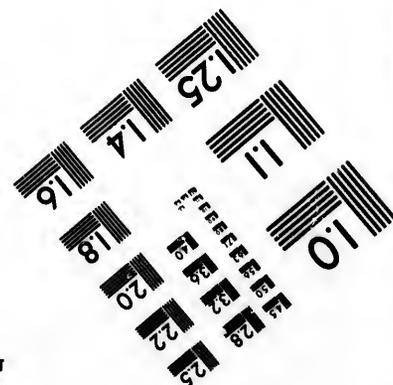
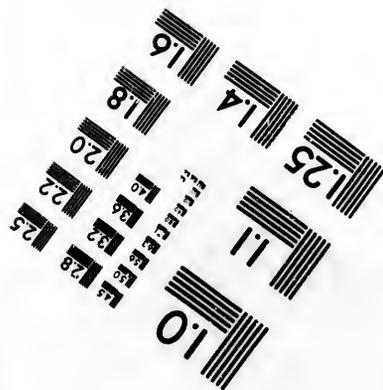
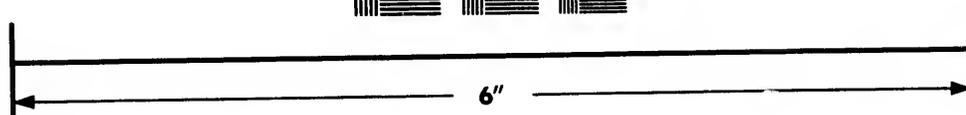
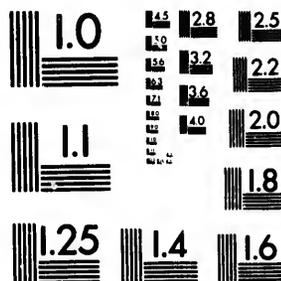


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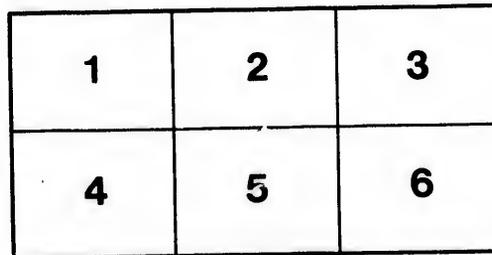
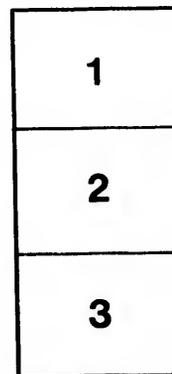
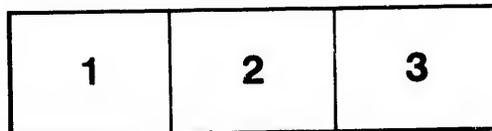
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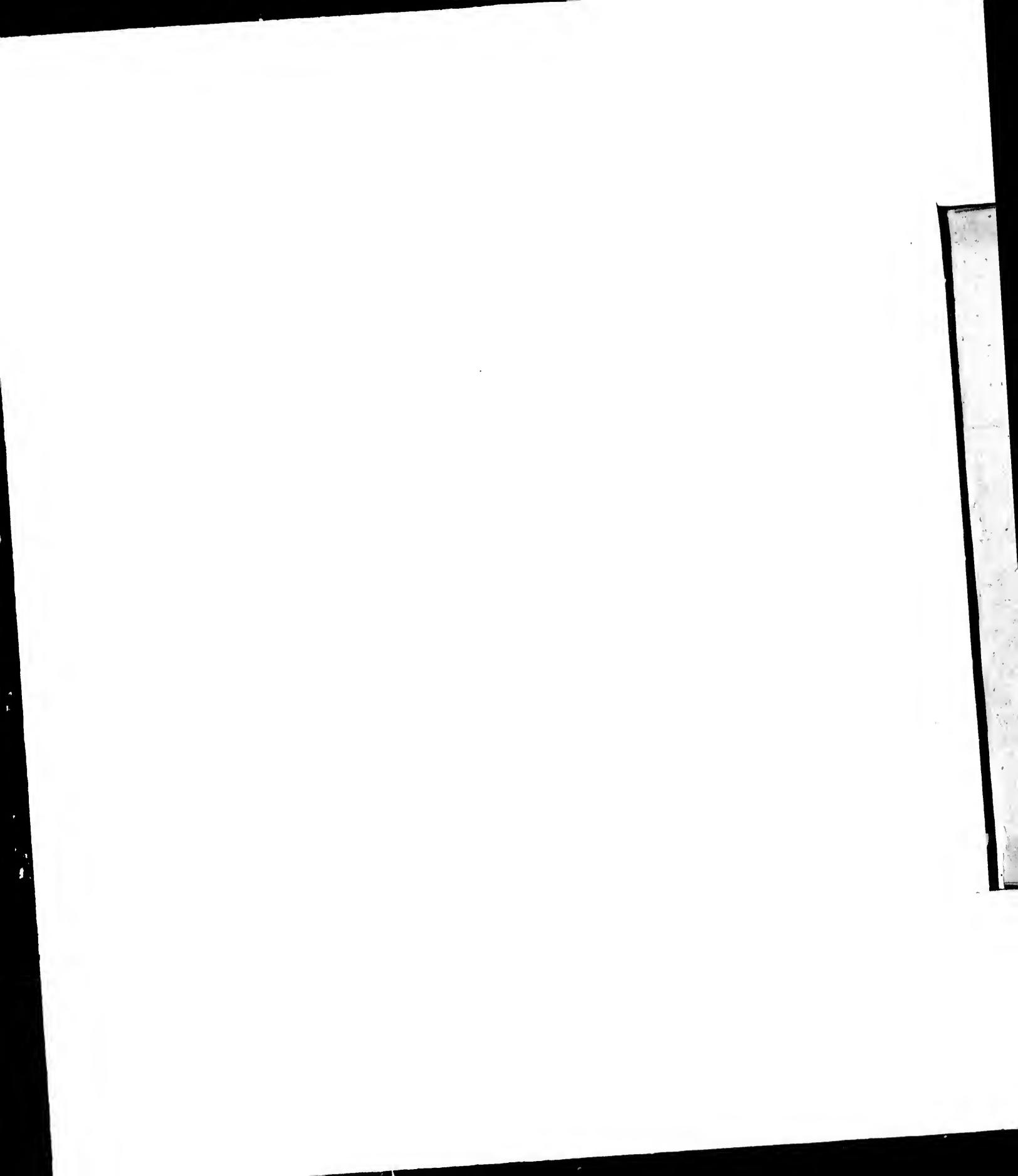
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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER.

CONSISTING OF

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

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

BY

JAMES ANDERSON, L.L.D.

F.R.S. F.A.S. S.

*Honorary Member of the Society of Arts, Agriculture, &c. at BATH;
of the Philosophical, and of the Agricultural Societies in MAN-
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Royal Society of Agriculture and Rural Economy, ST PETERSBURGH;
Correspondent Member of the Royal Society of Agriculture PARIS;
and author of several performances.*

VOLUME EIGHTEENTH.

APIS MATINA MORE MODOQUE. HORACE.



EDINBURGH:
PRINTED BY THE EDITOR
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COMMON PAPER.



ENGRAVED FOR THE BARR.



R. Scott fecit.

Mr. Will: Aikman, Painter.

From an Original painting by himself, in the possession
of Mr FORBES, Edin'

Published by J. Anderson, Nov: 13.th 1793.

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WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 6. 1793.

BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES OF
 EMINENT SCOTTISH ARTISTS.

*Mr William Dickman painter.
 with a portrait.*

Among eminent Scottish artists who have been better known abroad than in their own country, must be classed the object of the present memoir. Wealth may be said to be the parent of the fine arts; and a poor country must in general be abandoned by such of her children as have a desire for attaining excellence in that line; for in such a country models of perfection are rare, and few opportunities occur for an artist either to correct his judgement or improve

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his taste. There, however, it as necessarily happens that, as adventitious circumstances rarely call the attention of youth to that line of business, it is the powerful incitements of genius alone that prompts any one to prosecute the study of the fine arts, so that perhaps fewer unsuccessful attempts may be expected there to be made, than in countries which are more favourably circumstanced.

There are few instances of young persons in Scotland setting out in life with an intention of prosecuting the fine arts: It is scarcely ever within the view of the parents. The education of children of persons in easy circumstances in Scotland is invariably directed toward the attainment of literary knowledge, either to fit them for the profession of the law, or to enable them to act a becoming part in the character of a gentleman. Hence it happens that Scottish artists abroad, are in general as much distinguished for elegant mental acquirements as professional skill; which tends to connect them more intimately with acquaintances formed abroad than is usual among those of other nations, and which too often prevents them from returning to their native country, or continuing in it after they have attained eminence in their art.

