoke other nations, sooner or later, to humble it. Britain, for some time past, has been placed in more fortunate circumstances, than the rival powers around her, and has shewn that she has possessed this silly passion in as eminent a degree as any other nation.—She also felt, during the last war, some of its natural consequences, but not in such a degree as to eradicate, but merely to moderate it for a time. It is to be regretted, that the present circumstances of other nations tend so powerfully to nourish this propensity in her. May the time soon come, when we shall be obliged to view them with a greater degree of respect; for it is then only, that she shall be enabled, as a nation, to act in a rational and respectable manner!

With regard to the internal administration of this country, it is like that of every other nation, a tiffue of good and bad blended together, in which the bad greatly preponderates. This, indeed, must ever be expected to be the case; because the good produced by government, can only be the result of knowledge, while the bad is the consequence of error.—But truth is only *one*, and the road to that solitary one is often difficult to be discovered; whereas every deviation from it leads to error; nor can a minister, embarrassed

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with the multiplicity of affairs, that for ever claim his attention, find leisure to enter into the many difficult investigations necessary to keep him from deviating from the right path; If therefore, he has not had time to make these necessary investigations, while he was in a private station, he cannot afterwards do it himself. These important discussions must then be left to others; and so many sinister views may induce these counsellors to give improper advice, that it is next to impossible he should be able to avoid being wilfully led into error. It ought, therefore, to be an object of greater wonder, that a minister should be ever right, than that he should be often wrong.

These few general observations on the government of a free country, are enough to give some slight notion of the present political state of Britain; for to censure or to applaud individuals, is no part of the plan of this work. When particular laws or regulations shall come to be considered separately, in the course of this work, their tendency will be pointed out with that candour, it is hoped, which is becoming a liberal mind, and with that freedom which ought to accompany disquisitions that are indeed intended to enlighten the people, without any intention of either hurting or serving any party whatever; so that the remarks will sometimes seem to favour the one, and sometimes the other, as circumstances shall render necessary.—It is not difficult, however, to foresee, that if truth be the sole object of pursuit, it must naturally happen, that those who, from their situation in the state, are obliged to take the lead, will be found more frequently deviating into error, than those who are only allowed to act a negative part.

The only other great object respecting the internal state of this country, that seems to be necessary to be here taken notice of, is the trial of Mr. Hastings;—a trial which has given room for a great display of talents, and which has brought to light many of those abuses in government, which must make every individual in his private capacity shudder with horror. These abuses, however, seem to be rather the consequences of the office of a delegated power in a distant country, than an imputation against the individual, who exercises it at the time. Perhaps a person less culpable in that high station, could not have been pitched upon than the

object of the present prosecution;—and certainly no one could have been selected, who was more generally popular among those who were under his administration. The result of the trial it is not difficult to foresee. One good effect, however, has certainly resulted from the late parliamentary discussion concerning it, viz. that it is not in the power of a king of this realm to screen a great delinquent from punishment, when the general sense of the most enlightened part of the nation shall think it is merited.

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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, FEBRUARY 23. 1791.

Observations on the Laws of Britain, respecting Imprisonment for Debt.

At a time when the British parliament is making such a distinguished stand in defence of the rights of justice and humanity, supposed to have been injured in Asia, and when the people at large have interested themselves so conspicuously in favour of those unfortunate negroes who have been reduced to a state of slavery in our West India settlements, it seems to be somewhat surprising, that we should quietly tolerate among ourselves a species of slavery of a more oppressive nature, than that of which they so justly complain, while it is at the same time so impolitic, as to seem to admit of no defence. I here allude to the power of *imprisonment for debt*, as at present permitted by our laws, which, in its nature is so cruel, and in its consequences to society is so pernicious, that it never could have been tolerated by a sensible and humane people, had not the distresses which it occasions, and which are so much concealed from public view, in a great measure escaped the notice of persons in the higher ranks of life.

The consequences of this species of slavery, however, with regard to the unfortunate sufferers themselves, and their families, are so obvious, that the slightest degree of attention will discover them; and the subsequent

hurt that results from it to the community at large, has been so well pointed out by others, that I shall not enlarge upon it here. On this head I shall only make one remark, that cannot be too often repeated: viz. That prisons in general may be considered as the most successful schools of vice that this nation affords; and that many persons, who, when carried thither on account of unavoidable misfortunes only, were possessed of the most upright dispositions of mind, have returned from thence, depraved in their morals, and thoroughly schooled in every species of vice; these lessons of depravity are quickly communicated to their children and near connections, who fail not to reduce them to practice on the community at large, by a thousand ingenious devices, they never could have thought of by themselves, and which only could have been invented, by the united efforts of the numbers who are left at leisure to brood over their diabolical schemes, and bring them to perfect maturity, in these numerous seminaries of vice and idleness †.

Imprisonment, if viewed in a political light, can only be reconciled to justice, from two considerations. First, as being the means of preventing a person from escaping justice, who has been, to appearance, guilty of some crime: And second, as a *punishment* for delinquencies of a certain sort. How far this mode of *punishment* is judicious or the reverse, I mean not at present to enquire. I shall only observe at this time, that unless imprisonment shall evidently tend to answer the one or other of these purposes, it must certainly be unjust, and therefore it ought not to be tolerated.

Imprisonment in every case, is so severe in its effects, on the person who is subjected to it, that our forefathers seem to have viewed it in general as a kind of punishment, the severity of which ought to be mitigated as much as possible: Hence a provision has been made by

* See on this subject, a most excellent dissertation written by Sir Eusebius Paul; and the other observations of Mr. Howard on prisons, where these evils are so fully displayed as to leave nothing new to be added by me on this head.

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law, to shorten its continuance in general, as far as is consistent with public safety. Where a person has been committed on a presumptive appearance of guilt, if the crime is not of a very heinous nature, he may in most cases be admitted to freedom *on bail*, till it can be ascertained by a fair trial, whether he has been innocent or guilty of the crime laid to his charge. In crimes of a deeper dye, where it is not competent to liberate the prisoner upon bail; the time of imprisonment before trial, is made as short as is consistent with a fair investigation of facts. In this respect, England is conspicuously distinguished above all other nations, and with justice, is proud of her *habeas corpus* act, which so perfectly secures to her the benefit of these invaluable privileges.

In cases where imprisonment is ordered *as a punishment for delinquency* of any sort, the power of inflicting that punishment, as the power of inflicting every other punishment awarded by the law, is taken out of the hands of the person injured, and is entrusted to the judge alone, who is empowered to prescribe the time of its duration, and to determine the condition on which it may be shortened; and who, by being cool and uninterested in the cause, is supposed to be able, in awarding justice, to remember mercy.

In all cases too, where imprisonment is ordered *as a punishment*, even the judge himself is not authorized to inflict it, till the crime for which it is awarded be fully proved: for it would be highly unjust to inflict a punishment; where there still remained a doubt of the guilt.

In general, our laws have also cautiously discriminated between *crimes* and *misfortunes*. If one man, for example, shall have the misfortune to kill another, the mere proving of this fact is not deemed enough to fix upon him the guilt of murder. Before the culprit can be punished as a *criminal*, it must be proved, that his heart also was assenteng to the deed: nor can any one

be punished for having set fire to a house, unless it be proved that it was not done by accident, but by design.

The wisdom and equity of these regulations will not be disputed: But in regard to *debt*, all these rules are totally overturned, or entirely disregarded. The mere act of having contracted a debt which cannot be easily discharged, may no doubt on many occasions, prove prejudicial to the creditor, but it does not, *prima facie*, appear to be a crime of a deeper dye, than that of setting fire to our neighbour's house, or the depriving a fellow subject of life. Yet the simply proving of this fact, without any respect being paid to the amount of the debt, or the circumstances that occasioned the failure of payment, is deemed a sufficient reason for withdrawing from the debtor the protection of the judge; for depriving him of the means of vindicating his innocence before an impartial jury of his countrymen; and for delivering him into the power of an enraged creditor, who may, if he shall so incline, without controul, inflict upon him a punishment, that shall be more severe than death itself. And it is in this land of freedom, which boasts of the protection the laws afford to every individual, that such things are permitted! Is it in this land, where humanity is universally cherished, that such cruelty is tolerated! Is it in this land where freedom is adored, that such a horrid species of slavery is suffered to prevail! It is even so. And ought we not be ashamed to vaunt of our freedom, to glory in our spirit of humanity, or to pride ourselves on the justice of our laws, while this system of legal barbarity is suffered to exist among us? A debtor may have doubtless become such through misfortunes, as well as from a criminal conduct. Why then, should he alone be liable to suffer the severe punishment of guilt, before even an attempt shall have been made to prove, that such guilt does actually exist? The only apology that can be offered, for our having so long tolerated so barbarous a system, is, that the unhappy sufferers are in general shut

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up from public view, and thus have been in a great measure inadvertently disregarded; and that perhaps, among the efforts that have been made to alter the condition of debtors, the tendency of the measures proposed, have been suspected, rather as adopted to screen the guilty offender from punishment, than to protect the innocent sufferer.

In the following hints that I shall beg leave to offer, with a view to introduce into this department of civil polity, some part of that equity, moderation and lenity, which characterise our laws in other respects, my aim shall be, to protect the innocent from unjust severity, but not to screen the guilty from punishment; and to secure the rights of the creditor, in a way at least more effectually, than they are under the present system. How far the following regulations would tend to produce these effects, the reader will judge.

1. After a debt has been fairly constituted by law, let the creditor, as at present, be authorised to seize, not only *the effects* of the debtor wherever they can be found, but *his person* also. I believe in England, a creditor is only authorised to take one of these, either the person or the effects of the debtor; in Scotland, he may lay hold on both if he shall so incline, and secure his person in jail, until he shall either make payment of the debt, or, if that be not in his power, shall make a full surrendry of his effects in favour of his creditors. After this is done, the debtor shall be entitled to be discharged from prison, unless in the cases that shall be afterwards specified.

2. But that no unnecessary delay may take place in regard to this transaction, every debtor thus committed to prison, shall be entitled to be carried by a writ of *habeas corpus*, as soon after his commitment as he shall incline, before a proper judge, the imprisoning creditor having got due intimation when the surrendry is to be made: where the debtor having declared, that he is

unable at the time to make full payment of his debts, and given answers to such queries as his creditors shall propose to him, shall be allowed to make a full surrendry of his effects in favour of his creditors, and in that surrendry he shall specify upon oath the various particulars of these effects to the utmost of his power, intimating at the same time where they are lodged; a copy of which surrendry shall be delivered to the creditor or his agent at the time. And if he or they shall then declare themselves satisfied with the surrendry, the prisoner shall be immediately discharged. But if the creditor shall demand time to examine the act of surrendry, the judge shall allow him a space of time, not under *three* days, nor exceeding *six*, to examine it. The debtor during that time to be remanded back to prison, unless he shall find sureties, for his reappearance at the time specified. And if within that space the creditor makes no objection, the prisoner shall at the end of the time specified, be entitled to a discharge; the creditor or creditors in the interval of time, having power to cite the debtor before them, to answer such queries, as they shall think proper to propose to him.

3. In case of enlargement of the prisoner by either of these methods, the person who arrested him shall be bound to pay the prison dues and all other *indispensible* charges incurred by the prisoner, reserving a right to repayment of this out of the debtor's effects, if they shall amount to so much, *after payment of all his legal debts at the time*. But in case the effects shall fall short of this, the expence shall be born entirely by the creditor himself, and he shall not be entitled to repayment at any future period.

4. But if, at the time the act of surrendry was made, or at the time specified by the judge for that reappearance of the parties, the creditor shall make oath before a judge, that he has reason to believe; and is himself convinced, either that the surrendry has not been quite complete and fair, or that the debtor has been guilty

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of culpable conduct, he shall, in that case, be entitled to demand a warrant for detaining the prisoner for the space of days, until he can be brought to a fair and open trial, to ascertain whether or not he has been guilty of the crimes laid to his charge.

5. Hitherto, if I mistake not, our law only takes cognizance of *frauds* in bankrupt cases, the punishment of which is death; but as there may be smaller delinquencies which ought not to be allowed to escape unpunished, though death would be deemed too severe; these delinquencies may be specified by the name of *culpable conduct*; the punishment for which trespasses, might be pillory or imprisonment, or both, at the discretion of the judge, according to the degree of delinquency proved. The creditor, therefore, should be at liberty to bring his action for one or the other trespass, as he should see cause. If the affidavit run for a *fraud*, the culprit should be remanded to prison. But if the accusation went no farther than *culpable conduct*, the judge should be empowered to admit the debtor to bail, on his being able to find sureties to a sufficient amount, who shall become bound for his appearance at the trial*.

6. In all cases of this sort, both in *Scotland* and *England*, the trial shall be by jury only.

7. If upon trial, the prosecutor shall fail in his proof, so as that the jury *acquits* the prisoner, the judge shall immediately declare him free at the bar: Nor shall the debtor after his acquittal be liable to be again incarce-

* It is submitted, whether in this case it would not be reasonable to require the sureties to become bound for the payment of a sum equal to the amount of *the whole debt* due to the deponent or deponents, who shall appear and make oath on this occasion. And that in case of forfeiting the bail bond, the money recovered upon this occasion shall go wholly into the pocket of the deponent or deponents without communicating it to any of the other creditors; and the sureties in this case shall come in the place of the creditor or creditors whom they have paid, and be entitled to rank among the creditors of the bankrupt for the sum they have paid, and as such, shall obtain a proportional dividend of his effects.

rated, or brought to a trial at any future period, for any thing respecting debts that were owing by him *at the time of his bankruptcy*. The prosecutor, in this case, to be liable in all costs *without recourse*. If, on the contrary, the jury shall find the prisoner *guilty*, the judge will of course pronounce the sentence that the law awards. In this case, the expence of the prosecution shall be paid out of the debtor's effects, *before a dividend takes place among the creditors*.

7. If the jury shall perceive that circumstances upon the trial appear so suspicious as to make them hesitate about pronouncing the prisoner *innocent*, though the proofs are not so direct as to authorise them to pronounce him *guilty*, they may return a *special verdict*, which shall imply that the prisoner may be detained for the space of *days longer*, till a new trial can be brought forward. In this case, the expences already incurred, shall be paid by the prosecutor, who shall not be entitled to draw any part of it out of the debtor's effects; but it shall constitute a new claim against the prisoner, the repayment of which the creditor may afterwards enforce by any means in his power, under the conditions to be after specified.

8. Where the jury give a *special verdict*, the prisoner shall be bailable or not, as before, according to the nature of the crime he is charged with.

9. And if a second, or any subsequent jury shall give another *special verdict*, the prisoner may be again and again brought to trial, till a jury shall see proper either to acquit or to condemn him. And as to the expences incurred by each of these trials, including every thing from the time of the former trial, the nature of the sentence of each jury shall determine by whom it shall be borne, according to the rules above laid down; every trial being paid by itself, and not liable to be in any respect affected by the sentence to be pronounced on a subsequent trial.

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10. But in the event of a *special verdict*, the prosecutor shall not be obliged to carry his suit farther than he shall incline; and if, immediately after the trial is over, he shall declare that he declines any farther prosecution, and if no other creditor shall come forward, and make affidavit to the same effect, and agree to go on with the prosecution, the prisoner shall then be dismissed from the bar, though he shall still be liable to be prosecuted for this crime at any future period, until a final dividend of his effects have been made, but no longer. Or if the prosecutor shall relinquish the trial at the time it ought to have come on;—in that case, the prisoner shall be discharged, and the same rule with regard to expences shall take place, as if he had been acquitted by the jury. This does not, however, preclude him from being again brought to trial at any time before the final dividend of his effects, as is specified in the next article.

11. All the cases above specified, only respect those debtors who have been committed to prison, *before their bankruptcy had been declared*. In cases where a bankruptcy had been declared, when the person of the debtor was free, the following regulations with respect to imprisonment, appear to be just and equitable

12. In that case it shall be competent for any creditor, during the whole of the time that shall elapse from the period when the bankruptcy was declared, until the last dividend of the effects shall have been made, to bring the debtor to a trial if he shall see fit, by making an affidavit in the manner above described, and conducting the prosecution in every respect as above.

13. But if no person shall think proper to bring on a trial, before the last dividend shall have been made of the debtor's effects, it shall not be competent ever afterwards, to bring on a trial for any thing respecting that bankruptcy; and the *person* of the debtor shall, as to these debts, be ever after free from arrest.

14. By this mode of procedure, the *person* of the debtor would be free, unless where he had been convicted of a *crime*. But it is by no means intended, that he should be thus freed from those debts that still remain unpaid, after all his effects have been sold. These debts, *while undischarged*, shall remain a burden upon him, and upon his heirs, in all time to come. Nor shall any individual creditor be compellable to grant a discharge of his own particular debt, by any mode of procedure whatever, unless he shall choose to do it *voluntarily* and of his own accord. The law which at present exists in England, by which the consent of a certain proportion of the creditors, necessarily grants a discharge from the whole, and that law in Scotland, which in certain circumstances grants a general discharge from all debts, having been only adopted to mitigate the severity of our law respecting imprisonment, and being evidently a great infringement of private right, and liable to considerable abuses, ought to be entirely abrogated as unnecessary, were the system here proposed adopted. For the same reason, it would seem proper, that all sanctuaries for debt, ought also in this sense to be done away as unnecessary, and liable to abuse; and general acts of insolvency could no longer be necessary.

15. In every case where a bankruptcy is incurred, and a surrendry of effects of course takes place, the same regulations that now are in force, for bringing the effects to a ready sale, and dividing the produce equally among the whole creditors, may still subsist till other regulations shall be devised, that may promise to be more efficacious.

16. But after a bankruptcy has once taken place, and a subsequent equal dividend been made among the creditors, though the claims of each of these creditors continue to be good against the debtor for all the unextinguished parts of their debts; yet no one of these shall have power to bring on a second bankruptcy for

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these debts; but each creditor shall have a power, legally to seize on the *effects* of the debtor wherever they can be found, and to apply them to *his own use*, without communicating any part of them to the other creditors, until his whole claim shall be finally extinguished.

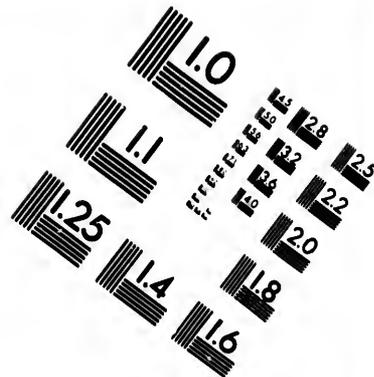
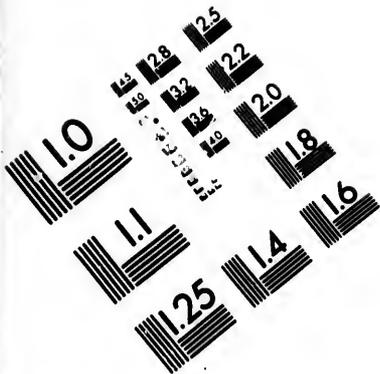
17. But if the debtor shall contract any *new debts* subsequent to his bankruptcy either to these former creditors or others, if a sequestration of effects shall be made for any of these *new debts*, while the debtor is not able to satisfy all claims upon him; this shall necessarily bring on a new bankruptcy, which must as necessarily produce an equal dividend of the produce of the debtor's whole effects among all his creditors at the time; and on this event, the *old* creditors shall rank the same as the *new*, in proportion to the amount of their respective claims.

18. *New debtors* in this case, shall have the same power to imprison and to bring the debtor to a trial, as if it had been a first bankruptcy.

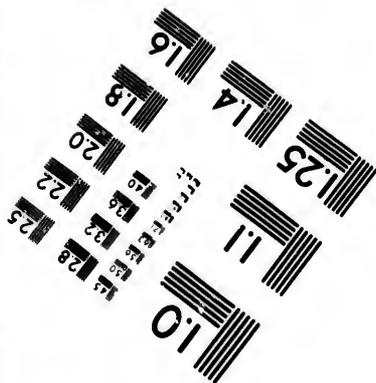
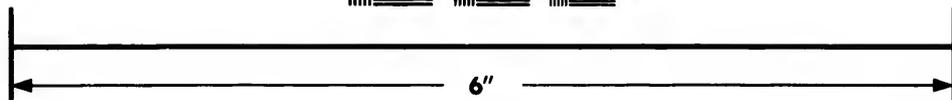
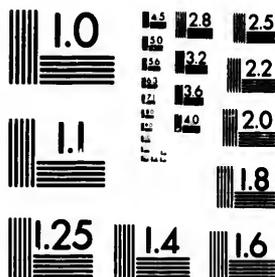
19. But that a man, who, notwithstanding the outstanding debts against him, has his person thus protected from danger of imprisonment may be enabled to earn his bread, it should be enacted, that in all cases of arrest or sequestration of effects, the necessary tools for working in his profession ought to be excepted, as also, one suit at least of body clothes for himself and each individual of his family. As many bedclothes likewise should be protected, as should be deemed reasonably sufficient to defend the whole family from suffering by cold, and so many of the kitchen utensils of the plainest sort, as are necessary for readying common victuals for the family, without which it does not seem that persons can easily subsist in a state of civil society.

20. And that no abuses might be suffered to creep in under this pretext, it shall be specially required on every surrendry of effects, that these excepted goods be all produced before the creditors at the time, to be inspected by them; and if those produced shall be judged of a kind





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too fine, or too costly for the occasion, these may be retained, if the creditors shall so incline; and others more plain, though equally serviceable, to be substituted in their stead. In every case, the whole goods excepted shall be enumerated, and specially described in the act of surrendry; and any unfair concealment in this respect shall be accounted a fraud, and shall be liable to be prosecuted as such.

21. Should these regulations be adopted, though it would not be possible in any circumstances to *compel* any creditor *involuntarily* to grant a discharge until his whole claim was paid up; yet it is by no means intended to prevent a debtor from obtaining a relief from the pressure of his debts by means of a *voluntary* discharge from such of his creditors as might choose to grant it, upon any terms of composition they shall think proper to accept.

By these few regulations, it appears to me, that the *person* of a debtor would be as much protected, as justice and sound policy could demand; and his power of enjoying life as much preserved, as seems to be consistent with the just rights of his creditors. Fraudulent bankruptcies would in these circumstances be much less easily carried into effect than at present, and creditors would have a far better chance of obtaining payment of their debts, than they can ever have under our present system of laws.

It will be readily remarked, that these regulations would be beneficial, chiefly in regard to debtors *in the lower ranks of life*; who are, according to our present system of laws, particularly liable to be oppressed by small debts, and the community thus deprived of the benefit of their labour. It is such persons chiefly, who, from their being unobserved by the great body of the people, are allowed to pine in these mansions of misery and villany, while their wretched families, deprived of that labour which should be their support, become an oppressive burden on the industrious part of the community, or a severe scourge on the

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nation at large. It is perhaps impossible to compute the full amount of the benefits that society would derive from this measure; but taken in this point of view, it is obvious it must be very great.

With regard to debtors of note, who are in general greatly more culpable than those in lower rank, as they attract the attention of the people, the spirit of the times affords them a protection, against suffering undue severities in prison.—But such debtors would find it a much more difficult matter than they now do, to shake themselves free from the effects of a bankruptcy, and afterwards to live in affluence and splendor, while many of their creditors were, through their means, reduced to poverty and want.

Further explanations on this subject will be given in our next.

For the Bee.

On the Prevalence of Error.

TRUTH is reality; error is nonentity. The *one* is the source of *good*, the other of *evil* to the human race.—In proportion to the detestation of honest men towards every species of delusion, deception and falsehood, so should be their efforts in removing ignorance, inconsideration, undue prejudice, precipitance of judgment, and unjust discrimination as to the respective importance of different subjects and pursuits; all of which give countenance and support to the *prevalence* of error among mankind.

Whatever be the subject under consideration, a due *knowledge* of it is an indispensable requisite, towards a *true judgment* thereof. Mankind, therefore, should endeavour to balance the *value of knowledge*, against the *temptations to ignorance*, peculiar to their respective situations in life. Thus, in high rank, the allurements to inferior pleasure, would more often lose their influ-

ence, in the contemplation of the more solid joys of reason:—Secular care and an anxiety for riches, would in the middle class, be less generally put in *competition* with an enlightened understanding;—while those in the lower walks of human life, would be more apt to grasp at every opportunity of instruction, which had a tendency to elevate their minds, and to enable them the better to exercise their own faculties.

The habits of men, are greatly formed by education and circumstances. Often the *one* is deficient, and the *other* unfavourable towards mental improvement. Often too, the persons themselves, are insensible of their loss in *both*, and thus rest satisfied.—Ignorance and error in these, are more to be lamented than blamed. There are others however, who have been early taught more enlarged ideas and better sentiments, who have also met with due encouragement to improve them, but nevertheless, discover an insensibility to the worth of knowledge and truth, that can only be accounted for, from an *inattention* to their importance. Some favourite passion, pursuit, or external circumstance, or all of these, engross their whole thoughts. Hence arise contracted sentiments, false conclusions, and misapplication of talents. A reflecting mind will not so allow itself to waste its powers upon inferior considerations, to the neglect of the noblest of all pursuits, that of truth. Would men duly contemplate the value of wisdom, they would grasp at the *means* of it.

Truth is *one* unchangeable thing; but almost every country has established truths of its own, and each looks upon the other as possessed of *error*. Nay, there is something *peculiar* that belongs to the mode of thinking and judging of every individual; and hence the *same thing* will appear to different men in a different point of view. As soon as mankind come to years of understanding, they are initiated into the principles of their parents, or of the country where they chance to live; and early impressions are generally permanent and last-

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ing. To the *ideas* we have picked up in early life, how apt are we to cherish a fond affection? When *these* chance to be founded on *truth*, the *prejudice* in their favour, becomes *useful*, but if on *error*, extremely *pernicious*. Often in *both* cases however, they are more the effect of *feeling* and *education*, than the result of *our own inquiry and investigation*. Hence people often venerate what they do not sufficiently know, and make a great ado, about what they are unable to give a reason for. To hear the truth of their principles called in question, startles and astonishes them; and as they are not aware of objections, they will often admit none. They are hot and impatient under contradiction, and often uncharitable in their treatment. Thus it is that undue prejudice narrows and contracts the mind, that it stops the progress of truth and virtue in the world, and cherishes hatred and malevolence among mankind. A man devoid of it, and possessed of true liberality of mind, who regards truth above every other consideration, sets to work in order to find it out *for himself*, perfectly regardless where it may be found, whether among the *many* or the *few*, or where it may lead him, providing he discover it. This is buying the truth; and after he has thus bought it, he will not sell it, nor make any mean compliances with the world inconsistent therewith. He knows that from *various* considerations, mankind *must* differ in opinion: this teaches him candour and modesty, well knowing that truth exists; and that in however *varied* shapes it may appear in the world, it will *finally* prevail and exhibit its own native lustre.

Precipitance of judgment, is unfavourable to the interests of truth. When a man is impatient in his inquiries; when he will not be at pains to procure the requisite information; when he will not coolly and deliberately weigh and digest arguments; when he infers *general* conclusions from *particular* cases; when he allows his mind to dwell too much on one side of an argument, to the neglect of every other consideration

which relate to the subject in hand; when he retails as *truth*, what he picks up from *doubtful* report and *general* conversation; when he is *much* prepossessed by new external appearances and circumstances; when he is carried away by a love of novelty, or a propensity to singularity; when the fear of deviating from beaten paths retards the progress of his enquiries; be it from these, or whatever cause, when a man fully decides upon any one thing, so as to make it a principle of his own, previous to his giving it a complete investigation, he runs an eminent risk of falling into *error*, and of being the mean of diffusing it in some degree or other.

Man being an imperfect being, he often stamps a *superior* value upon *inferior* objects. Prone to imitation, he frequently values and pursues things frivolous in themselves, from no other reason than because they are *customary*, *fashionable*, or *generally* adopted. There are many, who are much more solicitous to ornament their *bodies* than their *minds*; who prefer unprofitable amusement, to those which enrich the understanding; who place their chief happiness in the acquisition of riches; and who, in short, are anxiously careful about trifles, while important matters are by them much neglected. Not that worldly enjoyments are to be despised; they claimour gratitude: but it is a preposterous way of judging, to give them that place in our attention and regard, to which from their nature they are not entitled. Error, false maxims and conclusions, in this case, usurp that place, due to the search of truth and propriety. Ideas are easily transferred from one case to another; their prevalence increases; habit renders them so familiar, as that their unsuitable station is scarce perceived; and thus the means of wisdom are weakened and undermined. It is the business of reason, to value every object according to its *real worth* in the scale of importance, and amidst *varied* pursuits, to give the *preference* to those which in their nature challenge it.

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Many more causes might be assigned for the prevalence of error; but it is more properly the business of the preacher than the moralist to point them out.

CANDIDUS.

Of Gypsum or Plaster of Paris as a Manure.

It is about a dozen of years since this substance was discovered to operate as a powerful manure, in certain circumstances, in France: But since the noise it made at the beginning, we have heard little more of it. Most of our readers have of late heard from the public papers, of the wonderful effects that have resulted from the use of it in North America. Some trials of gypsum, as a manure, have been made in England, without the desired success; one by Mr. Arthur Young, and two other experiments by Sir Richard Sutton. But though these failed, there seems to be no reason to doubt, from the facts stated below, that in certain circumstances, this substance acts in a most powerful manner as a manure. It is of much importance to the practical farmer, to know what are the peculiarities of soil, and circumstances of crop that will insure him success; but these can only be ascertained by fair and accurate experiments, made with care, and reported with fidelity. In the mean time, from what has already happened, let our young farmers be warned to moderate their expectations of success, until they shall have tried it on their own fields in small quantities, so as that the failure cannot materially affect their interest: But the accounts that follow are so well attested, as to prove a sufficient inducement, I should imagine, to make every spirited farmer try it on his own soil, without trusting to the report of any other person.

In agriculture, perhaps, more than any other science, men ought to be extremely cautious in drawing general conclusions from particular facts, as our knowledge is

at best so limited, as to prevent us from being able to know with certainty the cause of any one phenomenon that occurs, respecting rural operations. That gypsum should in some cases act as a very powerful manure, while in other cases it shall prove quite inert, is nothing surprising: Many other manures are in the same predicament. Lime, in some cases, fertilizes land to an astonishing degree; and in other cases it produces no sort of effect at all. Both these I have myself experienced: and though I know theories have been applied to account for this peculiarity, that are in the mouth of every student of agriculture, yet I can with great truth assert, that I have seen these opposite effects produced on two soils, that were so much alike in every circumstance, that I could not perhaps have distinguished the one from the other, before the experiment was tried; and I have known several other manures that have produced effects equally opposite on soils *apparently* alike. Let no one therefore conclude, although his trials of the manure should prove abortive, that others will not find it answer with them; neither let him rashly infer, that because others have had wonderful success, he is certain of experiencing the same. A spirited improver will always endeavour to advance whenever he sees a path opened before him; but if he has *prudence*, he will advance with cautious circumspection, and stop whenever experience teaches him he can go no farther with profit. With these cautions, I willingly lay the following interesting papers before my readers.

Extract of a Letter from a Gentleman in the State of Pennsylvania to his Friend in Quebec.

“ You have inclosed some account of the experiments and use of the gypsum, or plaster of Paris; if any further communication be necessary, you shall have it.

“ I see by an account of a late publication of Arthur Young's, he mentions it as being useful as a manure,

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but how far he has published the use of it in England, I do not know; as yet I have not been able to procure a sight of his treatise.

“ This manure has produced a great revolution in agriculture. The fine watered and banked meadows in this country, are no longer held in the estimation they were; our dry poor uplands, from the effect of this valuable and cheap manure, are infinitely more productive, and more valuable, than the best low lands, I mean for grass: in short, the value of farm-yard manure is also much lessened; *for it is cheaper for the farmer to purchase the plaster at two-thirds of a dollar per bushel, for his grass land, than to draw out his dung thereon.*

“ This discovery exceeds credibility; it puzzles the philosopher, and astonishes the farmer. Indeed, it tells us all reasoning hitherto extended to the principles of vegetation, was without foundation; and that the human race are in a total state of ignorance respecting it.”

Experiments on Gypsum as a Manure.

“ In answer to your queries respecting gypsum or plaster of Paris, I shall give you as full information as I can, consistent with my own and neighbour's experiments.

“ The best kind is imported from hills in the vicinity of Paris; it is brought down the Seine by water, and is exported from Havre de Grace. I am informed there are large beds of it up the Bay of Fundy, some of which I have seen nearly as good as that from France; but several cargoes brought from thence to Philadelphia, have been used without effect. It is probable this was taken from the top of the ground, and was, by the influence of the sun and atmosphere, dispossessed of the qualities necessary for the purpose of vegetation. The lumps composed of flat shining *specularis*, are preferred to those which are formed of round particles like sand; when pulverized, and put dry in an iron pot over the fire, that which is good will soon boil, and great quantities of the fixed air escape by ebullition. It is pulve-

rized by first stamping it in a stamping mill, and then grinding it in a common grist mill. The finer its pulverization, the better; it will thereby be more generally diffused. It is best to sow it in a wet day; but if that is not convenient, it should be a little moistened, when you can sow it at any time. The most approved quantity for grass, is six bushels per acre. No art is required in sowing it, more than making its distribution as equal as possible on the sward of grass. It operates altogether as a top manure, and therefore should not be put on in the spring, until the operation of the frost is over, nor until vegetation hath begun. The general time for sowing it is in April, May, June, July, August, and even as late as September. Its effect will generally appear in ten or fifteen days; after which the growth of the grass will be so great as to produce a large burden at the end of six weeks after sowing. It must be sown on dry land, not subject to overflow. I have sown it on sand, loam, and clay; and it is difficult to say on which it has best answered, although the effect is sooner visible on the sand. It has been used as a manure in this State for upwards of twelve years. Its duration may, from the best information I can collect, be estimated from seven to ten years; for, like other manures, its continuance must very much depend on the nature of the soil on which it is placed. One of my neighbours sowed a piece of his grass ground six years ago—another sowed a field four years ago—a great part of my own farm was sown in May 1788.—We regularly mow two crops, and pasture in the Autumn. No appearance of failure, the present crop being full as good as any preceding. I have this season mowed about fifty acres of red clover, timothy, white clover, &c. which were plastered last May, July and September. Many who saw the grass, estimated the produce at two tons per acre; but I calculate for the two crops three tons. Several strips were left in the different

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fields without plaster; these were unproductive, and not worth mowing.

"In April 1788, I covered a small piece of grass ground upwards of two inches thick, with farm-yard manure, in the same worn out field. I sowed plaster to contrast it with the dung. I mowed the dunged and plastered land twice last year, and once this: in every crop, the plaster has produced the most. You will remember, in all your experiments with clover, you should mix about one third of timothy-grass seed; it is of great advantage in serving as a support for the clover, as it prevents it from falling; it very much facilitates the airing of the clover, and when aired, is a superior fodder. The plaster operates equally as well on the other grasses as on clover. Its effect is said to be good, if sown in the spring, on wheat; but this I cannot say from experience. On Indian corn, I know its operation to be great. We use it at the rate of a table spoonful for a hill, put on immediately after dressing. From some accurate experiments last year, and reported to our Agriculture Society, it appears, that nine bushels of additional corn per acre was produced by this much of plaster. As the use of this cheap and extraordinary manure has now become very general in this State, and many accurate and judicious farmers are now making experiments therewith, I doubt not but its uses at the close of the season will be better known, and further extended; when I shall be happy to make a communication thereof to you.