Such was the case with Mr Aikman. His father, a man of eminence at the Scottish bar*, intended that his son should follow the same profession with him-

* He was Sherriff of Forfar-shire, and in the nomination of a lord of Session at the time of his death.

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self, and gave him an education suitable to these views; but the strong predilection of the son to the fine arts frustrated these views; and he was no sooner at liberty to choose for himself than he decidedly determined to abandon the study of the law, and to attach himself to that of painting alone.

Poetry, painting, and music have, with justice, been called sister arts. The finer feelings of the human mind are the object on which they all are intended to operate; and it seldom happens that any person excels much in one of these arts who is not likewise an admirer of the others. Mr Aikman was fond of poetry; and was particularly delighted with those unforced strains which, proceeding from the heart, are calculated to touch the congenial feelings of sympathetic minds, and make them vibrate with that delicate unison which those alone who have felt it can appreciate. It was this propensity which attached Mr Aikman so warmly to Allan Ramsay, the the Doric bard of Scotland, whose artless strains have been admired wherever the language in which he wrote was known. Though younger than the bard, Mr Aikman, while at college, formed an intimate acquaintance with Ramsay, which constituted a principal part of his happiness at that time, and of which he always bore the tenderest recollection. It was the same delicate bias of mind which at a future period of his life, attached him so warmly to Thomson, who unknown, and unprotected by others at that time, stood in need of, and obtained the warmest patronage of Aikman; who perhaps considered it as one of the most fortunate occurrences in his life that

4 *Scottish artists--W. Aikman. Nov. 6.*

he had it in his power to introduce this young poet of nature to Sir Robert Walpole, who wished to be reckoned the patroniser of genius, Arbuthnot, Swift, Pope, Gay, and the other *beau esprits* of that brilliant period. Thomson cou' not never forget this kindness; and when he had the misfortune, too soon, to lose this warm friend and kind protector, he bewailed the loss in strains which, for justness of thought, and genuine pathos of expression, will perhaps be allowed to equal any thing he ever wrote, though some may think they fall short of other passages, in that flowing melody of sound which so few others have been able to imitate.*

Mr Aikman having prosecuted his studies for some time in Britain, found that to complete them it would be necessary to go into Italy, to form his taste on the fine models of antiquity which there alone can be found in abundance. And as he perceived that the profession he was to follow, could not permit him to manage properly his paternal estate, situated in a remote place near Arbroath in the county of Forfar in Scotland, he at this time thought proper to sell it, and settle all family claims upon him, that he might thus be at full liberty to act as circumstances might require.

In the year 1707 he went to Italy; and having resided, chiefly at Rome, for three years, and ta

* These lines are inserted complete in this number. The last eight lines only, which doubtless are the best, are all that have been usually inserted in Thomson's works; but the whole deserves to be preserved, not only on account of the poetry, but as an original portrait of a worthy man who has not been sufficiently known.

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1793. *Scottish artists—W. Aikman.* 3

ken instructions from, and formed an acquaintance with the principal artists of that period, he chose to gratify his curiosity by travelling into Turkey. He went first to Constantinople, and from thence to Smyrna. There he became acquainted with all the British gentlemen of the factory; and finding them a very agreeable set of people, he made a longer stay than he had intended. They had even engaged him to forsake the pencil and to join them in the Turkey trade: But that scheme not taking place, he went once more to Rome and pursued his former studies there, till the year 1712 when he returned to his native country; there he followed his profession of painting for sometime, applauded by the discerning few; though the public, too poor at that period to be able to purchase valuable pictures, were unable to give adequate encouragement to his superior merit. John Duke of Argyll, who equally admired the artist and esteemed the man, regretting that such talents should be lost, at length prevailed on Mr Aikman to move with all his family to London, in the year 1723; thinking this the only theatre in Britain where his talents could be properly displayed. There, under the auspices of the Duke of Argyll, who honoured Mr Aikman with particular marks of his friendship, he formed anew habits of intimacy with the first artists there, particularly with Sir Godfrey Kneller, whose studies and dispositions of mind were very congenial to his own.

In this society he soon became known and patronised by people of the first rank, and was in habits of intimacy with many of them; particularly the

earl of Burlington, so well known for his taste in the fine arts, especially architecture. For him he painted, among others, a large picture of the royal family of England, for the end of a principal room in his house: in the middle compartment are all the younger branches of the family on a very large canvas, and on one hand above the door a half length of her majesty Queen Caroline; the picture of the King was intended to fill the niche opposite to it, but Mr Aikman's death happening before it was begun, the place for it is left blank. This picture is now in the possession of the Duke of Devonshire, whose father married Lady Mary Boyle, daughter and only child to the earl of Burlington.

This was perhaps the last picture finished by Mr Aikman, and is in his best stile, which like that of Raphael went on continually improving to the last. His country had the misfortune of losing him too at a very early age.

Towards the close of his life he painted many other pictures of people of the first rank and fashion in England. At Blickling in Norfolk, the seat of Hobart Earl of Buckinghamshire, in a gallery there, are a great many full length pictures by Mr Aikman, of noblemen, gentlemen, and ladies, relations and friends of the earl. These, with the royal family, above named, were his last works; and but a few of the number he painted in London.

Mr Aikman was the particular friend of Mr William Somerville, the author of the *Chace*, *Hobbinol*, and several other performances of merit, from whom he received an elegant tribute of the

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1793. *Scottish artists—W. Aikman.* 7

muse, on his painting a full length portrait of him in the decline of life, carrying him back, by the assistance of another portrait, to his youthful days. This poem was never published in any edition of that gentleman's works: By the favour of an obliging correspondent, I have been enabled to insert it in this number of the Bee—See the article poetry.

The subject of this memoir was the only son of William Aikman of Caerney Esq. advocate, by Margaret sister of Sir John Clerk of Pennycook Bart. He was born on the 24th October 1682. He married Marion Lawson, daughter to Mr Lawson of Cairnmuir, in Tweedale, by whom he had one son named John, who died at his house in Leicester fields London, on the 14th January 1731. Mr Aikman himself having died soon after, both father and son were buried in the same grave at the same time.*

The following epitaph written on that mournful occasion by Mr Mallet, who was another of Mr Aikman's intimate friends, was engraven on their tomb

* John Aikman died in Leicester fields London, on the 14th of January O S 1731, and as his father propos'd going to Scotland that year, and intending to send down his son's remains, they were, in the mean time, deposited in a vault belonging to a friend in St. Martin's church.

Mr Aikman dying the 7th of June thereafter, they were brought from thence and sent down alongst with his father's, and were inter'd in the same grave on the same day.

Mr Aikman died in the 49th year of his age, and his son in the 17th of his.

8 *Scottish artists—W. Aikman.* Nov. 6.
in the Grey Friars church yard Ediuburgh, but is
now so much obliterated as not to be legible. This
copy of it has been furnished by his daughter, who
preserved it with care, and is entirely authentic.

EPI T A P H.

*On Mr Aikman and his only Son John Aikman, by Mr David Mal-
let Author of Eurydice, &c.*

Dear to the good, and wise, disprais'd by none,
Here sleep, in peace, the Father, and the Son;
By Virtue, as by Nature, close ally'd,
The Painter's genius, but without the Pride;
Worth unambitious, wit, afraid to shine,
Honour's clear light, and friendship's warmth divine:
The Son fair rising, knew too short a date;
But oh! how more severe the parent's fate!
He saw him torn untimely from his side,
Felt all a father's anguish, wept, and dy'd.

Allan Ramsay, who had the misfortune to sur-
vive his friend, paid also a poetical tribute to his
memory.*

Mr Aikman left behind him two daughters; Mar-
garet, married to Hugh Forbes Esq. advocate,
lately one of the principal clerks of session in Scot-
land, and brother to the gallant general Forbes who
took fort *Du Quesne* from the French in the war
1758, and Henrietta, married to William Carru-
thers Esq. of Dormont in Galloway.

In his stile of painting Mr Aikman seems to
have aimed at imitating nature in her pleasing sim-

* An Eclogue to the memory of Mr William Aikman our cele-
brated painter—published in his works.