Experiments &c. on the Plaster of Paris, made in the Province of Pennsylvania;—Communicated by a Gentleman in Quebec, Member of the Agricultural Society.

Copy of a Letter from Robert Morris to Jesse Lawrence.

"After the conversation which passed between thee and me, on the subject of plaster of Paris, I conceived it might not be improper to give thee an account of the several trials which I have made with it as a manure

for land. Perhaps it might have been in the year 1775, that it was recommended to me as a manure for land: I accordingly purchased five bushels; yet my faith therein was so weak, that it lay by me until 1778, when, in the month of March, I sowed at the rate of two bushels and a half per acre, on some ground which I had tilled and sowed with clover seed, the spring preceding, leaving a piece in the middle not sown, and likewise on each side. That season, where there was no plaster sown, the clover stood on the ground about twelve inches high; but where the plaster was sown, the clover stood, upon an average, thirty-four inches high. This ground I mowed for about four seasons after; I found it to have less grass every year, though that which was sown with the plaster had as much more in proportion as the first year. I afterwards ploughed up all this ground, except a quarter of an acre; upon this I again put plaster of Paris, in the year 1785; and no other manure whatever since 1778; and it is now in much better order than it was at that time, and it has produced me about two tons of hay every year since, for the first crop, and a tolerable good second crop, and sometimes a third crop, or very good pasture; though the last time I manured it, I put in the proportion of six bushels of plaster to an acre. I have likewise made many experiments otherwise; I have tried it with Indian corn, where it does tolerably well; with buck-wheat, and it makes it grow so rapidly, that it has always fallen down, and I have lost my crop. I have tried it with wheat; and it is not possible to discover that it makes any difference when sown on the crop; but when it is sown on grass ground, and this ground turned up and laid down in wheat, it is amazing the advantage it is of to the crop. Last fall was a year, I put down about eight acres of wheat, which I harrowed in, and then sowed clover seed, which came up, and looked very fine in the fall; but the winter being very severe, with but little snow, the clover was dead in the spring; when I sowed it again with

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clover seed, and about six bushels of plaster of Paris to the acre; and by harvest time I had clover all over the piece, about twelve inches high, and which I mowed in about two or three weeks after my wheat was cut; I believe I might have cut a full ton of hay off from each acre; and I am well satisfied, that if I had not put any plaster of Paris on it, I should not have had any grass that I could have cut. I have likewise sold this manure to many people in this State, as well as in New-Jersey, Maryland, Delaware, &c.; and after trial, their applications to me have been very great, which induces me to believe they have found the like benefits from the use of it as I have myself.

With respect, I am thy friend,

ROBERT MORRIS."

Philadelphia, Feb. 15, 1789.

"I, Clement Biddle, Esq. Notary Public for the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, duly commissioned and qualified, do certify, that Robert Morris, miller and farmer of the county of Philadelphia, by whom the foregoing writing, certified by him in his hand-writing, to me well known, is a person of good character and reputation, and that I have been on his farm, and have seen great appearance of improvement in the produce thereof, from the use of plaster of Paris; and am of opinion, that credit is due to his certificate before written, relative thereto. The said plaster of Paris came from Nova Scotia, and is of great repute.

"In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand, and fixed my notorial seal, at Philadelphia, this 18th day of February, 1789.

CLEMENT BIDDLE, N. P."

Thoughts on the Corn Laws,

With a view to the proposed new Corn Bill.

By the Editor.

AT the present time, when the attention of the country is called to consider the nature of the corn-laws, a few observations on that subject will not be deemed unreasonable.

For a good many years past, our corn-laws have been only temporary enactments, with a view, as it would seem, to give time for discovering what was the best system to be adopted in this important department. It is now proposed to make a *permanent* law, with the avowed intention of continuing unaltered for a great many years; it is therefore of much importance that the subject should *now* be coolly discussed; so that such errors as may permanently affect the welfare of the country may be avoided.

The subject is avowedly of great importance; and the investigation of it is attended with intricacy. A difference of opinion therefore, in many particulars, may take place even among those men who have made political economy a principal object of their attention: But among the great body of the people, who have never been accustomed to judge with precision on such intricate subjects, a still greater variety of sentiments must prevail. Truth, however, which is all that either party can in this case search for, can only be discovered by a calm and unprejudiced investigation; and it will be well, if every person when he begins it, will try to divest himself of prejudices which tend to confound, but never can enlighten mankind.

In considering the corn-laws, there are two leading questions that require to be separately examined, viz.
1st. Is a bounty on the exportation of corn, under the best regulations that can be adopted, capable of pro-

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moting the good of the community at large; or the reverse?

If this question should be resolved in the affirmative, it will next be necessary to consider, what regulations the trade in this article ought to be put under, so as to produce the greatest good, and avoid inconveniencies as much as possible.

With regard to the first of these questions, which shall furnish the subject of our present discussion, men of great eminence have ranged themselves on opposite sides. From the time a bounty on the exportation of corn was granted in Britain, about a hundred years ago, till a few years past, it was the fashion to consider a bounty as highly beneficial. But of late, a man of great eminence, whose name will long be held in respect by political enquirers †, has ventured to reprobate this system as absurd, and has of course got many followers. He contends that such a bounty on exportation of corn, gives birth to many frauds and inconveniencies, which he thinks might be totally removed by granting an unlimited freedom to this kind of traffic, as well as to trade of every other kind.

There is something so apparently liberal in this idea, that it is apt to captivate the mind, and to dispose ingenious persons to wish his system may be founded on truth; and the respect that is justly due to every opinion of a man of such eminence forbids that it should be slightly passed over: but in a case of so much importance, it is necessary to proceed with great caution. Since the time that the bounty was granted, this country is well known to have prospered abundantly; and though this circumstance does not furnish an argument that alone should be deemed conclusive, it affords sufficient grounds for proceeding with the utmost caution before this system be departed from.

The great objects to be aimed at in a corn law, are, to encourage the growth of grain in this country, to keep the

† Doctor Adam Smith, Author of the Wealth of Nations.

average price of that commodity, as nearly the same as possible, and as low as circumstances can permit. The regulations which tend in the most effectual manner to do these things, are without doubt the best; and it is such a system alone that should obtain the support of every patriotic member of the community. As to the plan calculated to keep the prices of grain permanently higher than they might otherwise be, if ever such a plan was devised, it ought to be reprobated with horror by every honest man; or if it could be carried into practice, it should be guarded against with the most anxious solicitude. The attempt, however, I think, would be equally vain, as impolitic and villainous.

Agriculture is a manufacture, and must, like other manufactures, be carried on at a certain expence of stock and labour; which expence, must be repaid by the price of the produce, otherwise the business cannot be carried on. The same reasoning, therefore, that will apply to manufactures in general, will also apply to agriculture in this respect.

There is perhaps no position less generally liable to exception than this: "That the surest way of bringing any branch of manufacture to the very lowest price that it can possibly be afforded for, is to provide such a market for that article as can never be overstocked; so that manufacturers, however numerous, shall be always certain of getting money at the time they find it necessary, without being obliged to let the goods lie long on hand, or to sell them greatly below prime cost." The reason for this is plain. When a manufacturer finds a constant ready market for his goods, he is at liberty to extend his business as far as he finds it convenient, and to adopt every contrivance for diminishing the expence, that ingenuity, aided by a suitable capital, can devise; and as the risk in this case is inconsiderable, he is contented with a much smaller share of profit, than would be necessary to induce him to engage in any branch of

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business that was more precarious. Hence it ever must happen, that in manufactures thus circumstanced, larger capitals will be employed, greater ingenuity will be exerted, more permanent establishments will be adopted than in those that are less steady. In this manner, the actual prime cost to the manufacturer will be considerably diminished; and as the owner will be at the same time induced to be content with a smaller rate of profit than he otherwise would have required, it must happen that from a concurrence of both causes, the price of the commodity at market, by a general competition of many individuals, will be reduced to the very lowest rate for which it can be afforded.

Apply this doctrine to agriculture, and it will appear that a bounty on exportation, in a country situated like Britain, ought to tend in a powerful manner to moderate, upon the whole, the price of grain.—By means of that bounty, a more steady market, in years of plenty, is provided for corn on the sea-coasts, than could otherwise be obtained for it; and, of course, farmers are never afraid of overstocking the market, or of ever spending a thought, how they may diminish their produce, so as not to over-supply the demand.—Their whole attention and care, therefore, will be applied towards the augmenting the quantity of their produce, and diminishing the expence of obtaining it.

From this consideration alone, the beneficial effects of a bounty must be apparent to any considerate mind, even from reasoning only.—But the truth of this reasoning is still more abundantly confirmed by well-known facts, the only sure criterion of truth in matters of this sort.

Norfolk and Suffolk are the principal places from whence grain has been exported from Britain under the influence of the bounty.—If that bounty tended to raise the price of grain *upon the whole*, as those who disapprove of it contend, it ought necessarily to happen that the average prices in these countries ought to be higher

than the average prices of the same kind of grain in other parts of the kingdom, from whence no exportation has ever been made.—But so far is this from being the case, that it appears by the annexed tables, copied from the London Gazette, that on an average of ten years past, the price of wheat in these countries has been at least four shillings a quarter below the average prices of all England†. And if the average of the inland counties alone, where the operation of the bounty law cannot take place, had been taken, the price in these maritime counties would have been nearly eight shillings the quarter, or one shilling the bushel lower than the inland counties.—Whether the bounty has been actually the sole cause of such a very great fall in the average price of grain on the sea-coast, I will not positively assert;—but from this palpable fact, there is not any room

† *Average Price of Wheat for 18 years from the 5th of January 1770, to the 5th of January 1789.*

Of all England.			In Norfolk.			In Suffolk.		
Years.	£.	s. d.	Years.	£.	s. d.	Years.	£.	s. d.
1771,	2	7 2	1771,	2	4 0	1771,	2	0 8
72,	2	10 8	72,	2	8 0	72,	2	6 8
73,	2	11 0	73,	2	10 8	73,	2	10 0
74,	2	12 8	74,	2	8 0	74,	2	6 0
75,	2	8 4	75,	2	5 4	75,	2	4 8
76,	1	18 2	76,	1	14 0	76,	1	18 0
77,	2	5 6	77,	2	0 8	77,	2	0 8
78,	2	2 0	78,	2	0 0	78,	1	18 8
79,	1	13 8	79,	1	11 4	79,	1	11 4
80,	1	15 8	80,	1	12 8	80,	1	12 0
81,	2	4 8	81,	2	6 0	81,	2	2 8
82,	2	7 10	82,	2	3 4	82,	2	3 4
83,	2	12 8	83,	2	8 0	83,	2	6 8
84,	2	8 10	84,	2	7 4	84,	2	5 4
85,	2	1 10	85,	2	0 0	85,	1	16 0
86,	1	18 10	86,	1	14 8	86,	1	12 8
87,	2	1 2	87,	1	17 8	87,	1	16 8
88,	2	5 0	88,	2	2 0	88,	2	0 8
Average,	2	4 8	Average,	2	1 10	Average,	2	0 8

to doubt, that it has been the cause of a very great fall in the price in the maritime parts of the kingdom; and that that fall of price on the coasts must also have moderated the price of grain in the midland counties, cannot admit of a doubt. In this point of view, therefore, the bounty has been clearly beneficial, as tending directly to moderate the price of grain.

Should it be alleged, that a free importation and exportation of corn would have produced the same effect, I would answer that this could not be expected. Grain is a bulky article, and cannot be moved from place to place, but at a great expence. The warehousing and freight of it, therefore, amounts to so much, that were not some contrivance adopted for diminishing these articles, the market for it would be so unsteady, as to reduce the price, in years of great plenty, much below the prime cost of it to the farmer, which would discourage him from prosecuting that business with spirit, and make him raise so little in future, as to keep the prices in general very high, as is at present the case in the midland counties in England, where, although the soil be much richer than in many of the maritime shires, the farmers find it more their interest to apply their fields to grazing, than to agriculture; and therefore, cannot rear grain, unless they get a higher price for it, than the farmers along the coast are well content to receive.

These observations might be extended much farther, and illustrated by many cases that could easily be produced: But this would be too long a discussion for this miscellany. To the above, I shall therefore only add one other consideration, that deserves to be well attended to, as a consequence of the law, authorising a bounty on the exportation of corn; and which will not readily occur to those who are not acquainted with the practice of agriculture, as well as with the theory of commerce.

It was observed by Swift, with his usual acuteness, "that he who raises two stalks of corn, where only one grew before, does a more essential service to the community, than the greatest politician that ever existed;" and the observation is well founded.—He who produces a greater quantity of human sustenance in a state, than it would otherwise have afforded, may be said, in a certain sense, to produce more men, and thus to add to the power and the strength of the state, in the most unequivocal manner. Individuals, however, in their own operations, can only attend, each to his own immediate profit; and it ought to be the study of an enlightened legislature, to adopt such regulations as shall naturally tend to render the profit of individuals contributive to the general prosperity of the state. Now, it so happens, that the bounty on grain exported produces precisely this effect;—for, by affording a ready market for the produce of cultivated fields, it stimulates the owners of waste lands properly situated, to convert them into corn fields, and thus to augment their natural produce, perhaps a hundred-fold beyond what it otherwise would have been. These fields, also, after being thus once converted into tillage, come in their turn, by the well-understood rotation of crops, to be turned once more into artificial pastures, much more rich and abundant in herbage, than the original heath from which they were recovered.—Thus room is given for still more wastes to be inverted into corn fields, and more corn-lands to be turned into artificial pasture; so that a constant progress in melioration is established, and whole counties are gradually converted into rich fields, which, but for this circumstance, would have remained, to the end of time, barren deserts. Considered in this point of view, the benefits of the bounty on the exportation of corn, are perhaps inestimable to the community.

Nor is this hypothetical reasoning only.—It is supported by the evidence of facts that are strong and un-

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controvertible. In the inland counties of England, where the inducements to the culture of grain are fewer than on the coast, few are the wastes comparatively, that have been converted into tillage; and of course the augmentation of the produce of human food has been *there*, but very inconsiderable; but in the maritime counties of Scotland and of England, the case is very different.—*There* you can scarcely look around you, but you see large tracts of land, now bearing abundant crops of corn and grass, that, within the memory of man, were dreary wastes, or extensive tracts of barren heath. The whole county of Norfolk, which was in some respects become a pattern in agriculture, owes its *creation* if I may adopt a strong term, to this cause. Had it been beyond the reach of the bounty, it would probably have remained, till this day, a barren plain, covered with briars, fern, and other useless plants, with scarce a blade of grass interspersed among them, and not a stalk of corn.—Who can behold the change without astonishment and admiration!

These considerations, without entering upon others in this place, that might be easily adduced, seem to shew, that a bounty on the exportation of corn, *under proper regulations*, may have a natural tendency to benefit the country in a very essential degree.—It by no means follows, however, that the distribution of a bounty cannot be managed in such a way, as to frustrate, in some measure, these beneficent purposes, and to produce certain inconveniencies of a very serious nature, that ought to be guarded against with care. The corn-laws of Britain have, in fact, been hitherto so imperfectly formed, as to be productive of many evil consequences, that ought in future to be guarded against. These evils were observed, and carefully marked by Dr. Smith, which probably induced him, too hastily, to adopt the opinion, that to get rid of these, it would be expedient

to grant no bounty at all *. But if it can be made appear, that these evils have originated, merely from improper arrangements, that admit of being easily corrected, it will be found unnecessary to resort to the dangerous remedy that he has recommended. In considering the second question above announced, occasion will be given, to see whether the law now proposed, is calculated to effect this purpose or not, which shall form the subject of another disquisition in some early number of this work.

Chorus, from Lavinia, a dramatic Poem in five Acts, written on the Model of the ancient Greek Tragedy †.

— SEE where the God of battle comes !
 Terror sits upon his brow ;
 Rage augments his swelling veins,
 Mark ! how from forth his burning eye
 Beamy lightnings flash around.

* The only reason for mentioning Dr. Smith in this paper, is respect to one whose name is deservedly held in such high estimation by every person, who has occasion to examine subjects of the nature here treated. His work has been universally read, and must be expected to have made a deep impression on the minds of many persons who have not had opportunities of forming a decided judgment from their own observations. If therefore, in any case he has erred, (and what human being has not erred) it becomes highly necessary to point out these accidental deviations. I should have had some hesitation, however, to have entered on this disquisition, now that he is dead, had not the substance of these remarks, with many others to the same purport, been published, more than a dozen of years ago, and subjected to his own revival. (See observations on National Industry, lct. xiii, p. 8.) It was since that period, my acquaintance with that liberal minded man commenced; and since then, I have experienced from him many civilities and marks of polite attention. Those who are in search of truth only, consider every one who has the same object in view, as friendly co-operators in one great research, without being offended at accidental difference of opinion.

† This work is proposed to be published by subscription, price 5s. The following note accompanies it.

The author humbly and earnestly solicits the patronage of the public. His fortune has lately sustained a considerable injury, and his health is in a declining state.

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Now he shakes his pond'rous spear.—
 Yet hear, O Mars! a moment hear——
 Think on the Orphan's piercing cries;
 Think on the Matron's streaming eyes;
 Think on the dying Father's speechless woe:—
 Oh! think on these, and yet suspend the blow.

And thou, Bellona! who wert wont
 Across the embattled field to drive
 Thy foaming coursers, urging still
 Thy brother to the burl'd fight,
 The while fell discord rudely dight
 In tatter'd garments flies the car before—
 Her tatter'd garments drench'd (O dreadful fight!) in
 human gore!