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1793. *Scottish artists—W. Aikman.* 9
plicity: his lights are soft, his shades mellow, and his colouring mild and harmonious. His touches have neither the force nor harshness of Reubens; nor does he seem, like Reynolds, ever to have aimed at adorning his portraits with the elegance of adventitious graces. His mind, tranquil and serene, delighted rather to wander, with Thomson, in the enchanting fields of Tempe, than to burst, with Michael Angelo, into the ruder scenes of the terrible and the sublime. His compositions are distinguished by a placid tranquillity and ease rather than a striking brilliancy of effect, and his portraits may be more readily mistaken for those of Kneller than any other eminent artist; not only because of the general resemblance in the dresses, which were those of the times, they being cotemporaries, but also for the manner of working, and the similarity, and bland mellowness of their tints.

There are several portraits painted by Mr Aikman in Scotland in the possession of the Duke of Argyll, the Duke of Hamilton, and others.

There is also a portrait of Mr Aikman, in the gallery of the Grand Duke of Tuscany painted by himself, and another of the same in the possession of his daughter, Mrs Forbes in Edinburgh, whose only son now represents the family of Aikman.

The portrait given along with this number has, by the favour of Mrs Forbes, been taken from the painting here mentioned, which she thinks is a striking likeness of her father. She has another portrait

10 *oration of Lomonosoff.* Nov. 6.
of Mr Aikman in a Turkish dress, done by himself
while in Turkey, but it was never quite finished;
nor does Mrs Forbes think the likeness so exact.

ORATION

TO THE MEMORY OF PETER THE GREAT, DELIVERED
BEFORE THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AT ST PETERS-
BURGH, ON THE 26 OF APRIL 1755. THE ANNIVERSA-
RY OF THE CORONATION OF THE EMPRESS ELIZA-
BETH, BY MICHAEL LOMONOSSOFF.

Translated from the Russian language.

Continued from vol. xvii. p. 314.

PEACEABLE neighbours!* to you I now direct my
discourse. When you hear these praises of the martial
skill of our Hero; when you hear of victories gain-
ed over yourselves by the Russian troops, consider
it not as your reproach, but as your honour. It is
more glorious to have resisted a long time the power
of Russia; to have resisted Peter the Great; a man
sent by God to be the admiration of the universe,
and at length to be overcome by him, than to have
conquered undisciplined troops under a weak leader.
You reckon the bravery of your hero Charles your

* The orator in this apostrophe addresses himself to the Swedes,
formerly the enemies but now the peaceable neighbours, in fact in
some measure the vassals of Russia; for so much had they been ex-
hausted by the over strained exertions of Charles, that they had been
obliged to purchase peace from Russia at the expence of some pro-
vinces then wrested from them—which they have not yet forgotten.

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chief glory; and you call in testimony the consent of the whole world, that scarce any one could have stood before the face of his anger, had not the wonderful council of providence raised up, in our native country, Peter the Great to oppose him. His brave legions, regulated by discipline he himself had introduced, manifested by subsequent victories, how ardent their zeal, how great their martial skill, acquired by wise instruction and prudent example. Passing over numerous victories which Russian troops are wont to reckon by the number of engagements; nor counting the great number of towns and strong holds subdued, we have ample testimony in the two glorious victories at Lesnoi and Pöltowa. Where has God more eminently manifested his favour to us? Where did the advantage attending the blessed undertaking and industrious prosecution of the plan of establishing a regular force more evidently appear? What more strange, what more improbable could possibly have followed? An army accustomed to order; levied in provinces famous for audacity in battle; under leaders trained from infancy to military exploits; an army plentifully provided with warlike necessaries, declines an encounter with the new legions of Russia, inferior in number. They, giving no rest to their opposers, by a rapid march, overtook them, fought them, and conquered. Their chief leader with the small remains of his troops scarcely escaped captivity, that he might carry the melancholy tidings to his master; who, although staggered with the news, yet actuated by a manly and impetuous spirit, still whetted himself against

Russia: He still trusted that the infant troops of Peter could never stand against his own virile forces, led on under his own direction; and, relying on the impudent assurances of a faithless rebel, he did not hesitate to march into the Ukrain borders of our native country. He viewed Russia with haughty conceptions, and imagined he already held the North under his foot. But God rewarded the uninterrupted toils of Peter, by a complete victory over this despisier of his solitudes, who, contrary to all expectation, was made eye witness to the incredible success of our hero in military affairs; and who even by flight could not escape the remembrance of the well established bravery of the Russian legions.*

Having established the fame of his army by such eminent victories, our great monarch shewed that it was instituted for our safety; for he not only ordained that it should never be disbanded, even in the time of profound peace, as was frequently done by former sovereigns, to the great diminution of the power and glory of our native country; but determined to maintain it always in perfect readiness. O real paternal attention! He often recommended to his confidential and trusty subjects, kissing them and begging them with tears, to take care that the transformation of Russia, prosecuted with so much pains, and accompanied with such wonderful success, particularly

* When Peter sent to Charles to treat of peace, Charles returned this contemptuous answer, that he would talk of that business in Moscow. Tell your master, said Peter, that though he wants to play the Alexander, he will not meet with a Darius in me.

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martial skill, should, after his death, never be suffered to fall into neglect; and at that happy time when God granted to Russia a glorious and useful peace with the crown of Sweden, and when the most sincere congratulations and well deserved titles of **IMPERATOR, GREAT, and FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY,** were presented to him; he did not forget to recommend publicly to the supreme senate, that, relying on peace, they ought not to suffer military affairs to fall into neglect. By this did he not plainly intimate that these high titles would not be agreeable to him, unless support and attention to a regular force was in future observed?

Having cast a transient glance over the forces of Peter on shore, which attained virility in infancy, and united victory with schoolboy-ship, let us now, hearers! stretch our eyes towards the waters, and contemplate the works of the Lord, and his wonders in the deep, held forth by Peter to the astonished world.

The extensive dominion of Russia, like the globe itself, is almost every where encompassed by seas; and she plants them to herself as barriers. Upon all we see the Russian streamers displayed: Here, the disembogements of great rivers, and new formed havens scantily contain their numbers; there, the waves groan under the weight of the Russian fleet, while the sounds of fire-belching engines echo in the boiling whirlpool: Here, gilded ships flourishing like the spring, reflect their images in the smooth surface, increasing their own beauty; there, the mariner having reach-

ed a secure port, unloads for our use the produce of distant lands: Here, new Columbuses hasten to unknown shores for the advancement of Russian power and fame; there, another Typhis dares to sail amid warring mountains, and wrestling with snow, frost, and eternal ice, attempts to join the eastern to the western world. From whence in so short a time has the power and fame of Russian fleets extended itself over so many seas? from whence the materials? from whence the skill? from whence the machines and instruments necessary in so difficult and varied an object? Have not the giants of old, tearing from the thick forest and lofty mountains, huge oaks, hurled them to the shores? Has not Amphion with his melodious lyre gathered the detached members of these flying over wave castles? In truth, to such causes would the wonderful celerity of Peter in arming a fleet be imputed, if such an improbable, and seemingly supernatural event had happened in distant antiquity, and not in the memory of eye witnesses, and in well authenticated written documents. In these we read with astonishment, and from those in social conversation we hear with agreeable emotion, and perceive that it is impossible to determine, whether more toils in establishing an army or creating a fleet, were endured by Peter the great. This however, is in no ways doubtful, that in both he was unwearied, in both unexampled. That he might know all that can possibly happen in an action on shore, he passed through all stations; and in his own person experienced all manner of work, lest he should overlook in any person neglect of duty, or demand more

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from any one than he could perform. In like manner in sea affairs, he left nothing without examination, where it was possible to employ his penetrating genius or industrious hands. From the very time of his discovering the old boat,—a thing small in itself, but great in its consequences, which excited the restless spirit of Peter to the useful purpose of establishing a navy, and of manifesting the power of Russia on the deep, he directed and expanded the powers of his capacious soul to all the parts of this solid undertaking*. Having considered all, he was

* The penetrating mind of Peter let nothing escape his notice; and the slightest incidents suggested to him a train of the most important ideas. Perfectly unacquainted as he was in his infancy with maritime affairs, and ignorant, from the confined education he had obtained, of the uses of a navy, he chanced one day, in one of those youthful excursions in which his active disposition kept him perpetually engaged, to find an old boat lying neglected in a small lake. He viewed it with surprise: He instantly perceived the uses that might be made of vessels of that kind. His mind, dwelling on this idea, stretched wide, and wide, and wider still. A new creation opened to his view. He saw the future navies of Russia embracing the whole globe. His soul was fired at the thought; nor did he afterwards ever lose sight of it. But unlike to lesser minds, tho' he never afterwards lost sight of this for one moment, he did not abandon the other measures he saw necessary for promoting the civilization of his people, and the aggrandizement of his empire. Every one in the least acquainted with the history of Peter, knows the wonderful exertions he made to establish a taste for maritime affairs in that empire, and to create a navy; but every one is not disposed to advert to the multiplicity of objects that perpetually claimed his exertions; to the ardour with which each of them was prosecuted, and to the innumerable difficulties that were every where to be overcome at once, or to the energy with which every one of them was pursued. Those only who are inattentive can withhold their admiration of this wonderful man!