To thee we bend. O Goddess! grant our prayer.
 Quick from forth this blood-stain'd plain,
 Turn thy chariot's falchion'd wheels:
 O contemplate yon heaps of slain;
 Think on the pangs our country feels—
 Our country, once of useful arts the nurse,
 Now groaning from a Tyrant's heaviest, deadliest curse.

To the Editor of the Bee.

WHAT name so proper to express
 A well directed plan,
 That boasts the philanthropic aim,
 Of usefulness to man.

The Bee from every opening flower,
 Culls with industrious care,
 Those sweets, which, wrought within her cell,
 Afford delicious fare,

Whether they grace the gay parterre,
 Or deck the humble plain;

From all, some beneficial store
She labours to obtain.

And thus, through all the expanded fields
Of science you may roam
And while selecting foreign sweets,
Enrich your native home!

A simple flowret of the mead,
No stores can I impart,
Yet would I then the wish express
That glows within my heart.

May every liberal, useful art
Adorn this favour'd Isle!
There may the peaceful virtues dwell,
And foster'd genius smile.

And may the labour of the Bee,
To noble ends inclin'd,
Meet success, and obtain applause
From every candid mind.

May nothing trifling, false, or vain,
Its notice e'er engage,
But learning, reason, sense and truth,
Illumine every page;

Nor ever feel th'envenom'd shafts,
That baneful envy throws;
The malice of pretended friends,
Or scorn of open foes.

And, glorying in my country's pride,
I'll gladly hail the day,
When first your infant work inspir'd
This tributary lay.

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The Parish of Holywood, from Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland.

Origin of the Name.

HOLYWOOD is evidently derived from the holy wood, or grove of oak trees, which surrounded a large Druidical temple, still standing, within half a mile of the parish church. It is formed of twelve very large whin or moor stones, as they are called, which inclose a circular piece of ground of about eighty yards in diameter. The oaks have now all perished; but there is a tradition of their existing in the last age. Many of their roots have been dug out of the ground by the present minister; and he has still one of them in his possession.

Situation, Extent, and Surface.—The parish lies in the division of the county of Dumfries called Nithsdale, in the Presbytery and Synod of Dumfries. It is about ten English miles long, and one and an half broad, on an average. It is bounded by the parish of Dumfries on the east; by Terregles, Kirkpatrick-Irongray, and Kirkpatrick-Durham, on the south; by a small part of Glencairn, and a large tract of Dunscore, on the west and north; and by Lirkmahoe on the north-east. Being situated in the middle of a broad valley, it is in general flat and low land. The hills in the parish are neither high nor rocky.

Rivers.—The river Nith runs along the whole of the east end of the parish, intersecting it, however, in one place for above a mile in length. The river Cluden, also a considerable one, runs along the south side of the parish above eight miles, and intersects it in three places, emptying itself into the Nith in the south-east corner of the parish, near the old College or Provestry of Lincluden, which stands on the Galloway side of the river, in the parish of Terregles.

Fish.—The Cluden abounds in fine burn trouts, a few pike of a middle size, and of excellent quality, some salmon, some sea trout, and herlings*. The Nith produces the

* Herlings are a small kind of trout, a little larger than a herring, and shaped like a salmon; its flesh is reddish, like that of the salmon or sea

same kinds of fish, but with this difference, that the herlings, sea trout and salmon, are much more plentiful in it than in the Cluden. One peculiarity deserves particular notice: Though the two rivers join at the south-east corner of the parish, each has its own distinct species of salmon. The Cluden salmon are considerably thicker and shorter in their body, and greatly shorter in their head, than those of the Nith. The burn trouts abound in the spring and summer; the herlings and sea trout in July and August; and the salmon from the beginning of March to the beginning of October. The salmon is in the greatest perfection in June and July. In the spring it sells for about one shilling a pound of sixteen ounces, and gradually decreases in price as the season advances, to 2½ d. a pound. It is all sold in the town of Dumfries, and to the families in the adjacent country. Dumfries being so near, and many of the fishermen living in the town, the price in that market, and on the spot where it is caught in this parish, it always the same. The prices of the other kinds of fish, are always a little lower than that of salmon; and they rise and fall with it. About ten years ago, the price of fish in this country was scarcely half of what it is at present. The increased price is perhaps owing, in part, to the increased consumption, and luxury of the inhabitants, but principally to the great demand for this fish, to supply the rich and populous manufacturing towns in Lancashire; for, within these last ten years, very considerable quantities of fresh salmon have been sent, by land carriage, into that country, from the Solway Frith, and the mouths of all the rivers that run into it.

Soil.—The soil of this parish is of four different kinds, viz. a considerable tract of land, about a fourth part of the parish, in the east, along the river Nith, and, on the south, for about seven miles up the river Cluden, is a deep, rich, light loam, and free from stones: 2d, Another fourth part, contiguous to the former, is a light, dry, fertile soil, lying on a bed of sandy gravel, producing heavy crops of corn and grass in a showery season; but it is greatly parched up in dry seasons:

trout, but considerably paler. They abound in all the rivers in this part of the country, and have the name of herling in all the adjoining parishes.

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3d, Another fourth part, which joins this last, is a deep strong loam, interspersed with stones, upon a tilly bed; it is naturally wet, stiff to plough, and not so fertile as either of the two former; but, when drained, limed, and properly wrought, more productive both of corn and grass than either of them, in all varieties of seasons, excepting only a cold and wet summer. 4th, The remaining part, which is hilly, is somewhat similar to the last, only not so deep and wet; it produces a kind of grass, neither very fine nor very coarse, which, in some of the higher parts of the hills, is mixed with heath, and a few other hard weeds.

Air, Climate &c.—The air is dry, and remarkably wholesome. The singular healthiness of the inhabitants may, however, be attributed to the following causes. They do not live in towns, or even villages; they are not employed in sedentary occupations; being either country gentlemen or farmers; they live in houses detached from each other; they are engaged in active employments in the open air; they are industrious, sober, and cheerful. The dryness of the air, is owing to the peculiar local situation of the parish. The clouds, intercepted by the hills on every side, float in fogs on the top of them, while the inhabitants enjoy a clear and dry air in the valley. At other times, when the clouds break into rain on the hills, or the sides of the valley, while the skirts of the showers only reach its central parts. Add to these circumstances, that the two rapid rivers carry off the superfluous water from the land, and the moisture from the air.

Seed time, and Harvest—The time of sowing wheat is from the middle of September to the middle of October; oats, pease beans, hemp, and flax, from the 10th of March to the middle of April; potatoes and barley from the middle of April to the 10th of May; and turnips, from the 10th to the 24th of June. The harvest generally begins about or before the middle of August; and the crop is got totally into the barns, and barn-yards, by the end of September. In cold and wet seasons, like the last, it is however somewhat later.

Epidemical Diseases.—No local distempers, or sickness of any kind, are prevalent in the parish. In the months of February and March, indeed, some fevers appear among the

people of low circumstances, especially in that district of the parish, which lies in the narrowest part of the valley; but these seem chiefly owing to poor living, and bad accommodation during the winter season, and perhaps to the dampness of the preceding months.

Manufactures.—It was before mentioned, that there are neither towns nor villages in the parish, but that the inhabitants live in detached houses: manufactures, therefore, cannot well exist in this district. The dearth of fuel is another obstacle: Peats are bad, scarce, and consequently dear; and coals are either carted twenty-four miles land carriage, or brought from England by water. These last would be moderately cheap, were it not for the high duties laid on them, which are as fatal to the improvement of this, as they are to many other parts of Scotland; nor can this part of the country ever greatly improve, until these duties be abolished.

To be concluded in our next.

Intelligence respecting Arts, Literature, &c.

IN no one department, has Britain made more remarkable advances of late, than in what regards mechanical inventions, as applied to useful arts. Mr. Arkwright's contrivance for spinning cotton, has been attended with such happy effects, as to have opened the eyes of mankind to the benefits that may be derived from inventions of this sort. It is now clearly demonstrated, that by means of machinery, yarn can not only be spun much cheaper than by hand, but also it can be made of a much better quality. In consequence of this invention, muslins have already been made of a quality equally *fine* as any that can be brought from India, that can be sold as cheap as Indian goods of the same quality; so that we want only the *fine* cotton wool in abundance, at a low price, to out rival the inhabitants of Asia in this their favourite manufacture.

It is surprising that manufacturers should have been so backward in applying this machinery to the spinning of woollen yarn. This however is now coming into practice.

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One machine of this sort is already established in the west of Scotland for spinning wool, and others will soon follow the example. One only objection we can conceive to lie against the spinning of wool for the manufacture of cloth by machinery, viz. that it is more easy to make yarn thus, that is much twisted, than such as is of a more loose contexture: a quality much to be prized in all woollen goods that are to be subjected to the operation of *fulling*. This inconvenience however may be easily got over by a very simple mechanical contrivance, which we shall describe in some number of this work, as soon as a plate for illustrating it can be got ready. By this very simple machine, any kind of yarn may be *untwisted*, during the operation of reeling, to any degree that shall be thought necessary for the purpose required.

Machines, upon the same principle with those above named, though somewhat different in the mode of applying it, have also been adopted for the spinning of linen yarn. The first of these that we have heard of was erected near Darlington in England; one machine of the same sort is just finished in the neighbourhood of Dundee, in Scotland, with some essential improvements, by means of which the work is performed in a much better method than formerly. To encourage the exertions of ingenuity, the Honourable Board for encouragement of manufactures, &c. in Scotland, have conferred, we hear, a premium of three hundred pounds on the inventor of these improvements.

Another machine of the same kind is now erecting, and nearly finished, on the water of Leven in Fife; so that we hope to see the benefits of these two improvements soon extended to other places.

Intelligence from Germany.

AMONG other articles of intelligence lately received from Germany by the Editor, he is informed that the discovery respecting metals announced in the first number of this work, was made nearly at the same time by two different persons, viz. in Hungary, by a professor of chemistry named *Ruprecht*, and also by a learned Neapolitan, whose name has not been

mentioned. The result was nearly the same in both cases, as already mentioned. The experiments have been repeated by Mr. Westrumb, and others, and found to succeed. Of this discovery a fuller account shall be communicated, when the printed work containing this article shall arrive, which is expected.

Helmstaadt Review

A NEW literary review was to commence on the 3d of January last at Helmstaadt, to be published by M. Steckelsen, bookseller there, which, from the prospectus of it, promises to be a valuable acquisition to the republic of letters. It is to be written in the German language, and is to be conducted by a society of eminent men, chiefly professors in that university. It will consist of two half sheets, to be published weekly; to which will be added monthly one sheet more, which is to be appropriated to literary news, short accounts of academical, and other writings that may occur; details of new discoveries, &c.

The work itself will contain an impartial review of such new publications, respecting science and useful improvements, as shall be deemed deserving of notice. But no notice will be taken of those of mere amusement. The price three Rix-dollars a year.

Le Correspondent Politique et Anecdotique.

THIS is another new publication, a prospectus of which has been received. It is to be published at Dusseldorf. This is a new newspaper, in a folio form, written in the French language, and, by the *announce*, it seems to be put upon a respectable footing.

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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, MARCH 2. 1791.

To the Editor of the Bee.

SIR,

THE inclosed observations were written some years ago, at the request of a gentleman distinguished for his patriotic exertions in parliament. If you think they will throw any new light on this interesting subject, I shall be glad to see them obtain a place in your useful miscellany.

S. I.

Conjectures on Taxation.

TAXES may be considered as a composition in lieu of personal service, paid to the state for the support and equipment of those who are constantly employed in the service of the public.

It has been alleged, that certain imposts are paid by particular orders of the people, without affecting the other classes of the community.

When we reflect however, on the dependence the different ranks of the people have upon each other, we can hardly conceive how one class can be affected, without affecting all the other classes.

We ought not to confound the advance, with the ultimate payment of the taxes ; the one is obvious, the other may elude our observation.

When the circumstances of a nation are prosperous, it is probable, that every additional tax is ultimately paid, by an increased produce of the labour of the industrious class of citizens.

If an additional tax is imposed, in consequence of an addition made to the number of the servants of the public ; such addition may diminish the number of productive labourers ; but the diminished number of labourers, may be able to produce as much as the undiminished did. Or if an additional tax be imposed, in consequence of a more ample provision made for the servants of the state, the productive labourers may be able to increase the produce of the labour, as much as the increased provision made to the servants of the state, amounts to,

Such increase in the produce of labour, is not necessarily the result of an increased exertion in industry.—As the different branches of industry are improved, the same actual exertion produces more than before such improvement took place.

During the progressive state of a nation therefore, taxes may be sometimes increased, without much affecting the great body of the people.

Hence taxes with regard to the nation in general, when they are imposed in consequence of increasing the servants of the state, may in a certain degree be nominal only ; for if such addition is made from the idle and dissipated, such of these as have no fund, from which to defray their expences, are perhaps no greater tax upon the public when serving the state, than they were before.

Taxes being advanced in money, if the value of money diminishes, additional taxes must be imposed ; and if such additional taxes are only equivalent to the fall

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in the value of money, such additional taxes will be no more than nominal.

When the circumstances of a state are stationary, as production and consumption, or expenditure, are equal, every additional tax must be discharged, by a diminution of consumption or expenditure.

In the declining state of a nation, when produce is less than expenditure, additional taxes must be paid by the exportation of stock; in this case they will be doubly felt by the body of the people.

Industry by the exportation of stock will lose a valuable instrument, and suffer by losing the demand, which the stock, while remaining at home, made upon it.

Taxes then being ultimately paid, either by an increase of the produce of labour, a diminution of consumption or expenditure, or by exporting stock, it does not appear, will be less felt by the body of the people, when advanced to the state by an impost on wine, than by a duty upon candles.

Certain individuals will at all times have it in their power to free themselves from the burden of taxes, by throwing their share of it upon the shoulders of others. This depends not so much on their rank and situation, as on the demand for their labour, or for the use of their property.

The exemption therefore, that individuals may enjoy from taxes, does not so much depend upon the mode by which it is advanced, as upon the circumstances above mentioned.

Taxes being advanced in money, and in considerable sums, the lower classes of the people not being possessed of money, cannot be subjected to the advance of taxes.

Hence poll taxes have been found oppressive; and such taxes are obnoxious, because they are too visible. Taxes of this species will generally be paid with reluctance, and in many cases with difficulty; of this kind may be reckoned the window and house taxes.

Taxes upon merchandize and manufacture, if moderate, are advanced without scruple, because those who advance them, are sensible they will be repaid the advance. Taxes of this description are not obvious to the repayers, because they are confounded with the price; they are not obviously oppressive even to the lower class of the people, because the repayment is made in small sums at different times: a person who drinks a pint of strong beer *per* day, will repay to the advancer of the duty upon strong beer $1\frac{1}{4}$ dayly; such a person might perhaps be unable to pay at once 10 s. 6 d. *per annum*.

The produce of a tax, must be greater than the particular purpose for which it is imposed requires, in proportion to the expence of collecting it.

As taxes upon import or manufacture appear least oppressive or obnoxious, it may be proper to enquire which are least burdensome when ultimately paid. If upon a comparison it should be found, that the nett produce of the revenue arising from the duties of excise, is more in proportion to the gross than that of the customs, the excise duties will be said to be collected at less expence than those of the customs. The fees of revenue officers being equally a tax upon the public with their salaries, if at any time it should appear, that the fees paid to officers of the customs, are greater than those paid to officers of excise, will it not further lessen the proportion between the gross and nett produce of that branch of revenue †? The person who advances any part of a tax, is not only repaid it, but is also paid a premium for the money he has advanced.

If a duty amounting to 100,000 l. is advanced a year before it is repaid, suppose the premium 10 l. per cent, such a tax will be to the repayers 110,000 l.

Taxes on manufacture therefore, will be less burden-

† Is not every fee a bribe? or at least a mode of payment that has a tendency to debase the mind, and for which the donor expects more than the mere discharge of duty?

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some than imposts upon materials ; hence ale is more properly taxed than malt.

For the same reason, excise duties which are imposed on manufacture, are more apparently proper, than the duties of customs, which fall indifferently upon material and manufacture. Perhaps a greater revenue might be raised from the duty on sugar, without increasing the burden of the people in general, if the greater proportion of it was charged upon the sugar baker, from an account taken of it after fining.

Smuggling is the constant attendant on heavy duties ; and it is a double tax upon the public, because, when it obtains, the revenue is directly diminished, and the failure of the impost, must be compensated by some new imposts*. Besides, in such cases, restrictive laws are made, to prevent abuses of this kind, the execution of which requires an additional number of officers : this subjects the public to an additional expence, without benefiting the revenue ; for we apprehend, where the temptation to smuggling is sufficiently powerful, restrictive laws have in *no one* instance had a good effect. To prevent smuggling therefore, taxes ought to be moderate ; hence many articles must be taxed. There is another reason for laying moderate taxes on a variety of commodities : When a commodity comes to be subjected to a tax, whether a home manufacture or an import, a certain proportion of the stock employed in carrying on its manufacture or importation must be detached for the purpose of advancing the tax, and such manufacture or trade may suffer by the loss of the stock thus advanced.

Another circumstance merits attention : The same wants may be supplied by a variety of articles ;

* Lord North laid an additional duty on soap, because the price was falling : as the value of a taxed commodity falls, the tax rises *ad valorem* ; and of course the temptation to smuggling increases, the tax on soap is at present about 50 l. per cent *ad valorem* ; and it may with probability be predicted, that the quantity of soap charged with duty will fall below its usual average in consequence of smuggling.

among these there will be a natural competition of price ; an impost on one, will destroy in proportion to its heaviness this natural competition, and may turn the scale in favour of another, until the rise in its price is compensated by improvements in its manufacture or otherwise.

Let us now consider, what circumstances should determine us in the choice of subjects of taxation.

Commodities whose manufacture or import are in the hands of a few, being more easily taken account of than those in the hands of many ; imposts on them may be more cheaply collected. Among all manufactured commodities, duties on glass and printed cotton are collected at the least expence. A duty upon delft, stone-ware, bricks, tyles, and flower-pots, might be levied at a small expence, the charge to be made at the kiln.