convinced that it was impossible to expect success in so difficult an affair, unless he himself should acquire a sufficient degree of knowledge in the intricate business. But where was this to be obtained? What will this great man now undertake? The innumerable multitude collected to see an enrapturing spectacle on the plains of Moscow, were astonished when they beheld our Hero, scarcely emerged from the years of infancy, in presence of the royal household, before the most distinguished ranks of the Russian Empire, and attended by the assembled nobility, sometimes exulting, sometimes trembling for the health of their young master, like a master measuring out the bounds of a regular fort, like a common soldier toiling in the moats and wheeling off the earth; like a sovereign commanding, like a wise teacher and enlightener, giving example to all. But he excited more astonishment, exhibited a more interesting object to the eyes of the whole world, when, having convinced himself of the advantage of navigation, first on the shallow waters of Moscow, then on the more extended width of the lakes of Rostouskij and Kubenskij, and lastly on the extensive White Sea, he for a time left his kingdom, and, concealing the majesty of his person, in a foreign land, amidst common labourers, did not disdain to learn shipbuilding. Those that were engaged at the same time with him in learning this trade, were at first surprised that a Russian should, in so short a space, not only learn plain carpenter's work; should not only leave no one part necessary to the building or fit-

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ting out of a ship, which he could not make with his own hands, but that he should also have attained so great a skill in naval architecture that Holland could not satisfy the extensiveness of his understanding. But afterwards how great was their amazement, when they understood that it was no common Russian, but the governor himself of that extensive region, who extended hands formed and anointed to wield a sceptre, to burdensome labours.*

But was it only from mere curiosity, or at most for the purpose of being able to show and direct, that he in Holland and Britain acquired perfectly the theory and practice of equipping a fleet, and of the navigating art? Every where this great man, not only by commands and remuneration, but by his own personal example, roused his subjects to exertion. I call you to witness ye Russian floods; I turn to you ye happy shores bedewed with his sweat; How did you re-echo hearty and zealous shouts, when the mazy ribs of a future ship, scarcely moved by sinewy workmen, impetuously rushed along at the touch of his hand; when the croud enlivened by his example, with incredible speed completed the huge edifice. What a strange, and to a zealous heart, what an affecting object, did the gathered nations enjoy, when these lofty edifices took their departure for the deep! when their unwearied founder, now

* This is no exaggerated fiction of the orator, but a well known truth. Peter, in disguise, worked for a considerable time both in Holland and in England as a common carpenter, that he might not only acquire a real knowledge of this important art himself but inspire his subjects with an ardour to acquire it.

on their top, now under them, now around them, considered the sufficiency of every part, the strength of the machines, the exactness of all the preventatives; and when he corrected detected insufficiencies by his orders, by his encouragement, by his penetration, and by the nimble skill of his indefatigable hands. By this unremitting attention, by this constancy, unconquerable in labour the fabulous celerity of antiquity, was in the days of Peter actually exemplified.

How agreeable these successes in naval affairs so highly advantageous to the glory of the country, and the offspring of his own attention, were to this great man, it is easily to conceive, not only from the rewards he gave to his fellow labourers in the work, but also by the noble marks of gratitude shown to inanimate wood. The streams of Neva* are covered with vessels and streamers; its banks cannot contain the number of collected spectators; the air trembles and groans with the shouts of the people, with the noise of oars, with the voice of trumpets, at the crack of fire rifting machines. What happiness, what joy does Heaven now dispense to us? To meet whom does our monarch go out with such magnificence? An † old boat! but the origin of a new and powerful navy! Considering the majesty, beauty, energy, and glorious effects of this, and at the same time the smallness and badness of that, we conclude

* River that runs through Peterburgh.

† This old boat is carefully preserved in the castle at Peterburgh, in a brick building constructed for this purpose.

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that nothing could have brought about this change, but, in undertaking the giant like boldness, and in prosecution the unwearied assiduity of Peter.

In power and martial skill our great Protector was on land supreme, and at sea complete.

From this short sketch, containing a small portion of his toils, I already suffer weariness, hearers; But what an extensive field for praise do I yet see before me! Thus that my strength and time may not fail me in finishing my discourse, I shall use all possible brevity.

To be continued.

ON THE MODE OF PROVIDING FOR THE POOR.

It is admitted by all civilized nations, that those who, from age, disease, or accidental debility, are unable to provide for themselves, ought to be furnished with a subsistence, in one way or other, by the community to which they belong. It was on this principle that the law imposing an involuntary poors rate in England was grounded, a law which, though founded on the principles of justice and humanity, has given rise to more multiplied acts of injustice, and by consequence has more frequently outraged the principles of humanity, than perhaps any other law that ever was enacted by man.

Before that system was devised, the providing for the poor, especially under the Christian dispensation, was considered as a *moral* duty rather than a *civil* obliga-

tion, and acts of charity and beneficence were recommended as among the most effectual means of conciliating the divine favour. This is a principle so congenial to the feelings of the human mind, that it has been very universally received among all sects of religion; and artful men taking advantage of this bias, have contrived in all ages to extort considerable sums from pious persons, under this pretext, which have in many cases been applied to very different uses than those for which such pious benefactions were originally intended. This formed one of the great sources of that corruption of which the professors of the Roman Catholic religion were so justly accused, and which finally brought about that schism in the Christian church which has since been called *the reformation*; a change which, though beneficial to mankind upon the whole, has, like every innovation in religion or government, given rise to abuses of a kind that were not formerly felt, and which were not foreseen at the time that the foundation for these abuses were laid.

The sums that had been appropriated for charitable uses before the reformation were immense, and the wealth that had been accumulated through a succession of ages by mendicant orders of religious persons were inconceivably great, nor was it in the power of any laws to confine men who were in the possession of such wealth from gratifying those desires which money can so easily find means of supplying. Yet among the various abuses to which

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this opulence had given rise, these religious orders had never so far lost sight of their original institution as ever to neglect the poor. These were indeed provided for by them with an indiscriminate profusion of largesse, better proportioned to their own opulence, than to the wants of the claimants, who were too often, without examination, all equally served, whether deserving or undeserving of that bounty they claimed. This indiscriminate profusion of charitable doles was indeed in itself an abuse that by encouraging another species of idleness produced disorders in the state, which though not so loudly complained of by the reformers as the luxurious lives of the religious orders themselves, was not perhaps less destructive to the energy of the state.

When the religious houses, as they were called, were entirely suppressed at the reformation, and the wealth that belonged to them was diverted into other channels, the poor, who had been in use to receive their support from thence, were of course left entirely destitute of that support on which they were used formerly with so much confidence to rely. This must have been immediately felt as a great grievance by them; and considering the disorderly lives of many of those who ranked in this class, it must have been the source of infinite clamour and disturbance in the state. Accordingly we find from that moment this evil was so severely felt in England as to have been a source of frequent complaint in parli-

ament, and soon became so intolerable as to excite a very universal desire to have it remedied. After many temporary palliatives had been tried without producing any material benefit, it at last became a matter of the most serious deliberation in parliament, which at length produced, in England, the famous statute of the 43d of Elizabeth which upon the principles they assumed, was constructed with a cautious forethought that can perhaps be equalled by few laws that ever were enacted; and if prospective reasoning alone were to be relied on in matters of legislation, it seemed impossible to amend it: Yet *experience* has now proved with a most demonstrative certainty, that it was in fact one of the most pernicious laws that was ever made.*

* Perhaps no subject has afforded a more ample field for declamation, or more justly, than the poor laws of England; but declamation is to be here avoided. The following facts speak a forcible language.

When the poor's rate was first imposed by Elizabeth, it did not almost any case amount to twopence in the pound of rent;—at present it is scarcely in any case under five shillings in the pound; in many cases it rises to eight, ten, twelve shillings; and the writer of this article was assured by a gentleman of the first character for veracity and integrity in this country, who had sat near thirty years in parliament, that two instances at least had occurred to him; in which the poor's rates exceeded twenty shillings in the pound; that is to say, if a tenant agreed to pay twenty shillings rent to his landlord, he must pay upwards of twenty shillings to the poor; so that in that case half the real rent of the land went to the poor. Let landed gentlemen attend to this fact, and let them likewise advert that the claims of the poor in consequence of this vast supply are so far from being appeased, that they are daily becoming more and more importunate; and fresh disorders are every day originating in this source.