That stage of manufacture which takes up the largest time, is the most proper for taking account of it and charging the duty : Thus, though the duty is imposed upon drying malt, yet the account of it is taken when in the cistern, couch, or on the floor, not when it comes from the kiln.

Commodities, therefore, whose manufactures are more tedious, are preferable to such as are less so, as subjects of taxation. Bleaching being one of the most tedious processes we are acquainted with, a duty upon whitened linen or cotton cloth might be charged at the bleaching-field with the greatest certainty.

The advance of duties will be shorter upon commodities that are not meliorated by keeping, than upon such as are improved by age.

Commodities that are fit for use, when they have passed through the hands of the manufacturer, are preferable, as subjects of taxation, to those that must be kept for any length of time ; the bottle is not the better for the keeping, but the wine is. Hence, during whatever stage of its manufacture, the duty upon a commodity may be charged, it should not be exacted till near the time the commodity is fit for use : then

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the duty upon glass may be sooner exacted, than that upon wine. The credit given in paying the malt duty is proper; for though it does not improve by keeping, yet the greatest part of it is made many months before it is consumed.

The time of paying the leather duty, is fixed with great propriety.

A moderate impost upon commodities of general use or consumption produces a greater revenue than heavy taxes on such as are consumed by the few. The annual amount of the duty on strong beer is about 1,500,000 l. The produce of an import of 2 l. per ton on wine was in 1780 estimated at 30,000 l. per annum*.

Commodities of general use are preferable subjects of taxation, to those that are less universally consumed or used.

The great consumption of whale oil, even in lighting the streets, renders it probable that an impost on it would be considerably productive. Candles are taxed. A duty upon whale oil might be charged at the boiling-house.

A duty on tin-plate charged at the mill would be productive: As would be a duty on gun-powder.

Merchants and manufacturers complain when the particular branches of trade are taxed. It will, however, be found, that those branches of trade and manufacture that have been moderately taxed for a century past, have succeeded, as well as those that have not, or even as such as have been fostered by bounties.

Moderate imposts on manufactures tend perhaps to hasten their improvement, both as a stimulus to ingenuity, and as tending to throw manufactures into the hand of persons possessed of stock.

The revenue arising from licences is considerable; but it seems to be a very unequal mode of taxation.

* The ale duty might be rendered still more productive, by making a reasonable and equitable alteration in the brewery laws.

As licences are paid at once, if not exceedingly moderate, they may, in many cases, be oppressive.

Confectioners, perfumers, and hair-dressers, might be subjected to the payment of a licence with as much propriety as the retailers of small beer.

The coach-duty may be reckoned a licence tax; being charged *per tale*, it is not liable to the objection of inequality.

A small duty, charged *per ton* on all ships and vessels, might be levied at little expence, and with great certainty.

Stamp-duties have, of late, become common; all perhaps, that can be said in their favour, is, that they are cheaply collected. They point out no particular improvement by which they can be compensated. They are, in the first instance, unequal, and cannot be retailed like imposts on merchandize or manufacture. In their payment, nothing is seen but the tax.

“ There are two states in Europe, (says Montefquieu), where there are heavy imposts on liquor; in the one (England), the brewer alone pays the tax; in the other (Holland), it is indiscriminately levied upon all the consumers. In the first, nobody feels the rigour of the impost; in the second, it is looked upon as a grievance.”

Stamp-duties will always be obnoxious, and every effort will be made to evade them. There is no reason to apprehend, that before the receipt-tax can be made efficient, such encouragement must be given to informers, as may prove prejudicial to morals.

In spite of Mr. Sherridan's assertion, taxes of this kind are perhaps, of all others, the least proper for a free people.

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Farther explanations of the tendency of the regulations proposed in our last, respecting Imprisonment for Debt.

It will easily be perceived, that the two great points aimed at in the foregoing regulations are, to throw bars in the way of wanton imprisonment of debtors; and to render it difficult for a bankrupt ever to live in ease and affluence until his just debts shall have been all paid.

The only particular that will seem singular, and will be liable to be misunderstood, is that regulation which permits every individual creditor, after the bankrupt's effects have been sold, and an equal dividend of the price of them has been made among the whole, to arrest the debtor's effects, and to apply the price of them towards the payment of his own debts only, without communicating any part of it to the other creditors: some explanation of the reasons that suggested that regulation may therefore be necessary.

It is found by experience, that where many persons are alike interested in any transaction, where the value of the whole is much greater than that of the separate parts, an individual seldom chooses to take upon himself the disagreeable task of a prosecutor, where others are to be equally benefited by that prosecution as himself. On this account, it is found by experience, that after a bankrupt's effects have been once sold, and a dividend of them made, his creditors seldom ever think of recovering any more from him at a future period; and therefore seldom hesitate about granting a discharge; so that, should the debtor, in a very short time acquire affluence, his original creditors must be content to bear their loss with patience. This circumstance is no doubt carefully remarked by those who have a fraudulent bankruptcy in view, the chance of its taking place carefully computed, and their conduct

regulated by that calculation. It therefore tends greatly to encourage fraudulent bankruptcies.

By the regulation here proposed, creditors in general will not be in a worse situation than they are at present; for those who never intend to look after the debtor from the time they receive the last dividend of the bankrupt's effects, will be precisely in the same situation as they are in at present. But those whose circumstances make such forbearance extremely inconvenient for them, will be in a much better situation than they are, as the law now stands. They well know, that if the debtor has not acted fairly by his creditors, a few years will discover that he is able to live in affluence; and as they will then, especially if their debts be small, by a strict attention to his conduct, be able, by distress, to recover payment, they will be disposed not to grant a discharge till they see very good reasons for their doing so. A fraudulent debtor, in these circumstances, would find himself so narrowly watched by his individual creditors, that his situation would never be an agreeable one; so that mankind would have little inducement voluntarily to put themselves into that situation.

Should it be said that creditors who live in the neighbourhood of the debtor would thus have an advantage over those at a distance—this is admitted: But still those at a distance are no worse than they are at present. They would even be better: For if it should appear that there was a chance of recovering any thing considerable of their claim, they would always find some person who would purchase the debt at a reasonable price.

By admitting a new bankruptcy to take place, where *new* debts had been contracted, and allowing the former creditors to rank equally, while the debtor's effects in the mean time were always liable to be carried off by the old creditors, bankrupts would find it more difficult to obtain credit than they now do, which would operate as an additional bar to the practice of fraudulent bankruptcies, and as a caution to avoid bankrupt-

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cies of any kind, as being attended with such disagreeable consequences.

In short, though a poor man, who by misfortunes had contracted a small debt, could never, by these regulations, be deprived of the means of earning his bread; and would have a probable chance of discharging his debts; yet a man in a higher line of life who had contracted debts to a great amount, in particular to persons who could ill spare it, would find himself ever afterwards in circumstances unavoidably so unpleasant, as to make them much more cautious in their speculations, and much more scrupulous about contracting debts to a great amount than they are at present. The consequences of which caution cannot fail to prove highly beneficial to the community.

The writer of these remarks, while he submits them to the public, thinks it his duty to inform that public, that they were written out some years ago, and since that time, they have been submitted to the consideration of several persons, in whose judgment he places confidence; and have been read in a very respectable literary society; and that he finds the opinion of these persons not unanimous as to the expediency of the proposed regulations. Those among his friends who studied the subject with the greatest attention, have approved of them; one gentleman only in a high law department did disapprove of them, without assigning the reasons. The objections that were started at the literary society proceeded entirely, as he supposes, from a misunderstanding the spirit of these regulations, as they respected only the difficulty that would attend the carrying on prosecutions against bankrupts, and the chance, that on account of these difficulties, few prosecutions of this sort would be commenced. This is granted; and it was one principle object of these regulations to guard against such prosecutions, under frivolous pretexts. It was meant that the effects of the bankrupt should go immediately into the hands of the creditors, with as few de-

ductions from them as possible; and that few temptations should be given for wasting these in needless or oppressive law-suits; so that this objection only tends to shew that the object aimed at has a chance of being accomplished.

It was again objected, that as the laws respecting bankrupts stand at present, it happens that in this country, the bankrupt oftener abuses his creditor, than that the creditor oppresses his debtor; and that therefore any thing that diminishes the power of the creditor over the person of the debtor would be an act of ill judged humanity.

This objection seems also to proceed from false reasoning. If debtors now are found to abuse their creditors, the business of the legislature should be to provide means for guarding against that abuse, by discriminating between the innocent and the guilty, and by guarding the creditor against losses *by fraud*, not by enabling him at pleasure to distress *the unfortunate*; and it is believed that all the regulations above stated tend to that point.

Creditors are in the first place allowed to have recourse to the most easy and direct mode of obtaining possession of the whole of the debtor's effects; and he has the strongest inducement to disclose them fairly and candidly.

They are, in the next place, individually, granted a preference for obtaining payment of such part of their debts as remain undischarged, after a dividend of effects shall have taken place, that no person at present possesses in this country, and that no person ought of right to possess, but in a case of this sort. This certainly is a powerful means put within their reach of getting the better of the effects of a fraudulent bankruptcy, which they do not at present enjoy; and of course the situation of creditors must be bettered by it.

By the same regulation, the situation of a fraudulent bankrupt is rendered much less agreeable than at present,

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He will have more difficulty of obtaining credit from others: He will have more difficulty to preserve his ill got acquisitions, than he now possesses: He will of course have much less temptation to put himself into that situation than he now has. If so, he will guard against the chance of bankruptcy with greater care; and if he sees it unavoidable, will take care to stop sooner than he otherwise would have done; as he will thus have a better chance of being able to discharge his whole debts; without which he will soon find it would be impossible to enjoy life with any degree of comfort.

But if the creditor be benefited, and if the *fraudulent* debtor be put into a worse situation than he otherwise would have been; surely no person could have face to object to these regulations, because they tend to free the *honest*, though unfortunate debtor, from the gripe of merciless oppression; and to put it in his power to earn a subsistence to himself and family, by his industrious exertions, of which at present he may be utterly deprived, by the tyrannical disposition of a despot.

These are the avowed and obvious tendency of the measures proposed; and they are submitted to the consideration of the public, in the hopes that their imperfections may be supplied, and their errors corrected, by those who are better capable of judging of these things than the writer, whose only claim to merit notice is the uprightness of his intentions.

To the Editor of the Bee.

Queries respecting the Georgium Sidus.

SIR,

As I have lived in the country since the year 1781 till very lately, I have heard nothing as yet, respecting the distance of the Georgium Sidus from the sun, except from a calculation made by Mr. Loxel, professor

of astronomy at St. Petersburg; who informs us, that a circular orbit, whose radius is about nineteen times the distance of the earth from the sun, will agree very well with all the observations that have been made during the 1781. As the truth of this calculation depended upon its orbit being circular, which I have heard no confirmation of, and on account of the great nicety required in observing the figure of so small a portion of that immense curve, which the planet has described since the year 1781, it must be owned, the weight I laid upon this calculation was but small.

Some astronomers are of opinion, that the new planet is the star, that is marked No. 964 in Mayer's catalogue. This seems to be confirmed by several observations that have been made on purpose to find it, in that part of the heavens where it should have been, if a fixed star, according to the catalogue, but without success; and that this planet's apparent place in the year 1756, ought to have been that of Mayer's star (on the 15th of September 1756, Mr. Mayer discovered that star). If this is allowed, professor Robison thinks that the calculations respecting it may proceed with ease. Others are of opinion, that the new planet is the same with the star No. 34. of the Britannic catalogue. As it is a long time since I have heard any accounts concerning it, I would wish to learn through the channel of your paper, from some of your ingenious correspondents, which of the stars, viz. No. 964 of Mayer's catalogue, or No. 34 of the Britannic, astronomers in general have pitched upon to be the same with the *Georgium Sidus*, and how they have determined its distance from the sun, figure of its orbit, &c? The giving the above a place in a corner in your useful publication will much oblige

Your most obedient humble servant

Edinburgh }
 January 27th 1791. }

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*To the Editor of the Bee.**Mr. Bee.*

I HAVE often admired that part of your commonwealth's political wisdom and justice, the expelling drones from the society; work or starve is their maxim. I wish mankind, who are the only other animals that have drones amongst them, would follow so wise an example. We have clerical drones, medical drones, drones of the long robe; nay, I am told we have not a few drones in parliament, though I hope this is not true, as it would be a melancholy thing to have drones make laws for us. But the drones who fall more particularly under your cognizance, are the literary drones; those clear sighted critics who can spy the smallest blemish in the labours of others; who will tell you there is not a new idea in the composition, and how much better it would have been had it been handled in such another manner; but all the while the commonwealth at large is never a whit the better of their own remarks and new ideas. They ought at least be grateful for food to chatter upon; fie upon them, give them a sting, good Mr. Bee; I hope you can sting twice without injuring yourself. If this does not produce a reformation in the drones in my neighbourhood, and set them a working, I will collect their remarks, and send you them; they may not be honey; but you know bits of wax are useful to you. I am

A Drone-bunter.

We think this gentleman will confer a very great benefit on society, if he can find any kind of useful employment.—Shall be glad to hear he meets with success.

To the Editor of the Bee.

Observations on the Mangel Wurzel or Root of Scarcity.

SIR,

You have mentioned in the first number of your useful miscellany, that the culture of the root of scarcity, is in general abandoned. That this is the case, I will not dispute: it is however, very well worth cultivating, particularly in a cold soil, where other useful pot herbs would be cut off by the severity of the weather. This I can vouch, from an experiment I made, the first or second season the seeds were introduced into this country.

In the month of June, I transplanted a row of the young plants on a cold soil, without manure; at the same time there were some cabbages and favoys planted along side of them; no other care was taken of the scarcity than of the other greens; when the winter storms and frost had vented all their rage, the cabbages and favoys were entirely destroyed, while the scarcity root remained almost unhurt; a few of the outer leaves were only affected. I gathered some of them, and caused boil them, when brought to table, they were tender, and had a relish equal to any other greens used at that season. From about fixty plants, there were at least three dishes of green leaves gathered weekly, from the end of February to the end of May, that young cabbages supplied their place; each dish was sufficient to serve six people for vegetables: Had it not been for this useful plant, I should have wanted greens, or paid dear for them at market. The seeds of the Mangel Wurzel produce red and green plants; the latter kind is the best; they can easily be distinguished when in the seed-bed; it is a species of beat beyond doubt.

I shall have occasion afterwards, to make some remarks on the Swedish turnip.

A Friend to Agriculture †.

The following extract of a letter on the same subject from Dr. Lettsom, is of too much importance not to merit an early notice, as it states strong facts respecting this plant, that are, I believe, in a great measure unknown.

IN this week I had the favour of a letter from the secretary of the agricultural society of Amsterdam, of which the following is a quotation: "The scarcity root is already known throughout our province; we find no reason to complain of this discovery; our soils are very apt to bear them, and particularly the fens and moory grounds, promote the vegetation of this root to a prodigious size, so that some of them weighed 36 lb. with the blade. We consider both these plants (scarcity root, and mowing cabbage) as a very beneficial acquisition, for such of our countrymen as live upon poor heathy grounds, who are always in need of proper fodder to sustain their cattle."

This letter, with my own experience, evince, how cautious we should be of indiscriminate censure. If the scarcity root have not answered with certain individuals, it is not a sufficient proof of its inutility, so various are soils, and so long does it require, the best mode of cultivating the products of the earth. If I should steal leisure, I shall devote some observations in print to prove these sentiments.

J. C. LETTSOM.

London }
January 26. 1791. }

† The observations of this correspondent, or others who state any important fact respecting agriculture, will be always acceptable.

Extract of another letter on the subject of the root of scarcity.

I do not wonder, that those who have met with a bad sort of seed which has produced plants with the crowns close to the ground, and roots with many fangs should condemn it. But a sample which is now growing in the old kitchen garden of H—, many of which rise a foot or more above the ground, have determined Mr. C— to try it in his farm next year. The first root he attempted to pull up, he expected to require great strength; but it came up so easily, that he tumbled backwards, and carrying it to his farm yard made his arms ache, so as to convince him there was some substance in it; he weighed two roots, one of 24, the other of 22 pounds.

What originally induced me to try it was, that I found many people condemn it without trial, and that I could not meet with any body who had tried it. I reported my first trial of it to Dr. Lettsom, who inserted my letter in the gentlemen's magazine, in spring 1789. That great philanthropist imported a large quantity of the seed, which he sold for the benefit of the humane society, and small debtors; it is no wonder, that as no seedsman was employed, they should all abuse it unseen. One farmer of this neighbourhood from the sight, or rather from feeling the weight of mine, was induced to sow four or five acres of it in the following spring, which he found of so great benefit to his lambs when weaned, that he determined to sow fifteen acres last spring. He had then just got one of the Reverend Mr. Coke's patent drilling machines, and ploughed his land in ridges as directed in the pamphlet sent with it; but having given rather too good measure, he took a furrow from each ridge for a row of potatoes. His two first sowings (one I think was in February, the other in March) almost all ran to seed, and he sowed some turnip seed on the ground, which will account for his not having turned his lambs

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to it as in the preceding year, and for his sheep having mangel wurzel, potatoes and turnips at the same time, which he mentions in the note I inclose you, which he sent me in answer to one, & I bring to know what fault his shepherd had found in mangel wurzel, as he did not seem to like it the time I had seen him, when I had not an opportunity of gathering an explanation. I think you will admit the note (which was written in haste, while my servant was waiting) to be a candid one, and to come from a sensible man. You are welcome to make what use you please of any part of it.

Yours &c*.

Note referred to above.

SIR.

WHEN ewes are put to turnips every season, they are at first affected by the change of food so much that some die: they are by the shepherds frequently injudiciously treated, giving them too much at first: This season was very wet when my sheep began to mangel wurzel and turnips,—two of them died,—I have about twenty seven score,—and I dare say every person feeding sheep on turnips alone, loose as many in proportion. For the time, my shepherd declares he never saw sheep do better; and where my latest sown mangel wurzel was, he never saw more food on my farm of turnips in the same space. I was from home the whole time they were eating mangel wurzel, they had finished two days before I returned. At that season I never saw my ewes look better; my shepherd now approves mangel wurzel, which is more conviction than I expected: but potatoes, he says, are superior to all other winter feed for sheep; and mine are fonder of them than either turnip or mangel wurzel. They had of each before them daily for some weeks. I sow ten acres of mangel wurzel in April, and hope to ascertain its value on my soil next season.

* In a future number will be given, an account of some experiments with this root by the same

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To the Editor of the Bee.

*On the Birth-day of Dr. R—— of St. ——, from his
Children.*

HAIL! O hail! auspicious day,
Sorrow hence, let all be gay,—
Day that gave our father birth,
Be thou consecrate to mirth.

Health, the greatest bliss below,
Health, which to his skill we owe;
Still thy genial influence shed
On his lov'd and honour'd head

Hear, ye powers above, our prayer,
Be that father still your care,
Him from danger safely guard,
Grant his worth its due reward.—

Edinburgh }
February 7th 1790. }

D. C——.

To a solitary Star in a stormy Night.

FAIR wanderer of the nightly sky,
Whose solitary-lamp, on high,
Dim in its mist obscurely burns,
And all its sisters absence mourns.

Hail! sweetly twinkling, maiden star,
Who, glancing through the troubl'd air,
With mild and softly trembling eye,
Dost gild the cloud-polluted sky.

So, gently charms the melting fair,
When in her eye a pensive tear,

Slow gath'ring, dims its sportive fire,
And bids unmeaning mirth retire.

While care untroubled mortals sleep,
Thou dost in heaven thy vigils keep,
And wak'st, to list the plaints of those
Whose sorrows rob them of repose.

Fair orb, who o'er the shaded plain
Dark muff'd, hold'st thy silent reign;
Dost thou in all thy wand'rings see
A wretch who wakes to weep like me?

Or does thy pitying eye explore
The friend, who, from a distant shore,
Nightly beholds thy chariot burn,
And weeps like me till dawn of morn?

Slow rising in the silent air,
Dost thou our mutual sorrows hear,
Nor yet the ardent vows convey
Which each to other nightly pay?

O! could I on my wishes rise,
I'd seek thy mansion in the skies;
That I might see beyond the main,
The brother of my soul again;

Back to my eyes at least restore
The friend whom I now see no more,
And once more in our minds renew,
The joys which we together knew.

F. R. S.

Edinburgh }
January 7th 1791. }

Farther Particulars concerning the use of Gypsum as a manure in North America.

Copy of a Letter from Mr. H. Wynkoop; of Verden Hoff, Bucks County, Pennsylvania, 13th August 1787, to the President of the Agriculture Society at Philadelphia.

“ SIR,

“ Convinced of the utility of the plaster of Paris as a grass manure, I communicate to you, for the information of the society, an experiment which I lately made. In the month of March last, as soon as the snow was off the ground, and so settled as to bear walking upon the surface, I spread eight bushels of the plaster of Paris upon two and a half acres of wheat stubble ground, which had been sown the spring before (in common with the rest of the field) with about two pounds of red clover seed for pasture; this spot yielded, about the middle of June, five tons of hay. A small piece of ground within the inclosure, and of similar quality, having been left unspread with the plaster, afforded an opportunity of distinguishing the effects of plaster of Paris as a manure; for, from the produce of the latter, there was good reason to judge that my piece of clover, without the assistance of the plaster, might have yielded one and a half tons of hay; so that the eight bushels of the pulverized stone must have occasioned an increase of three and a half tons of hay upon two and a half acres of ground; in addition to which, it is now covered, to appearance, with between two and three tons fit for the scythe. This soil has been in course of tillage about fifty years, and never had any dung or manure upon it, but yet was what might be called good wheat land. As the effects of the plaster were thus powerful upon such kind of ground, there is good reason to conclude they would be much greater upon a soil previously manured.

With due respect, I am, &c.

HENRY WYNKOOP.

To the President of the Agricultural Society in Philadelphia.

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I do hereby certify, that the above named Henry Wynkoop, is a person of undoubted good character, and worthy of credit; and I do also further testify, that the plaster of Paris is much used as a manure, in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia, and that it is generally held in high estimation by those who have tried it as a manure.

SAMUEL POWELL,

President of the Agricultural Society.

Philadelphia, June 30, 1789.

Letter on the Use of Plaster of Paris as a Manure, taken from a Publication, intitled, THE AMERICAN MUSEUM.

“HAVING, for four years past, made use of a large quantity of plaster of Paris or gypsum as a manure upon a variety of soils, and under different circumstances,—I beg leave to lay before you the result of my experiments, together with some observations respecting the nature of this fossil. I am the more anxious to comply with my duty to the society in this respect, because many of our fellow-citizens are losing the great advantage to be derived from the use of this manure; entertaining an opinion, that it does not in itself contain any nutriment to plants, but that it acts merely as a stimulus to the soil, by which, although vegetation is for a short time rapidly promoted, yet the ground becomes exhausted, and is left a dead inert mass.

i. In the year 1785, I sowed three acres of lightising-las * soil, containing a little clay, with barley and clover. In the month of April the following year, I divided the field into three parts, and strewed six bushels of French gypsum on No. 1; the same quantity of the American gypsum, brought from the bay of Fundy, on No. 2; and left the intermediate space, No. 3, without any. On cutting the first crop, that year, little difference could be observed; the second crop produced double the quantity of grass, where the gypsum had been put; and in the succeeding year, the difference was still greater, in favour of this manure. Early in October 1787, the clover lay was ploughed once, about four inches deep, was sowed with rye, and in that rough state, was harrowed. The rye was of a superior quality,

* This is a distinction of soils not known in this country. *Edit.*

and double the quantity on No. 1 and 2, of that on No. 3. After harvest, the rye-stubble was ploughed, and sowed with buck-wheat, when a striking difference was still observable in favour of the gypsum, and which continues in the present crop of Indian corn.

2. In April 1787, I sowed three acres of potatoe ground, (a light loam), with barley and clover. Just as the barley was above ground, some gypsum was strewed diagonally across the field, about eight feet wide. Little or no difference could be observed in the barley; but in the month of September following, there was a striking difference in the clover, in favour of the manure, which would have afforded a good crop of hay, whilst the remainder of the field was but indifferent. I have frequently put gypsum upon grain, without observing any immediate difference in the appearance of the crops.

3. In April 1786, six acres of poor isinglass soil, situated on German-Town hill, were sowed with oats, the ground not having been manured for twenty years; it produced a crop not paying expences. In April 1787, one half of the field was covered with gypsum, six bushels to the acre. The latter end of the same summer, that part on which the manure had been put, produced good pasture of blue grass and white clover, whilst the remainder afforded little but a few scattered weeds. In October, the field was ploughed once, and sowed with rye; at harvest, the former produced ten bushels to the acre, the latter not above five.

4. A field of fifteen acres, a light loam, was, in April 1784, sowed with barley and clover, the produce only twenty bushels to the acre; the ground not having been sufficiently manured. In 1785, it produced a good first, and a tolerable second crop of clover. In 1786, the first crop but tolerable; the second very indifferent, and therefore pastured. In the spring 1787, I wished to try if gypsum would not renew the clover. In the month of April, the whole field was covered with gypsum, six bushels to the acre, except the width of twenty feet, through the middle of the field. St. John's wort, mullain, and other weeds had taken such possession of the ground, that, although the manure produced a great luxuriance of grass, yet, being full of weeds, it did not answer for hay; and therefore was pastured until October 1788: The whole was then ploughed

eight inches deep, with a strong three-horse Dutch plough: Last April, it was well harrowed, and cross-ploughed, four inches deep, with a light two-horse plough, leaving the sod at the bottom. The field was sowed with spring barley; at harvest, the difference of the crop was astonishingly great in favour of the part where the gypsum had been put, two years before. This ground is now under wheat and winter-barley, which have a promising appearance: The rotted sod being turned up and mixed with the soil, affords a strong nourishment to the present crop.

"5. I put a quantity of gypsum, three years ago, on several small patches of rough sod; it produced a difference in the strength of the vegetation, which is still observable."

What follows of this paper contains no experiments, but some reasoning on the nature of this substance, which we think unnecessary here to transcribe.—Several other experiments follow, that have so much the same result with the preceding, that it is thought unnecessary to transcribe them. There are, however, some circumstances of variation, in the following, that deserve notice.

PENNSYLVANIA, June 1, 1790.

"I wrote to you some time ago, respecting our manuring with the plaster of Paris: I have now experienced it upwards of three years; others have used it upwards of fifteen: It exceeds any thing ever known. Pray prevail on some person to sow a small quantity of red clover on a dry soil; a few days will evince its power. Six bushels to the acre I use, and it is preferable to fifty loads of the best dung. This you must think extravagant; it is so, and yet true. I have contrasted it for three years with dung in that proportion, and the result is my assertion: I have upwards of one hundred acres now under plaster, applied in various ways, and on different soils; it has in no instance failed; the last I made, I shall relate as follows:

"In April 1789, I ploughed the end of a poor sand hill, which by long and bad culture had been totally exhausted; it contained no grass, but was covered with wild onions; the next day after ploughing, I sowed it with oats, clover,

and timothy; when the oats were a few inches high, I sowed a strip through the middle of the field with plaster; the ground being poor, the oats were not knee high at harvest; the clover where the plaster was not sown, was very small and poor; but the strip on which the plaster was sown, produced clover near as high as the oats. As soon as the oats were cut, I sowed all the stubble with plaster; in October, the ground produced upwards of a ton and an half *per acre*; and I now think the crop superior to the best acre you ever saw*.

“ The land I sowed three years ago, I mow twice, and pasture the bad crop; not the least failure yet appears; I intend to renew a part of it, by way of experiment, with three bushels of plaster *per acre*, after my first mowing, which will be in eight days.

“ It is generally esteemed to continue good from five to seven years; it is much used in this country, and is travelling westward and eastward. I saw last week several fields done with it near Reading, in this state, about sixty miles from the river. A spoonful on a hill of Indian corn, will increase the quantity about ten bushels *per acre*, and it is found to ripen two weeks earlier. The grass as well as hay raised from it, is found more nutritive than any other; so much so, that cattle fatten in near half the time. Were I to write a volume, I could not tell you all its advantages †.

“ The soil of the plantation of the above winter is warm, being a loam, more or less mixed with sand, having a few inches of black mould on the surface, and not a cold clay.

“ The plaster, generally made use of in the United States of America, is imported from Havre de Grace, and some from Halifax, in Nova Scotia, but of a much inferior quality, unless got in depth, and not near the surface of the earth. The plaster is found in Yorkshire, and in some other parts of the kingdom, but whether equal in quality to that in France, experiments will discover.”

Annals of Agriculture.

* No notice is here taken of the strip in the middle, that appears to have been twice covered with gypsum. *Edit.*

† This account has much the air of exaggeration. *Edit.*

Parish of Holywood, from Sir John Sinclair's Statistical Account of Scotland, concluded from page 318.

Population.—On the last day of the year 1790, there were living in the parish of Holywood 736 persons, of whom there were,

Under ten years of age,	-	-	166
Between ten and twenty,	-	-	146
Above twenty unmarried,	-	-	160
Widowers or widows,	-	-	40
Married,	-	-	224
			<hr/>
			736

Out of the 736 persons, 11 were between 80 and 90 years old, which is an uncommon number among so few inhabitants. The return to Dr. Webster of the population of Holywood, about forty years ago, was 612 souls; the inhabitants have therefore increased 124 since that period.

Abstract of the Baptisms, Marriages and Burials for the last ten Years.

Years.	Baptisms	Marriages.	Burials.
1781	— 23	— 7	— 10
1782	— 18	— 0	— 20
1783	— 15	— 3	— 8
1784	— 15	— 1	— 11
1785	— 13	— 4	— 8
1786	— 16	— 6	— 14
1787	— 16	— 6	— 11
1788	— 14	— 9	— 8
1789	— 13	— 6	— 8
1790	— 19	— 6	— 10
	—	—	—
	162	48	108
Yearly average	—	—	—
nearly,	16	5	11

The great number of deaths in 1782, was owing to an infectious fever in the west part of the parish, where the valley is narrowest; and the large number in 1786, was owing to the ravages of the natural small pox.

Division of the Inhabitants, and their Occupations.—All the inhabitants are farmers, and cottagers employed by them, except those afterwards mentioned. About ten of the inhabitants are small proprietors of lands, which they occupy themselves. There are eight weavers, two bleachers, two shoe-makers, two millers, five blacksmiths, five masons, four taylor, and eight joiners: all of whom are employed in working for the inhabitants of the parish, and not in manufacturing articles for sale. There are no household servants except in gentlemen's families, and these are few. There are about thirty-two male, and thirty-six female labouring servants. The greatest part of the farming and dairy work is done by the farmers themselves, their wives, their sons and daughters, and cottagers; which last work, either by the piece, or by the year, receiving what is called a *benefit*; that is, a house, yard, peats, 52 stones of meal, a quantity of potatoes, and as much money as, with these articles, would, *communibus annis*, amount to thirteen pound Sterling *per annum*. Besides the above mentioned servants, some shearers are hired by the day from the adjacent moor countries. It is remarkable that all the inhabitants are natives of this island, except one person only, who comes from Ireland. There are no nobility resident in the parish, and the gentry amount only to twenty-seven persons, besides their domestics. All the inhabitants are of the established church, except six Cameronians, nine Burgher Seceders, two of the Church of England, and three Catholics; but most of all these denominations attend the parish church occasionally, except the Catholics.

General Character.—They are a sober, regular and industrious people, all employed in farming, except the few above mentioned. They are generous and humane, although they have not been called to the exertion of these qualities by any remarkable events, except in the years 1782 and 1783, as shall be mentioned afterwards. They enjoy in a reasonable degree, the conveniencies and comforts of society, and are in general as contented with their situation as most people. Their condition, however, might be meliorated, could the heavy multures be removed, which hinder improvements in agriculture; or could coals be imported

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duty free, which checks any attempts to the establishing manufactures. With respect to the morals of the people, it may be observed, that during the time of the present incumbent, which is 19 years, only one person has been banished for theft, and one enlisted for a soldier: This last, in a few months, solicited his friends to make application to get him out of the army, which they did with success; and he has ever since lived in the parish an industrious labouring man. In regard to other particulars, they are healthy, robust, and rather above the common stature. Several instances of longevity have been observed among them. Within these few years, three persons have died, whose ages were 90, 95, and 96.

Church.—The value of the living, including the glebe, is about 120 l. Sterling. The last patron was Robert Beveridge of Fourmerkland, Esq. the proprietor of an estate of that name in the parish. He died lately, and by his death, the patronage devolved to his sisters, the eldest of whom is married to the Rev. Mr. James M'Millan minister of Torthorwald.

The manse* and office houses were all new built in 1773; the church in 1779; and the two school houses in 1782; all which buildings are now in excellent repair.

State of the Poor.—The average number of poor who now receive alms is fifteen. The annual sum expended for their relief, is about 32 l. Sterling, produced by the collections in the church on Sundays, excepting the interest of a small sum appropriated to them. These fifteen persons are all maintained in their own houses, or boarded in other families; none of them are kept in hospitals or work houses. The greatest number of them earn about two-thirds of their maintenance. Those who are orphans under ten years old, or who are very old and infirm, and without relations to assist them, are boarded out at the rate of 4 l. Sterling *per annum*. Besides the relief from the parish, the poor receive frequent supplies of food and clothes from charitable and well disposed people. They are however kept from begg-

* The parsonage house, thus called all over Scotland, is evidently derived, as *mansjon* is from the Latin *manco*, to remain or abide.

ing from door to door most effectually, by the assurance of their inevitably losing all parish relief if they persist in the practice. As the church session* is extremely attentive to give them relief, according to their necessities, to provide medical assistance for them when sick, to pay the schoolmaster for teaching their children reading, writing, and the common rules of arithmetic, their own interest induces them to comply with the desire of the session, not to beg. Beggars, however, occasionally infest the parish, but they do not belong to nor reside in it.

Price of Grain and Provisions.—The price of wheat, barley, and oats are generally regulated by the Liverpool and Greenock markets, being just as much below the prices at these places, as will pay freight, and afford a very moderate profit to the corn merchants, who export the grain to one or other of these places. For many years past, the price of grain has been in general the same as in the London market, which is always a little below that of Liverpool. Grain is in general cheaper here about Candlemas, the markets being then overstocked by the farmers anxiety to make up their half-year's rent, which is payable at that term. *Communibus annis*, wheat is 5 s. barley 2 s. 2 d. and oats 1 s. 10 d. the Winchester bushel. The present average price of beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and pork through the year is 3 d. the pound of 16 ounces, for those of the best qualities. At particular times of the year they are all much cheaper; and though at some periods they amount to 5 d. a pound, these dear times do not last long. The price of a roasting pig is 4 s.; of a goose 2 s.; of a turkey 2 s. 6 d.; of a duck 10 d.; of a hen 1 s.; of a chicken 3 d.; of rabbits, though there are few of them, 1 s. the pair without the skins; butter is 9 d. the pound of 24 ounces; cheese varies according to its richness and age.

Price of Labour.—The wages of men labourers are 1 s. a day, from the first of March to the first of November, and 10 d. the rest of the year, except that in time of harvest they are 13 d.; and of mowing, 18 d. The wages of women are, for working at peats, 8 d.; at turnip weeding, hay making, and other farm work in summer, 7 d.; shearing in

* The church session is the same as the vestry in the English parishes.