For a long period the rise in the poor's rate was moderate, till time had matured the system, and enabled all the parties who were to be sharers in the prey, to discover how they could best get at it; but now it is advancing with hasty strides indeed. In the year 1774, par-

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The persons who composed that law had had before their eyes such a recent proof of the abuse that had been made of the charitable beneficence of individuals! that they seem to have been chiefly solicitous to obviate similar abuses in future; and to guard against that partial kind of seduction, they rather chose to establish a despotic power which should be authorised to wrest from every individual in the nation what ever sums it might think proper to call for, trusting to a few feeble devices which they

liament instituted an inquiry into the amount of the poors rates in England and Wales; and again in 1783. On comparing these together, the rise during that short period was found to be upwards of eight hundred and fifty thousand pounds *per annum*; in England this being nearly in the proportion of one third of the rate at the first period. In Wales during the same period of time the rates were more than doubled. Nor was this a temporary start, but a part only of a gradual progression. Mr Wenderdon in his View of England, observes that, "in the year 1680 the poors rates produced no more than 665,290 l. in 1764, they stood at 1,200,000 l. and in 1773 they were estimated at 3,000,000 l." It is a known fact, says Mr Beaufoy, in the debate on Mr Gilberts poor bill, April 17th 1788, that within the last nine years, the poors rates have increased one third, and should they continue increasing in the same proportion for fifty or sixty three years, they would amount to the enormous sum of 11,230,000 l. a burden which the country could not possibly bear. It was therefore, he added, highly necessary that something should be attempted to prevent this alarming addition if not to annihilate the present glaring misconduct in the management of the poor." Such has been the language of thinking men in parliament for near a century backwards. And many have been the regulations attempted with a view to check this alarming evil; but so far are these from proving effectual, that things, it appears, go only from bad to worse. It is a disease that baffles the power of political remedies to correct, and will only end as it would seem in the total ruin of the community upon which its destructive operations are exerted.

contrived, for curbing that power, which was virtually armed with force sufficient to set all these aside when ever it pleased. They were not aware that when they entrusted the cloak bag, firmly closed and locked with a key, to the Highland man, who had a knife in his pocket he would soon discover that the cloak bag was only *made of leather*, and of consequence the contents of it within his power whenever he pleased. The result has in this case been precisely the same: the locks have been disregarded, but the bag has been ripped up and pillaged at pleasure. The sums taken from thence were at first small, but they are now enormous, and the demands are increasing in such a rapid manner as to give rise to the most serious apprehensions, though it seems to be impossible to provide any means of effectually removing the evil.*

* It is a common error in prospective legislation to grant, by words, a right of controul where the power of enforcing obedience is withheld. It was this kind of ineffective *veto* which was given to the late king of France and which proved his ruin. Checks of the same inefficacious nature have been devised as bars to an evil respecting the poor laws, which was foreseen as possible tho' scarcely thought probable at the beginning. Now the actual powers of the different parties have been tried, and their respective value appreciated. The administrators of the poors funds, like the executors of a will in the west Indies, care not where the right is vested so that they have the management of the funds. Make whom you please your heir, is the common language in the west Indies, provided you make me your executor. The fact is that when a small body of men, whose interest serves to unite them have the administration of public funds entrusted to them, and have an individual to contend with a law, who must in this country fight every inch he advances by means of his own funds, whatever right of controul be vested in that individual, he finds that it will cost him so much before he can make his right effectual

Such has been the fate of England with regard to poor laws.

In Scotland, the reformation having been carried forward with a still more violent precipitancy than

and that after all he is only fighting the battles of others who are often more interested in the contest than himself, that prudence forbids him to challenge what he knows he could correct only to his own prejudice: In these circumstances a legal right is in fact nearly the same thing as a nullity.

To give an example of the operation of this principle. The writer of this article had the misfortune to be a residenter in the parish of South Leith, when an attempt was made to establish an involuntary poors rate in that parish. A poors rate was actually imposed, according to forms that some inattentive reasoners believed to be *legal*, to the amount of 800*l. per annum*. The demand from him on this account, he himself, to avoid caviling, did pay for one year. But seeing evident and glaring abuses already commenced, and aware of the inevitable destruction that this poor country must undergo, should this ruinous system be incautiously admitted; conscious, at the same time, of the illegality of the whole proceedings he resolved to oppose it. On applying to different individuals to join him in this public cause, he scarcely found one who did not express in strong terms their abhorrence of a poors-rate, and their great desire to have it abolished; but from among the whole number, of perhaps ten thousand householders, he got precisely *two guineas* to assist him in bearing the expence of the prosecution. Aware, however, of the immense importance of this cause to the country, though thus left to stand alone, he stood an action before the court of session, and finally did prevail; and of course the poors-rate was there abolished. He has thus had the satisfaction of being able to say that in *one* instance, at least, he has had it in his power to serve his country; for the broad ground he stood upon was, "that there is no law in force in Scotland by which an involuntary poors-rate can be established in any parish." And he hopes it will not be deemed an unbecoming exultation in him, thus to state this fact for the information of his countrymen; many of whom, who wishing to oppose the poor-rates, by first admitting the principle in law, as established, and resting their defences on doubtful pleas, have been cast, which by another mode of conduct might have been avoided.

In England, and the funds of the regular clergy being more entirely alienated, the case of the poor there became still more seemingly desperate, and the clamours were also there considerable at that time. Then also it was that the Scottish court, imitating as usual at that time, the practice of England, made several feeble attempts to introduce a system of compulsory poors-rates into this country, but never digested that system so thoroughly as to form a law that could, *in any case*, be carried into effect. Many crude laws on this head were indeed enacted; but all of these so evidently inadequate for the purpose, that they never were, even in one instance, that I have heard of, attempted, at the time, to be carried into effect. Of these laws I shall afterwards have occasion to speak more fully; it is here only necessary to say that they were all [so absurd, as to have been evidently neglected from the moment they were framed, though they have been suffered to remain upon the statute book as a disgrace to the times when they were formed, and as a stumbling block to those that were to follow.

It will not, however, be useless labour here to advert to the circumstances that occasioned such a discrepancy between the state of England and of Scotland on this very momentous subject, as it will give us an opportunity of tracing to their sources the systems that have been adopted in both countries, with regard to the maintenance of the poor, and to develop some other historical facts that produce a considerable effect at present on the manners and customs of both nations.

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The reformation in England was entirely a secular work. The king took that task solely upon his own shoulders; and he conducted it in the precise manner that seemed good unto himself. The regular clergy, many of whom concurred in the opinion, that the monasteries might be safely suppressed, and some other alterations be adopted without danger, gave no opposition to him; provided their own situation was not to be materially altered. This was not the case in Scotland: it was a kind of religious phrenzy that there produced the reformation; and the whole clerical order, regular and secular, were swept away with one indiscriminate crash. A new order of clergy sprung up in their place, who owed their popularity entirely to the sanctity of their lives, real or supposed. Religious zeal, and a purer morality of conduct, were the principal recommendations for them; and as the lives of the apostles were the great models they wished to imitate, they were of course earnest in recommending to their hearers the practice of Christian charity, especially almsgiving, as one of the most acceptable deeds in the eyes of the most high God. And as it was of much importance that they should guard against any appearance of an interested conduct on their own part, they were cautious to put the *evil thing* away from them; and instead of receiving private donations themselves, under the name of almoners, they instituted a tribunal of *elders*, men chosen from among the people on account of the distinguished regularity of their behaviour, and strictly moral conduct, who should have the sole administration of all monies given in alms, un-

der the controul only of the minister, and at length of the proprietors of the parish. As it thus happened, that almsgiving continued to be considered as a meritorious thing in Scotland, while it fell into total disrepute in England, there did not exist the same imperious call for a compulsory poor law in the first as in the last. And though the clamours from disorderly persons in Scotland, who were strictly excluded from sharing in the poors funds, continued for some time to be so great as to induce precipitant ministers of state to make some rash laws on that head, yet, as the nation at large were at all times perfectly satisfied, that the *real* poor were abundantly cared for by their own voluntary contributions, under the prudent and economical management of the elders and kirk-session, none of these laws ever received either their countenance or support: and being conceived to be dictated by *anticristian* (the word then used instead of *aristocratic* at present) principles, they were despised, and suffered to fall into universal neglect.