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harvest, 13 d. Both men and women furnish their own provisions out of their wages. The day wages of a carpenter and a mason, are 1 s. 8 d.; of a bricklayer and slater, 2 s.; * of a taylor, 1 s. without, or 6 d. with meat. Work, however, is generally done by the piece. The average of farm servants, when they eat in the house, is 7 l. for men, and 3 l. for women; but the farm servants are generally paid by what is called a benefit, before described; and if the man's wife and children are employed by the farmer, their work is separately paid for. The wages of domestic servants are nearly the same with those of farm servants.

Expences of a Labourer's Family.—The expences of a common labourer, when married, and with four or five children, is about 16 l. a year. The wages which he receives, together with the industry of his wife, enable him to live tolerably comfortable, and to give his children an education proper for their station, provided he and his wife are sober, industrious, and frugal: Those of them who are embarrassed in their circumstances, owe their poverty either to their own, or to their wife's bad conduct. That the labourers can maintain their families at this small expence, is owing to the farmers, from whom they have cottages, allowing them as much land for one year's rent free, to plant potatoes in, as they can manure sufficiently with ashes, or such dung as they can provide for themselves; and these potatoes constitute at least one half of their year's food.

Division and Rent of Lands.—A great part of the parish is inclosed, but a considerable part still lies open. The farmers seem sufficiently convinced of the advantages of inclosing, and would willingly allow their landlords interest for such sums of money as would be necessary for making inclosures. The farms are in general from 40 l. to 130 l. a year, but there are some few from 40 l. down to as small as 8 l.

* The wages of these four artists were 2d. less before the year 1788, at that time an uncommon spirit for building appearing in the country increased the demand for labour of that kind. This spirit proceeded from the general taste for good houses, which marks this period, and from many monied men, who, having purchased estates in this part of the country, are building elegant mansion houses for themselves, and good farm houses for their tenants.

About the year 1771, a spirit of improvement appeared in the parish, when the farms became larger than they had formerly been; but for some years past they have continued nearly of the same size. The best arable land is let from 11. 1 s. to 11. 10 s.; and the inferior from 20 s. to 7 s. an acre. The hill pasture is not let by the acre, but by the lump. The whole rent of the parish amounts to something more than 3000 l. Sterling *per annum*, including houses, and the small fisheries in the Nith and Cluden. The heritors are thirty-one in number, of whom ten of the small ones and three of the largest, reside in the parish. There is no map of the parish, the number of acres in it have not consequently been precisely ascertained; they are estimated at about 7500. Of these, about 60 are employed for raising wheat, 250 for barley, 20 for pease and beans, 10 for rye, 1310 for oats, 100 for potatoes, 30 for turnip and cabbage, 20 for flax and hemp, 500 for sown grass, the rest is pasturage, except about 150 acres for roads and plantations. None of the ground is common; and every proprietor knows the exact marches of his estate; but a considerable quantity of the hilly part must always lie in a state of pasturage, not being arable on account of the steepness of the hills. Several hundred acres, however, of the lower parts of these unbroken grounds, are capable of cultivation; and, if properly improved, would pay well for the labour bestowed on them. The greatest part of the parish is thirled* to the mill of Cluden, and pays a very high multure †, which greatly tends to retard the cultivation and improvement of the district.

Mode of Cultivation,—There are 70 ploughs in the parish. Those used in the first division, see page 516, and the great-

† When the laird, *i. e.* lord of the manor, builds a mill, he obliges his tenants to have all their corn ground at that mill only. The farms are then said to be thirled, or under thirlage to the mill. But sometimes, as is the case here, the tenants of one estate are thirled to the mill of another, which, when the dues are high, is a great bar to improvement.

* *Multure* is a certain stipulated quantity of meal, given as payment to the miller for grinding the corn: And all corn grown on farms thirled to the mill is obliged to pay multure, whether the corn be ground at that mill or elsewhere.

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est part of the second, viz. the light soil, are the small English plough; in part of the second, and adjoining part of the third, they use the Scotch plough with the English mould board, or ploughs composed partly on the model of the old Scotch, and partly on that of the English; and in the remaining part of the third, the Scotch plough only is used. Each of these ploughs seems well adapted for the nature of the soil in the district where they are used. The English plough is certainly the best; but it can only work properly in land that is free from stones. The Scotch plough, when properly made, is doubtless the fittest for strong land; and, lastly, the plough composed of the two, is the most proper for land that is composed of the two kinds above mentioned; and these are the nature of the different soils in which the several kinds of ploughs are used. The ploughs are commonly drawn by two strong horses, and one man both holds the plough and drives the horses, with a pair of long reins. When stiff land is to be broken up from grass, three, or sometimes four horses are yoked into a plough of the same construction, but of a stronger make.

Produce.—The vegetable produce of this parish has already been specified, under the article *Division of land*. With respect to animal productions, it is principally distinguished for a breed of black cattle, for which the county of Dumfries in general, and the neighbouring counties of the stewartry and the county of Galloway are also famous. They are very profitable for fattening, and many thousands of them are annually sold, and sent into England. They are handsome, of a middle size, and weigh well for their height. When fat for the butcher, the four quarters weigh at an average 36 stones of 16 pounds; but several of them amount to 60 or 70 stones. The number of black cattle in the whole parish amounts to about 1200. The sheep, which are kept in the hilly part of the parish, are the common Scotch sheep, white on the body, but black on the face and legs; they are very hardy, and their wool is strong and shaggy, but coarse. In the low cultivated districts, there are two kinds of English sheep, the one long bodied and long legged, introduced into this country by Culley; they are commonly known by the name of Muggs: the other is also

long bodied, but broad backed and short legged, introduced by Bakewell. They are both all white, body, face, and legs: Both of them have much finer wool, and a larger quantity of it, than the Scotch sheep. Bakewell's kind have the finest short wool. From an experiment lately tried, a cross between the two breeds seems to answer well, viz. the ram of the Culley, the ewe of the Bakewell breed. In this cultivated district and mild climate, the English are preferred to the Scotch sheep, on account of the greater quantity, and finer quality of the wool; their being less hurtful to the hedges; and their greater weight when sold to the butcher. The whole number of sheep in the parish, amounts at present only to about 1000.

The produce of the district is, on the whole, much greater than sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants. About two thirds of the whole is carried to markets out of the parish, viz. a considerable quantity of butter, milk, veal, mutton, beef, wheat, oat-meal, and barley, to Dumfries; a large quantity of wheat and barley to Whitehaven and Liverpool; of oats to Greenock; and a great number of young black cattle and sheep to the towns in the neighbourhood.

There are hares, and some foxes, and all the fowls which are natives of the south parts of Scotland. The migratory birds are, the swallow and the cuckow. During the whole year, the sea gulls, commonly called, in this parish, *seamaws*, occasionally come from the Solway Frith to this part of the country; their arrival seldom fails of being followed by a high wind, and heavy rain, from the south-west, within twenty-four hours; and they return to the Frith again as soon as the storm begins to abate.

Roads and Bridges.—The roads were originally made by the statute labour; but in that way they were neither half made, nor half kept in repair. Several years ago, an act of parliament was obtained for this county, converting the statute labour into money, to be paid by the occupiers of land, at a rate not exceeding 12s. in the 100 merks of Scotch valuation, and a certain sum to be paid by the possessors of houses in towns and villages. In some districts of the county, where making the roads is expensive, the occu-

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piers of land have been assessed to the *ultimum*; but in this, and some others, the assessment has never been more than 6 s. for each 100 merks. The conversion money is very well laid out in this parish. The roads are put, and kept in as good repair as the sum collected can possibly do; but as the roads are extensive, and as there is a thoroughfare through the parish, from a large and populous surrounding country, to the markets at Dumfries, this sum is too small to keep the roads in sufficient repair; and it would probably be cheaper in the end, to lay on the full assessment of 12 s. for a few years, till all the roads are completely finished, and then to reduce the assessment to 4 s. which would be sufficient for keeping them in repair. Lest the present tenants should be aggrieved by paying 12 s. while their successors, who would enjoy the benefit of good roads, pay only 4 s. the landlords should pay the additional 6 s. and receive it afterwards from the subsequent tenants at 2 s. a year, till the landlords be reimbursed. A great turnpike road is now making between Carlisle and Glasgow, which runs through the parish. It will be completely finished in this county before, or about the beginning of May next. The tolls upon it are moderate, and will be fully sufficient for making and repairing it. This road, like all other turnpikes under proper management, must be highly advantageous to the country. The bridges in the parish are good. The only large one in it was originally built, and is still kept in repair by the county of Dumfries, and stewartry of Galloway, as it is built over the Cluden, which is the march between the two counties. The smaller ones, being all within the parish, were built; and are kept in repair by the parish.

Antiquities.—There are no other remains of antiquity than the Druidical temple already mentioned, and two old houses built in the tower fashion. There is one large heap of small stones, a part of which was opened several years ago, and some human bones said to have been found in it. The Abbey of Holywood stood in the site of a part of the present church-yard. About half of the head of the cross of this abbey was standing in the year 1779, when it served for the parish church. These remains, however, were then pulled down, and the materials used in part for building the present new church. The vestiges of the old abbey are sufficiently evident in the church-yard; and

The adjoining farm retains the name of Abbey. The present church has two fine toned bells, taken out of the old building; one of which, by an inscription and date on it, appears to have been consecrated by the Abbot John Wrich, in the year 1154. From undoubted records, this abbey belonged to the monks of the order of Premontre, which was instituted in the diocese of Loon in France, in the year 1120, and was so called, because, as the monks say, the place was "divina revelatione praemonstratum."

Etymology of Names of Places.—The names of places in this parish seem to be derived partly from the Gaelic, and partly from the English, and some from the Danish. The names derived from the English are either expressive of the particular situation of the places, or of the proprietor to whom they originally belonged. Thus *Broomrig*, situated on a ridge that produces much broom; *Gooliehill*, situated on a rising ground, producing much gool *; *Mossfide*, situated on the side of a moss; *Stepford*, situated at a ford in the Cluden, where foot passengers cross the water on stepping stones, that have been placed there time immemorial; *Morinton*, the town of Morine; *Stewarton*, the town of Stewart, &c.; *Holm*, derived from the Danish, in which language *holm* signifies an island. From the Gaelic are most probably derived *Speddock*, *Barfreggan*, *Glengaber*, *Glengaur*, *M'Whinnick*, &c. *Killness* seems to be compounded of two languages, *cella*, the Latin for a chapel or cell, and *ness*, or *naes*, the Danish for a promontory, or head land, (it may also be derived from the Latin *nasus*) *Killness* signifying the chapel or cell on the promontory: The place so called is the field where the Druidical temple above mentioned stands, and it is prominent into the river Cluden.

Eminent Men Natives of the Parish.—Holywood has produced no men of eminence, in learning or science, except Mr. Charles Irvine surgeon. He was a younger son of the late William Irvine of Gribton, Esq. and the person who, several years ago, discovered the method of rendering salt water fresh, for which he was rewarded by government with a grant of five thousand pounds.

* *Gool* Dr. Johnson says, is a weed with a yellow flower, which grows among the corn, on light lands, in wet seasons, about Lammas. It is the wild marygold,

Miscellaneous Observations.—The harvests of 1782, and 1783, were very late, especially that of 1782. Before the corn was all cut in this part of the country, there were intense frosts and heavy snows. On the 2d of November 1782, in particular, a very heavy fall of snow covered the corn so deep, and lay so long, that they could not be cut for several days after. Though the harvest was uncommonly late in this parish in these two years, and though the latest of the corn in it was hurt by the frost, yet the harvest here was earlier than in any other part of Scotland; and the greatest part of the corn was ripened before the frosts came on. Under all these untoward circumstances, the crops of these years were, however, uncommonly good, as is the case, not only this year, but also in all late years, owing to the peculiar dryness and earliness of the soil and climate of this parish. The general scarcity of meal in Scotland during these two years, and the great demand for seed corn from those counties where the frost had destroyed the crops, greatly increased, as is well remembered, the price of meal and oats all over Scotland. At that time the farmers of this parish had large quantities of both, especially of seed corn, to sell; and they cleared by it in those two years, more than they ever did in any other two years. The price of oat meal was then 2 s. 6 d. the stone of 17½ pounds; higher than was ever known before or since. In this parish, the heritors and farmers, by a voluntary contribution, collected into two storehouses, one at each extremity of the parish, all the meal they could; and distributed it among the poor labourers and artificers at 2 s. a stone, until it fell in the markets to that price; and by thus losing 6 d. a stone in the meal which they sold, they were the happy means of preserving their poor parishioners from the general calamity of the country.

* * That this extract might not be imperfect, and to prevent it from being divided between this and the succeeding volume, we have been obliged to extend this number beyond its usual limits.

As it was found that what remains to be said on the corn laws could not have been comprised in one number, it was judged expedient to defer it till the commencement of next volume, that those who purchase either might not find it imperfect. What goes before, forms a distinct article of itself, which is only slightly connected with that which will follow.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

INTRODUCTION.

A Cursory VIEW of the present POLITICAL STATE of EUROPE, concluded from page 280.

What remains to be said of the other European States, may be comprised in a very few words.

Portugal,

Wise from the severities she suffered from the last war she had with Spain, has been contented to observe a firm neutrality, while all around her were engaged in war.—But such a languor there pervades every department, arising from a long continued erroneous system of finance and political regimen, that neither literature, commerce, agriculture, nor arts, have made those advances which are necessary to give energy to the minds of the people. The Royal Society of Lisbon, endeavour, by premiums, to turn the attention of the nation to some interesting subjects. But the effect of these have not yet been so great as could be wished. Should government cherish that society, and continue to send some of her ingenious youth to be educated in foreign parts, as has been, in a few cases, done, their efforts, though slow, may in time produce beneficial effects.

Switzerland,—Savoy,—and Italy,

ALL enjoy a state of profound tranquillity at present. Their eyes are turned towards France. The attention of the sovereigns are all awake for their self-preservation, and every ambitious project seems to be suspended. The inhabitants of property in those states, which had most connection with France, of Geneva in particular, have experienced a sad reverse of fortune, from the revolution in France, for the present; and they dread the future consequences. Tempted by the high rate of interest that was held out to them in the French funds, they there lodged all the money they could com-

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mand; for which, since the suspension of the former government, they have got nothing. This has reduced many wealthy families from opulence to extreme indigence; but as the calamity is nearly universal, they bear with and endeavour to comfort each other. Rome trembles for her safety: Avignon is ravished from her: The foundations of her power are shaken; and she looks around her, on every side, with the most suspicious watchfulness. Nor are the other states in a situation greatly different. All open exertions, therefore, of despotic power, are suspended, and will probably never be again exercised.

The American States,

UNDER the influence of Mr. Washington, who exhibits a character, that in the eyes of a *refined* Italian politician, would have appeared chimerical, are making large strides to correct the evils that originate from their local situation and political circumstances. While the *people* are young, and while virtuous principles in their governors, and virtuous habits can be found among the people, their energies may be sufficient to over-rule the influences of those political evils to which they are naturally exposed; but should this continue till industry begets wealth, and wealth luxury, and luxury corruption of manners, and corruption of manners depravity of heart, what is to preserve the people from that corruption that must be expected to arise in every government? They do not seem, as yet, to have turned their eyes to this side of the picture; otherwise provision would have been made to guard against it. The nation whose safety depends on the virtue of its ruling powers alone, is in a very precarious state indeed. In this situation the American states are too much circumstanced: Washington would perhaps have been the greatest character that has appeared in this or any other nation, had he had the fortitude to guard against this evil. But it is so much more agreeable for an upright mind simply to do right himself, and diffuse immediate happiness around him, rather than to suspend that happiness by guarding against future contingencies of a disagreeable sort that is perhaps too great a sacrifice to expect any man to be able to make.

It is much to be regretted, that the pressure of the present moment, added to the prejudices of the times, should have ever so far prevailed, as to oblige some of these states to adopt a legal suspension of the payment of debts. I do not condemn this measure so much, because of its influence on commerce, and its exciting a distrust among other nations, though these are much greater political evils, than that which it was intended to remove: But it is because it tends to vitiate the moral principle, and to corrupt the heart of the people themselves, that it merits the utmost severity of reprehension from the enlightened politician. In an infant state, every evil should be submitted to, rather than to allow the people to think it *possible* for *any circumstance* to give the smallest mark of toleration to a measure that had but the *shadow* of injustice. I should not have been surpris'd to have seen this in an old corrupted government; but here they have begun where other states have ended.

East Indies.

OUR territories in India are yet extensive; and like a person who is, on the eve of bankruptcy, to a superficial observer, they appear great and brilliant objects; but their remaining in our possession, depends rather on the faults of others than our own exertions. Had not Tippoo Saib been a brutal monster, it is not impossible, but at this moment we should not have had a footing in India. His vices fight against him, and aid us. But every defeat adds to the strength of the native powers in India; and so soon as a man of talents and virtue shall appear among them, the European power in India must cease. This is the unavoidable consequence that must ever result from the crooked policy engendered by vice and weakness, which has got footing in India under the name of *state necessity*. This system, when once adopted, dissolves all human ties, and leaves nothing but fear as the principle of action. But fear engenders perfidy, that is continually ready to burst, before it gives any warning, on the head of the unworthy oppressor, or if that should fail, it serves as a principle of union, to connect together people of the most opposite characters and interests, in order most effectually to crush him. It is happy that heaven hath thus annexed punishment to guilt, which no more can be separated than the shadow from its substance.

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INDEX INDICATORIUS.

THE editor borrows this phrase from a popular periodical work of long standing*. Under this head, he proposes from time to time to throw together such observations, culled from the letters of his correspondents, as seem to be deserving of notice; though they do not merit a separate publication in the form they have been sent; and to make such acknowledgments and remarks upon the communications sent, as appear to be more deserving notice, than those consigned to the blue covers of this work.