Having thus, I hope, in a satisfactory manner, accounted for the origin of one system of poor-laws, that has gradually produced a species of despotism that threatens to destroy in time the state in which it prevails, and develope the circumstances that gave rise to another system of management of the poor, necessarily connected with the form of church-government adopted in this country, which has been productive of salutary consequences, that have not hitherto been much adverted to, I shall here close the present lucubration. To explain, in a satisfactory

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manner, the mode of providing for the poor that has been adopted in Scotland, and its singularly salutary tendency, will furnish a subject for another paper. After which shall be given a concise history of the laws that have been made, and remain on the statute book: by which their inefficacy and absurdity will be fully demonstrated; and it will be made evident, that not one of those laws which authorise an involuntary poors rate, are actually in force in this country, at the present moment.

READING MEMORANDUMS.

How long is the soul kept and nourished in ignorance of itself, and of its original, like a child of noble extraction, by some misfortune obliged to be concealed (and educated as their own) by poor peasants; who, believing himself to be of no higher birth, entertains no other than mean and low thoughts; and designs suitable to such condition! But so soon as his true parents are made known to him, he quickly banishes from his mind all that is base and ignoble; and animated by the knowledge of his true condition and towering expectations, he shapes his thoughts and his conduct to the greatness of his origin, and the splendor of his destination.

As a contrast to the beautiful description of Edinburgh given in the Bee, vol. xiii. No. 7. see the Appendix to the Scots Magazine for the year 1745, page 61, &c. and the description then given.

J. C. A.

 POETRY.

EPISTLE TO MR AIRMAN THE PAINTER

BY WILLIAM SOMERVILLE, ESQ.

[Not published in any collection of his works.]

Such (AIRMAN) once I was; but ah, how chang'd!
 Since those blest days, when o'er the hills I rang'd;
 When thro' the mazes of th'entangled wood,
 The busy puzzling spaniel I pursu'd;
 The game he sprung soon felt the fatal lead;
 Flutter'd in air, and at my feet fell dead.
 This faithful record by thy pencil drawn,
 Shews what I was in manhood's early dawn:
 Just the design, and elegant the draught,
 The col'ring bold, and all without a fault.
 But (AIRMAN) be advis'd, and hear a friend:
 On rural squires no more thy time mispend;
 On nobler subjects all thy cares employ,
 Paint the bright Hebe, or the Phrygian boy;
 Or, rising from the waves, the Cyprian dame
 May vindicate her own Appelles' fame.
 But if thy nicer pencil shall disdain
 Shadows, and creatures of the poet's brain;
 The real wonders of the Brunswick race,
 May, with superior charms, thy canvass grace.
 The lovely form that would too soon decay,
 Admir'd, and lost, the pageant of the day;
 Preserv'd by thee, through ages yet to come,
 Shall reign triumphant in immortal bloom.
 Time, the great master's friend, shall but refine,
 With his improving hand, thy works divine.
 This, (if the muse can judge) shall be thy lot,
 When I'm no more, forgetting, and forgot.
 Now from my reith I decline apace,
 And pungent pains my trembling nerves unbrace;
 Nor love can charm, nor wine, nor music please;
 Lost to all joy, I am content with ease.
 All the poor comfort that I now can spare,
 Is the soft blessing of an elbow chair.
 Here undisturb'd I reign, and with a smile
 Behold the civil broils that shake our isle;
 Bard against bard, fierce tilting on the plain,
 And floods of ink profusely splitt in vain.
 Pope, like Almanzor, a whole host defies,
 Th' exploded chain-shot from his Dunciad flies,
 And pi'd on heaps the mangled carnage lies.]

FORM O
TROM

* De

Poets and critics a promiscuous crowd
 Bellow like wounded Mars, and roar aloud;
 The routed host precipitant retires,
 With weaker shouts, and with unequal fires.
 The quibbling advertisement and pert joke,
 But blaze a while, and vanish into smoke;
 And weak remarks drop short upon the ground;
 Or, if they reach the foe, but slightly wound.
 Thus have I seen, amid the shouting throng,
Bruin, with step majestic, stride along;
 The curs at distance bark, or silyly bite;
 But if he stands erect and dares the fight,
 Cowering they snail, yet dread the gripe severe,
 And all their dropping tails confess their fear.
 Pardon me, Aikman, that my rambling lays
 Desert my theme, and thy unfinish'd praise:
 'Twas nature call'd, unknowing I obeyed;
 Painting's my text, but poetry's my trade;
 Both sister arts; and sure my devious muse,
 Kind-hearted Dennis *, will for once excuse.
 A short digression, to condemn were hard;
 Or Heav'n have mercy on each modern bard.

FORM ON THE DEATH OF MR AIKMAN, THE PAINTER BY MR
 THOMSON,

O! could I draw, my friend, thy genuine mind,
 Just, as the living forms by thee design'd:
 Of Raphael's figures none should fairer shine,
 Nor Titian's colours longer last than mine.
 A mind in wisdom old, in lenience young,
 From fervent truth where every virtue sprung;
 Where all was real, modest, plain, sincere;
 Worth above show, and goodoes's unsevere.
 View'd round and round, as lucid diamonds show,
 Still as you turn them, a revolving glow:
 So did his mind reflect with secret ray,
 In various virtues, Heav'n's eternal day.
 Whether in high discourse it soar'd sublime,
 And sprung impatient o'er the bounds of time;
 Or wand'ring nature o'er with raptur'd eye,
 Ador'd the hand that turn'd yon azure sky:
 Whether to social life he bent his thought,
 And the right poise that mingling passions sought

* Dennis the critic.

Gay converse blest, or in the thoughtful grove,
 Bid the heart open every source of love:
 In varying lights still set before our eyes,
 The just, the good, the social, or the wise.
 For such a death who can, who would, refuse
 The Friend a tear, a verse the mournful Muse?
 Yet pay we must acknowledgment to Heav'n,
 Though snatch'd so soon, that Aikman e'er was giv'n.
 Grateful from Nature's banquet let us rise,
 Nor meanly leave it with reluctant eyes:
 A friend, when dead, is but remov'd from sight,
 Sunk in the lustre of eternal light;
 And when the parting storms of life are o'er,
 May yet rejoin us on a happier shore.

"As those we love decay, we die in part;
 "String after string is sever'd from the heart,
 "Till loosen'd life at last—but breathing clay,
 "Without one pang is glad to fall away.
 "Unhappy, he who latest feels the blow;
 "Whose eyes have wept o'er every friend laid low!
 "Dragg'd ling'ring on from partial death to death,
 "And, dying, all he can resign is breath."

FARTHER EXTRACTS FROM DR ANDERSON'S CORRESPONDENCE
 RESPECTING IMPROVEMENTS IN INDIA.

Continued from Vol. 14 p. 40.

*The Right Honb. Sir George Younge bart. to Dr Anderson
 Madras.*

SIR,

I HAVE been favoured with your's of the 6th July brought by the Leopard, Captain Blanket, accompanied by the printed correspondence on the subject of Botany. It can be but little additional praise to you to pay my tribute of acknowledgement which is due to the indefatigable and useful exertions you have made, and the service you have thereby rendered to your country, on the subject of Botany, which I conceive to be a science by no means confined to the ideas of amusement or idleness, but to

* The last eight lines are all that are given in the editions.

be of essential benefit to the public. Other nations have thought so before we began our career, and have long since reaped the fruit of it; we have but just begun, yet our activity bids fair, being begun, to come up with the foremost,—it wants but perseverance under such difficulties as ever accompany beginnings, to render our common endeavours as useful as we could wish.

I observe by the correspondence you have favoured me with, and the samples you have sent me, for both of which I am much obliged to you, that you have transferred for the present, your attention from the culture of cochineal to the cultivation of silk.—Both are of infinite importance; and I hope that whatever obstacles may for the present deter you from the pursuit of the culture of cochineal, which is of infinite national importance, the cost of it being from 16 to 20 shillings per pound, yet that nothing will wholly alienate you from the pursuit of it. I have laboured with zeal at it, and great hopes I had. The cactus cochinifer grows in plenty at St. Vincents, but I am much damped in my hopes by an alarming report of Mr Anderson, the superintendant, on whose exertions and knowledge every thing depended, being dead, and anxiously wait for further accounts. The culture of silk is also valuable, and as you seem by the printed correspondence to labour under some difficulties how to increase the growth of the mulberry, which is the food of the silk worm, in proportion to the rapid increase of the insect, which the climate seems favourable to, I flatter myself you will excuse the liberty I take of suggesting such hints as occur to me, and seem likely to be of service. I shall begin with observing what seems to have occurred to you already, that the mulberry is certainly a moist watery plant; it requires moisture even in England, to make it thrive; and it is constantly planted for that reason near

ponds or running waters. It must require this an hundred times more in India; and this is the first thing to be attended to. Give me leave now to suggest one or two other things.