As the editor has been favoured with a great many communications, apparently from *young* writers, he begs leave to preface this department of his work, with a few general observations calculated for their benefit.

Young people are generally induced to write from one of two motives, viz. a desire to display their own talents, or a wish to communicate to others information concerning some particular, that they think will prove entertaining or useful to them.—Too often, early in life, the *first* of these motives is the principal stimulus; and when that is the case, it seldom fails that their fond hopes are frustrated. Writing is an art that requires practice to bring it to perfection. This practice beginners must always want; on which account, their first productions, in most cases, are extremely disgusting to men of taste; so that unless there be some basis of useful disquisition at the bottom to atone for this disgust, instead of being admired, they are only despised: But if an ingenious youth feels his mind strongly impressed with some leading ideas, which he wishes to develop to others, he will, in this case, for the most part express himself with a becoming diffidence, that conciliates good will; and on account of the original thoughts that occur, every good natured reader will be disposed to overlook the little inaccuracies that must be expected to arise from inexperience. When a young man is therefore about to communicate his sentiments in any way to the public, let him first ask himself this simple question: "Is it merely because I wish to shine, that I take up the pen? Or do I feel certain ideas in my mind, that I do not perceive are familiar to others, which I should have a pleasure in communicating to them, as I think they will contribute either to their welfare, emolument, or satisfaction of mind?" If the first question be answered in the affirmative, let him abandon his project at the time, and I will answer for it he never will have reason to repent of it. But if his mind fairly acquires him of vanity, let him select for a subject that which impresses his mind the most forcibly and frequently; let him think of it often before he puts his thoughts to paper; and when at last he does write, let him try to express himself in the plainest language he can, without ornamental flourishes, or an attempt at the frippery of fine writing, which usually, at a tender age, makes so strong an impression on the imagination.

Let those who feel a predilection for verse, be informed, that among all the trifling acquirements a young person can aim at, that of making

* The Gentlemen's Magazine.

rhimes, is one of the easiest and at the same time the most insignificant. Young people, in general, think it a proof of extraordinary genius, if they can put two or three lines together, that shall run, in any measure, like verses; and whenever they can do this, they think so much of it, as never to be satisfied, till they see it in print. In this respect, they judge erroneously. The faculty of measuring a few syllables, is a thing that any person, with a tolerably just ear, can easily attain. But a poetic talent, which consists in a lively imagination, an ardent vigour of mind, a quickness of perception, and a faculty of combining objects together, so as to form new and striking images; is as rare as the other is common; but it is this last alone, which forms the poet. Would our youthful rhimers attend to this distinction, it would check their vanity in some degree, and make them hesitate, before they became candidates for the title of poets, merely because they had made a few smooth and uninteresting lines.

These general remarks premised, the editor proceeds to the task he has assigned to himself under this department.

Viator, who writes from Berwick, as if on his return from a tour through Scotland, complains of the low state as to food and wages of the labourers in Scotland, and contends, with great warmth, that their wages should be augmented. But has he adverted to the situation of those who have the wages to pay? Before reformations of this sort can be prudently attempted, many particulars require to be adverted to, that do not occur to a hasty traveller. And in every country, where perfect freedom is allowed to individuals, to follow what business they incline, things of this sort will inevitably find their natural level, without the regulating efforts of any man.

T. offers an hypothesis concerning the human soul that is not intelligible to us; which, for that reason, we decline offering to our readers; Metaphysical disquisitions, unless very short and very clear, will be sparingly admitted, as tending only to engender disputes, without leading to any useful conclusions.

J. S - - - ville proposes as a query, whether, if a perforation were made through the centre of this earth, and a stone dropped from the surface of the globe into that vacuity; the stone, by its increased velocity, when it reached the centre, would not have acquired such an impetus, as to enable it to rise, on the other side, as at first; and so on continue vibrating for ever? 2. He asks, what is the nature of the gelatinous substance, called by country-people, a shot star?

Verus observes, by way of answer to a remark in *The Mirror*, that Dean Swift did not know the favourable opinion of the Duchess of Marlborough had entertained of the author of *Gulliver's Travels*, otherwise it was not propable, he would have left a severe invective against her to be published after his death. But in this conjecture, he alleges the elegant writer of that essay has been mistaken; for Swift was really informed of this circumstance by his friend Gay, who writes thus to Swift, 17th November, 1726. "The Duchess dowager of Marlborough is in raptures with it, (*Gulliver's Travels*). She says she can dream of nothing else since she read it. She declares, that she hath now found out that

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her whole life hath been lost in caressing the worst part of mankind, and treating the best as her foes; and that if she knew Gulliver, though he had been the worst enemy she ever had, she would give up her present acquaintance for his friendship."

T. has sent us a rhapsody on the meanness of the usual mode of parliamenteering, the despicable nature of servility to the court, and the shuffling tricks of the minister, in which there is such a mixture of sense and vague declamation incongruously united, as prevents us from employing it. It is a pity this writer, who seems to err only through carelessness, should not bestow a little more attention to his pieces: For by rejecting incongruous ideas, and arranging his thoughts more properly, his writings would acquire a beauty, a justness and energy which they want at present. We beg leave to observe, once for all, that *general* invective, especially in politic disquisitions, can seldom be of any service. At least, it best serves those who wish to excite discontents from particular views; and as this is no part of our aim, we shall in general decline such writings. This is by no means intended to exclude free disquisitions on any point whatever; for as the editor will give his own sentiments, without hesitation, either for or against any measure that occurs, without respect to the persons by whom it may be promoted; so he wishes his correspondents to do the same, without regard either to his opinion, or that of any party; but he wishes they would let their remarks be *particular*, and not *general*, and be expressed with becoming moderation, as it is in this way alone, that precise ideas of right or wrong can be attained.

An old wbig, who assumes the opposite side of the question, and some others, run into the same error of being too general and vague in their mode of reasoning.

A young student, Mr. T. complains of the injury he has sustained, by being obliged to attend a greater number of professors at the university at once, than he can properly be able to understand, although he exerts his powers to the utmost. If this be a real case, it shews the injudiciousness of the parents; but we presume this is a case, that seldom occurs. We suspect, the error oftener lies in the other extreme.

Benevoglio regrets, that both writers and lecturers on ethics, so often disjoin religion from the moral principle, as he thinks the latter derive all their truths and efficacy from the former. "If the rules of morality are to be held binding on mankind; they must, like the rules and laws of human judicatories, infer, if not rewards for compliance with them, certain punishments for disobedience of them. How then, are these punishments discoverable, and by whom inflicted? If we are not to take into the account religious principles, which, whether derived from natural or revealed religion, instruct us that we are accountable to a supreme being, who will certainly vindicate laws, which, if they have any foundation in truth, must be derived from him?" This disjunction, he thinks, has given rise to a great many false systems, which have succeeded each other; and which, by being successively shewn to be erroneous, tend to inspire young persons with a notion, that there is no solid basis for morality, and to introduce a spirit of scepticism. He then pro-

ceeds to point out Paley's system of ethics; which, by making religion the foundation of morality, avoids this great stumbling block, and strongly recommends it to the public.

Agrestis complains of the brutality of some persons, who, with a view, as they think, to preserve their own dignity, require from people of an inferior station, degrading marks of debasement and humility:—And reprehends with great justice and severity, the insolent meanness of a young man of this sort, who permitted a poor old man with a few grey hairs in his head, to stand *uncovered* beside him for a quarter of an hour in the street while it rained hard; the gentleman, as he called himself, being screened all the while by his umbrella. Such disregard to the feelings of another, surely marks a meanness of soul, that ought to be execrated by every one.

A Reader takes notice of the powerful influence of fashion in certain respects, and strongly animadverts on the prevalence of the practice of duelling, which he supposes proceeds from this source; and adduces many arguments that have been too often urged in vain, to check this growing evil. He introduces on this occasion a well known story of a challenge that was sent by one member of a *literary* body in Edinburgh, to another celebrated member of the same, which we think, had better be suffered to fall into oblivion, than be publicly connected with either of their names.

A Speculator, after pointing out the great benefits that would result to any country from the discovery of coals in it, if not already known, proposes, that the proprietors of each county should assess themselves in a certain sum, to be equally born by all, according to their valued rent. This money to be employed in searching for coals, wherever persons of skill should think they were most likely to be found, without any respects to the proprietor on whose ground they should be discovered. If such an institution should be made, it no doubt might be the means of discovering some; but we would recommend as an improvement to the plan, that in case a coal should be thus discovered, the whole of the money that had been advanced by the community should be repaid out of the first of the profits; and perhaps it would be still more equitable to say, that each of the persons who had been in the original association, should be entitled to receive what coals they had occasion for, for their own use, and that of their tenants, at one fourth, one eighth, or any other rate that should be judged better, lower than the same coals were sold for to others.

Scratch-crown points out the danger and folly of persons in an inferior station, aping their betters in fashionable and expensive amusements: And describes a kind of low dancing school balls or dances, that are attended by journey men barbers, and others of a similar class in this town, which occasion expence to these persons they are ill able to afford, and are productive of many bad consequences. He therefore warmly dissuades them from prosecuting this kind of amusement, and rather recommends a taste for reading in its stead.

Marcianus recommends to the notice of our readers a poem written by George Buchanan; an elegant epithalamium on the marriage of Mary of Scotland with Francis the dauphin of France; on which he of-

fers a copious comment:—But to English readers this would prove nothing interesting, and classical scholars can find the original in the works of Buchanan. It would prove a more acceptable entertainment to a literary society, than this miscellany. It is a pity it should be lost, and will be returned if desired.

A real friend, objects with great seriousness against the essay “on the iniquity of prescribing oaths in certain cases;” and with much earnestness, reprobates the doctrines contained in that paper, for which we do not see a sufficient foundation. The chief weight of his argument lies in the impropriety, of representing human nature in such a degrading light, as to suppose that mankind are generally influenced by worldly considerations.—Now, allowing the fullest weight to this objection, it can reach no farther than this, that granting *some* men should be found who will, in no case, be influenced by worldly considerations, it must be admitted, that there are many who have not the fortitude of mind to resist temptations.—We are even taught by the highest authority, to pray that we may be delivered from temptation. It is certainly, therefore, to be wished, that as few allurements as possible should be held out to invite weak creatures to deviate from the right path. And this, we think, is all the moral that can fairly be inferred from the paper reprehended.

As to the circumstance of one person entertaining a higher idea than another of the human powers, respecting virtuous exertions, different persons have ever entertained different opinions, and will continue to do so till the end of time; and it would be a vain attempt to try to reconcile them in this respect. If they can be brought to concur in attempting to render man better and wiser than they have been, a great point will be gained; and this shall be our aim.

Cato, who also signs R. says he was deputed by a set of merry fellows to give a critique on the stanzas intitled, “The season for remembering the poor.” From the name he has given to the society of which he is a member, we presume it was intended to be very droll;—but that species of wit, called *humour*, is perhaps more difficult to acquire, where nature has not planted the seeds of it, than any other.—The critique in question is entirely devoid of it, and therefore could have afforded no entertainment to our readers.

Irony is another species of wit, which, when dexterously managed, is exquisitely pleasing; but where it is not truly fine, it is of no value. We are sorry to be obliged to decline the intended satire by a *pretty fellow*, on account of the want of edge in the *irony*.—Swift has evidently been the model;—but Sterne and Swift, from the exquisite beauty of some of their productions, have misled more young writers, in hopes of attaining that kind of excellence by imitating them, than perhaps any others in the English language. To admire their pieces, and to be able to imitate them successfully, are very different things. We wish to see as few imitations of any sort, as possible. When the mind is strongly impressed with ideas, it cannot find leisure to think of the manner of others, but advances with a firm step, regardless of the frippiry of affectation. If the thoughts are bold and just, the expressions are usually artless and energetic,

and seldom fail to please. *Mes sans pauper in Ere* was the boast of an old author. A man usually appears to much better advantage in a plain dress of his own, than in more gaudy apparel that has been made to fit another.

To the Reader.

At the close of this volume, it would be unbecoming in the editor not to express the just sense he entertains of the favour with which an indulgent public hath honoured this performance. So conscious, indeed, is he of the little merit of what is already done, that he finds himself much at a loss for words to express the grateful sense he entertains of the uncommon encouragement he has received. Since the commencement of this work, his attention has been too much occupied by the arrangements, respecting the mechanical execution of it, to allow him to bestow that attention he wished to the literary part. These embarrassments are now, however, in part abated, and he trusts that every day will diminish them more and more. But, upon reviewing this volume, he is persuaded that few of his readers will feel so sensibly its imperfections, as he does himself. Relying upon the indulgence of the public, he judged it more advisable to delay several articles that came within the limits of his plan, than to attempt them at a time when it would have been quite impracticable for him to have done them, what he would have thought justice in the execution.

He has received several communications from unknown correspondents, expressive of much approbation; from others, he has received letters in such a strain, as could not have failed to excite his risible faculties; had his mind been in a proper frame for it. Persons who can scarcely spell three words on end, and who cannot write a sentence, without committing the strangest grammatical blunders, assume the place of judges, and, without hesitation, have criticized every piece that has appeared in this collection; and pronounced the whole, without one single exception, "Most execrable stuff." (pardon the vulgarity of the phrase). Persons, whose reading has scarcely extended to a common newspaper, pronounced *the whole* to be borrowed from other performances, and have condescended on particular pieces by name, as entirely transcribed from other works, of which the editor well knew, that not a line or a sentence had ever been seen elsewhere. These performances he has allowed to slide into oblivion, without so much as a note of remembrance upon the blue cover. To some others, he has been indebted for some just reprehensions and useful hints, of which he will avail himself.

One general theme on which these unskilful critics have uniformly dwelt, is want of originality in the pieces that have been offered in this miscellany; a circumstance that strongly betrayed their want of reading, for in respect of the proportional number of original pieces, this miscellany as far as it has gone, may stand a fair comparison with any other that is

published, and without a doubt, contains a much greater proportion of these than most of the periodical publications in Britain. This circumstance, however, is here stated merely as a *matter of fact*, and is not adduced as a proof of its superior excellence. Had fewer original pieces been admitted, it is by no means improbable that its intrinsic merit might have been the greater; as well chosen copies from other works may be more valuable, than compositions that have never been published. Had originality of matter been all his aim, the editor might easily have satisfied himself; as he has materials in his possession that might have filled several volumes, without taking a single line from any printed work whatever. But as the avowed intention of this miscellany, is to select from other performances, as well as to give new matter, he thinks he should have been to blame, had he not attempted in some measure to comply with the terms of his proposals. This he has done as to this particular to a *certain degree*, though, were he himself to judge, not so much as he ought to have done; but he thinks he perceives, that others put a higher value upon mere originality as such, than he does; nor will he presume to set up his own judgment as a standard for others, but will endeavour to accommodate himself in every innocent compliance, as much as he can, to the desires of the public. No part of the office that falls to his share as an editor, is half so disagreeable as that of rejecting pieces, that persons from the best motives have had the goodness to send him? and nothing but a strong sense of duty to his readers, could induce him to take it upon himself. The writers of these pieces, it may be supposed, eye them with a parent's fondness. One naturally feels a reluctance at the thought of giving pain: should the judgment in these circumstances be swayed a little by good nature, it ought to be considered as a more excusable weakness, than a stern severity. Yet the editor fears, that many of his correspondents will think there is little room for accusing him of this weakness, while others will say he is guilty of it to an unpardonable degree. Of this he does not complain, nor of the contradictory requests of his different correspondents, some of whom condemn in the severest terms, those pieces that others talk of with rapture; while in their turn they disapprove of the performances, the others have highly applauded; so that, like the man with the two wives, who weeded out of his head alternately the black hairs and the white, were they permitted to go on, he should soon have none, or were he to listen to both parties, he would be reduced to the necessity of presenting a book, like Sterne, of blank pages, as the only mean left of avoiding offence. Of all this the editor does not complain, because every one who assumes the office he bears, must expect a similar fate. Knowing therefore, that it is impossible to please alike every taste, he will go on to select, to the best of his judgment, such pieces, whether originals or copies, as shall seem to have the best chance of forwarding the views announced in his prospectus; ever paying due attention to the friendly hints of those who think he errs, and relying upon the public indulgence for overlooking unavoidable defects.

It is with infinite vexation he remarks the number of typographical errors that have slipped into this work. Of the circumstances that have oc-

occasioned that he cannot be a proper judge; but from their being unusual in the quarter from whence they have proceeded, they must probably be occasioned by circumstances equally unavoidable in a beginning work, as those which affected himself. Had time permitted, rather than have allowed some of the numbers to have gone abroad in their present incorrect state, he would willingly have been at the expence of having them reprinted; but this was impossible: measures however, must, and shall be adopted *at any rate* to guard against similar defects in future. If ever another edition of this volume shall be called for, in circumstances which admit of its being done more leisurely and correctly, the editor will think himself bound to exchange that more correct copy for the present, to such of his subscribers as shall desire it. As to the mixture of paper, and the inaccuracies in folding which were unavoidable at the beginning, he hopes his subscribers find already much less room for complaint than before, and that in future things will still be better.

It was proposed to extend the present number so far beyond the usual size, as to include the chronicle (which for this volume will be less perfect than is intended in others), and index; but it was found that this would have retarded the publication of this number beyond the usual time of publication; it is therefore published without them. The chronicle and index will be published separately with all convenient dispatch and shall be delivered *gratis* to the subscribers.

No endeavour shall be wanting to render the succeeding volume more deserving the public favour than the present. But the editor will be cautious of exciting expectations which he may not have in his power to the extent he would incline.

The dispute with Spain has greatly interrupted his communications with that kingdom and the southern parts of Europe; and the winter has precluded communications by sea with the coasts of the Baltic, which has greatly curtailed his correspondence with Germany. But these interruptions it is hoped will now be soon removed.

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