It is a fact proved by experience that there is a difference in silk worms, and much depends on the breed, something on their being kept clean and healthy, and still more on their food: the leaves of old mulberry trees will feed them, but will not produce good silk. It is the young shoots of young trees, the fresh leaves before they are dried up, and rendered hard and dry by the sun, which is the best food for silk worms: to increase these should be a great object. I have been assured from good authority (for I never was an eye witness of it) that in the south of France, the practice with a view to this object, used to be as follows; and it seems to be a practice that rationally promises a good effect. Take the ripe berries of the mulberry when it is full of juice and of seeds. Next take a rough horschair line or rope, such as we dry linen on in England, and with a good handful of ripe mulberries run your hand along the line, bruising the berries and mashing them as much as possible as your hand runs along, so that the pulp and seeds of the berries may adhere in great abundance to the rope or hair line*.—Next dig a trench in the ground where you wish to plant them, much like what is practised in kitchen gardens in England for crops of various kinds.—Next cut the rope or hair line into lengths according to the length of the trench you think fit to make, and plunge the line full of mashed berries into the trench, and then cover it over well with earth, always remembering afterwards to water it well, which is essential to the success. The seeds of the berries thus sown will grow, and soon shoot

* This ought to have been a straw rope.

1793.

improvements in India.

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out young suckers, which will bear young leaves, which are the best food for the silk worm.

The facility and rapidity with which young leaves may by this means be produced, is evident; for as many rows of trenches may thus be filled as can be wished—and it can never be necessary to have mulberry trees higher than our raspberries, currants, or gooseberry bushes, in our gardens in England. Whenever they get beyond that, they lose their value, and if these trenches succeed you may have a supply coming fresh up day after day, or any quantity you please; especially in the genial warmth of an Indian climate.

If any thing I have here suggested proves of the least service to any object of your pursuits, it will give me great pleasure. I have only to lament that the pursuit of those great objects is now, only in its infancy, which ought to be brought to maturity, and to have attained its object long ago. I am Sir, your, &c.

War office Dec. 8. 1791.

GEORGE YONGE.

*Dr Anderson to the Right honourable Sir George Yonge.
Bart. K. B. &c. &c.*

SIR

On the arrival of the ship Nottingham, I received your favour of December 8th, and am happy to find that I have anticipated your wishes in the care of Nopal plants for the culture of such cochineal insects as the gentlemen on your side of the water may think proper to send here from America. You will see by the inclosed journal of correspondence till the 17 of april last, that although I have thought proper to issue plants of them to every station on the coast, with a view chiefly to contri-

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but subsistence to the poor in times of scarcity, yet I have no doubt that the company will continue to keep up the Nopalry at this place, in order to receive the first cochineal insects that may be sent.

I observe with pleasure the attention you have shewn to the multiplication of mulberry plants, and will immediately communicate the distinct method you propose of rearing them from seed, to the gentlemen in charge of mulberry plantations, which will likewise gratify them very much.

It must be understood however that the mulberry is not drenched with water without injury; as cuttings will live only in mould that is moistened with little watering, nor with full watering frequently repeated, the bark rots, especially if the soil is clay; but cuttings planted here at the distance of six feet from one another, and raised with care, cover the ground in six months so completely that no other plant or weed can live amongst them.

Some fields of this description in my garden, that in the last monsoon were by the low situation of the ground flooded for six weeks, lost all their leaves, but on the approach of spring every branch of them was entirely covered with fruit.—This disposition to fruit might be imputed to the affection of the plant for water, was it not likewise known that stripping a fruit tree of its leaves is the practice of this country to dispose it to bear fruit, and pruning is the practice of Europe.—The country people take the top of the branch in one hand, and run the other hand from that point down towards the stock, so as entirely to strip off the leaves.—After the mulberry is six months old, and has struck its roots deep into the earth, it will live and become a tree twenty feet in height in the course of as many months, without any further wate-

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ring from art; but if you expect a constant and full crop of tender leaves, it must be lopped every year, and watered at least every twenty days in the dry season.

I have the pleasure to inclose a small skain of the silk my garden produces, and at the same time to assure you that nothing will alienate me from the pursuit of so important an object as the cochineal, while I am favoured with the correspondence and approbation of those whose distinguished character and abilities merit every attention. I am, with much consideration, Sir, your, &c.

Madras, May 27th, 1792.

JAMES ANDERSON.

P. S. This climate is so favourable to the mulberry, that cuttings throw out flowers with the first leaf buds, and produce ripe fruit within three months after they are planted.

AN IMPORTANT DISCOVERY.

Vinegar concentrated and chrysalised, communicated by Arcticus.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I hinted to you in my last* another discovery lately made here by the ingenious chymist Mr Lovitz, who presented us last year with the astonishing phenomenon of mercury frozen in masses of ten or twelve pounds, in a warm room, by means of a mixture of snow, and his chrysalised caustic vegetable alkali.

The new discovery is a salt of vinegar; the first time the vinous acid has been seen in that form *per se*, although the citric, and acetosellic, have been both chrysalised before.

* This is not yet arrived.

Edit.

His process is as follows:

He first deprives the vinegar of much of its water by freezing, an operation very easy in our climate during winter, and then distils this concentrated vinegar with pounded charcoal, *in a water bath*, till no more fluid will come over, which gives one of the strongest vegetable acids as yet known, which I suspect must be fully equal to what is sold in Britain at a high price, and of which the preparation is kept secret as I have been told.

Mr Lovitz lastly places his retort, containing what now appears to be only dry charcoal, in a sand heat, and forces over a most powerful and subtle spirit of vinegar, the subject of this note, which chrysalizes at nine degrees above the freezing point of Reaumur's thermometer, and melts or thaws at 12° ; so that you may always have it in a crystalized state at 9 degrees of heat, and liquid at 12° .

The form of its crystals are different from those of any other acid, and tolerably represented by the following figures given by Lovitz*.



This acid of wine is stronger even than *spiritus nitrifians*; that is to say it takes more alkali to saturate it, as I am assured by the ingenious author, who has sent me a small phial of it, but have not had time to make experiments with it at present.

* See his Latin dissertation in the *Nova Acta Acad. Scient. Petropol.* tom. vii. for 1793.

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It raises blisters on the skin like cantharides, and I should think might possibly be employed by physicians in place of them in certain cases, marked by an uncommon predisposition to stranguary and bloody urine from the application of the stimulating insect; whilst it would offer a species of vesicatory to practice, as decidedly *anti-septic*, as the flies are septic, and improper in a certain state of the fluids; such at least is the idea that has come across your Arctic correspondent on the first blush of the subject, but which you must only take as a flying hint suggested in the moment of writing you, like all others of a theoretic nature he may occasionally sport in the Bee; but what he remarks upon much more seriously, is the very concentrated state that Mr Lovitz's discovery presents the acid of wine for the navigator, traveller, &c. as a tea spoonful will make a bottle of excellent vinegar, and a small quantity, a barrel for a ships crew. To what uses in the arts, so powerful a vegetable acid may be employed, I shall not take upon me to anticipate, although it may probably be found valuable there.

The only part of our Russian process which can seldom be executed in Britain, will be the first concentration of the vinegar by freezing, at least in large quantities, for here a barrel is turned to ice in the space of one night; that is to say, the water of the fluid, of whatever kind it may be, forms a thick icy crust around the spiritous part, which is found concentrated in the centre of the icy mass, and may be drawn off pure, if the whole is not allowed to thaw again.

By this mode of Arctic distillation, which saves the expense of fire and labour, the Russians draw off a most de-

licious and most intoxicating liquor from English Burton ale, with which they cheat their guests into ebriety, who have not the least suspicion of its superior strength, but drink a tumbler or two, of what they think excellent Burton ale, and are caught, to the infinite amusement of those in the secret. A manufactory then established in Britain to prepare our salt of vinegar, must do the whole by fire, and I should suppose that coal fuel will not make it come to a very high price; but the mixture of pounded charcoal will be necessary through the whole process I presume.

I send you a little of a little merely for its curiosity, but you should transfer the salt to a longer and thinner crystal phial, (with a glass stopper,) if you wish to see the curious crystallization*.

You will likewise receive by the same opportunity, some roots of the *ASCLÆPIAS Syriaca* in a little barrel† which I hope will succeed in Scotland, and furnish a vegetable silk, subject to fewer casualties than the animal kind spun by so delicate and precarious an insect. I have not a moment, good Sir, to write over a clean copy of this. *Brouillon* you must then even be so kind as to do it yourself, and extract the ostensible part distinctly for your printer, in place of your correspondent.

August 5th 1793.

ARCTICUS.

* This small phial with acid in it is received; and will be reserved for the satisfaction of the readers of the Bee, for the quantity is too small to admit of any very important experiments.

† This was received, and along with it a plant of the *Gossypium Persica* or Persian cotton; but both in so sickly a state that it is doubtful if they will live.

Acknowledgements to correspondents deferred for want of room.

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VOL. 3

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 13. 1793.

ORATION

TO THE MEMORY OF PETER THE GREAT, DELIVERED
BEFORE THE ACADEMY OF SCIENCES AT ST PETERS-
BURGH, ON THE 16 OF APRIL 1755, THE ANNIVERSA-
RY OF THE CORONATION OF THE EMPRESS ELIZA-
BETH, BY MICHAEL LOMONOSSOFF.

Translated from the Russian language.

Continued from p. 19.

FOR the foundation and perfection of so great a land
and naval force; for the building of new towns, forts,
and harbours; for the junction of rivers by canals
for the fortification of the frontiers by lines; for the
carrying on of a long war in partial and distant ex-
peditions; for constructing public and private edifi-
ces according to the new architecture; for the en-
gaging learned men, and acquiring other means of
disseminating the arts; for the pay of the new ar-
VOL. XVIII. F †

arrangements in the court and civil service, how much money was required every one will easily conceive, and conclude, that for these purposes, the revenue of his predecessors was inadequate. On this account, the wise monarch used every endeavour to increase the internal and external revenue, without being burdensome to his subjects. By his innate apprehension he was convinced that not only great profit would accrue to the revenue, but that also great security would arise to the subject by a proper arrangement. Before this period there had been no numeration of the Russian people; the places of their residences were unknown; licentiousness had no check, and every one was at liberty to change his habitation, and wander whither he deemed agreeable; the streets were filled with impudent and vagabond beggary; the high ways and rivers were frequently blockaded by villainous thieves, and troops of murdering robbers, who desolated not villages only, but even towns. Our wise hero turned evil to advantage, converted laziness into industry; and devastators into defenders, when, having taken the number of his subjects, he fixed to each his own habitation, and imposed on each a small, but certain tax. By this regulation the internal revenue was increased, and its amount made known; and in levies, the proportion of recruits to the number of inhabitants was determined; industry and strict military discipline were enforced. He forced many who had formerly been pernicious plunderers, to hold themselves in readiness to die for their native country.

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How much other wise regulations promoted this end I shall pass over in silence, and take notice only of the increase of external revenue. The council of the Most High, aided the solicitude, and good intentions of Peter, and opened by his hands new harbours in the Varyashkoe sea*, near towns subdued by his bravery, or raised by his toils. Great rivers were united by canals, for free communication to the merchants of Rufsia; tariffs were composed, and commercial treaties were concluded with various nations. Thus, by increasing plenty at home and abroad, how much he advanced the revenue, even in the beginning of these regulations, is amply manifested by considering that Rufsia, carrying on a heavy war for the space of twenty years, was free of debt.

What are all the great actions of Peter already delineated by my weak pencil? O! how much toil yet remains to my tongue, voice, and consideration! Hearers! I refer to you and to your knowledge, to describe how much attention the foundation and regulation of justice, of the supreme senate, of the most sacred synod, of the public colleges, chanceries, and other courts, with their laws, regulations and statutes; regulation of ranks; institution of marks intimating distinctions for services and favour; and lastly politics, embassies, and treaties with foreign states, demanded. Do you represent all these in your own minds enlightened by Peter: 'Tis mine to give a short detail of the whole. If it had happened to any one to leave his Rufsian native country before the beginning of Peter's under-

* Baltic.

takings, and visit distant lands, where his name had not yet reached, if there exists such a country, seeing on his return, in the people, new arts, new garbs, and new manners; new architecture, and domestic ornaments; new forts, a new fleet and army; not only a new form given to all these things, but a change in rivers, and in the bounds of the ocean; what would then have been his reflections? He could have concluded no less than that he had been travelling for many ages, or that all was finished by the united strength of the whole human race; by the creating hand of the Most High, or that all was the enchantment of a transitory dream.

From this discourse, shewing the shadow only of the actions of Peter, we may conceive something of their magnitude. But what shall I say, of the terrible and dangerous obstructions that opposed him in his giant like course? These more exalt his fame. The condition of humanity is subjected to such changes, that unfavourable arise from favourable, and favourable from unfavourable events. What could be more unfavourable to our happiness, incursions from without, dissensions from within; danger threatened on all sides, and led to consequences destructive to Peter, about to renovate Russia, and to the country itself. War interrupted domestic affairs, and domestic affairs interrupted a war which even at its commencement was found burdensome. Our great sovereign left his native country with a great embassy to visit the European kingdoms, and get acquainted with their situations, that on returning, he might employ them to

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the advantage of his subjects: He had scarcely passed the frontiers of his own dominions, when he every where found great and secretly concerted opposition. But as these are known to the whole world, I do not mention them. It appears to me, that even inanimate things perceived danger approaching to the hope of Russia. The streams of Dwina felt it, and amidst thick ice, opened a way of safety to their future master from lurking treasons; and overflowing their banks, informed the Baltic shores of the dangers they had warded off. Having escaped danger, he hastened on his joyous journey, delighting his eyes and heart, and improving his intelligence. But, oh! unwilling he interrupts his glorious career. How he struggled with himself! On the one hand, curiosity and thirst of knowledge necessary to the advantage of his native country, drags him on; on the other, the same distressed native country, with arms outstretched to him her only hope, exclaims, "return, make haste to return; traitors tear me within! You travel for my happiness; I acknowledge it with gratitude; but first tame the ferocious. You deserted your house and your relations for the increase of my fame; I respect with sincerity: but—regulate dangerous disorder. You left a crown and sceptre bestowed on you by God, and hid the rays of your majesty under a private character for my improvement; 'tis what I long for with joyous hope: but remove the gloomy threatenings of dissention from the domestic horizon." His heart torn with such agitations, he returned to quell a terrible storm. Such difficulties obstructed

our hero in his glorious course! With how many enemies was he every where surrounded! From without, Sweden, Poland, Crim, Persia, many eastern nations, the Ottoman Porte. From within, Strelits, Rascolnicks*, Cossacks, robbers. In his own house,—by his own relations: by his own blood,—malignity, hatred and treachery were pointed at his own life. To relate all would be difficult, and to hear painful. Let us return to joy and happy times.

The Most High aided Peter to overcome all obstacles and to elevate Russia. He granted religion, wisdom, magnanimity, manliness, truth, condescension, industry. His sincerity and faith towards God is well known to all. His chief delight was in the house of the Lord. He was not only a hearer of divine service, he himself assisted in the performance. He roused the attention and reverence of the hearer by his own monarchical voice; and leaving his usual place, on a footing with the common singers, he stood before the Lord. We have many instances of his religion; but one now will suffice. Going out to meet the body of the holy and brave Knæse Alexander †,

* Dissenters from the Greek church.

† When Peter had founded Petersburg, he founded also a monastery to the memory of this saint. He is said to have been sovereign of the country. After his death his body was deposited in the interior parts of Russia, and was brought to Petersburg with great ceremony, which is here alluded to, and deposited in the new monastery. He is called by the Russians, Alexander Neisky, i. e. Alexander of the Neva. There is an order of knighthood constituted in honour of him.

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he, by this action, full of solemn respect, drew out the whole city; he attracted the streams of Neva. Strange spectacle! knights ply the oars;—the monarch himself sitting at the helm, steers the vessel, and before the face of the people, stretches out his anointed hands to perform the labour of common men. By faith supporting him, he often repelled the impetuosity of blood-thirsty rebels. The Lord covered his head with his power from above, in the day of battle at Poltowa, and warded off the impending weapon! scattered before him like the walls of Jericho, those of Narva, not in the time of battering with fire belching engines, but in the time of divine service.

Sanctified and protected by religion, God blessed him with wisdom. What seriousness in council, what unaffected brevity in discourse, exactness in description, distinctness in pronounciation, thirst after knowledge, patient attention to prudent and useful conversation; in his eyes and in his countenance, the constancy of understanding. Russia assumed a new appearance through these qualifications of Peter; the arts and sciences were established, treaties and embassies instituted, the cunning intrigues of some courts against our native country defeated, to some sovereigns, their kingdoms and despotism secured, and to others, crowns, torn from them by their enemies, restored.

This wisdom effused to him from above, was aided by heroic courage. By that he amazed the world, by this he terrified his enemies. In infancy,

in martial exercises he shewed his want of fear. When all the spectators of a new object, the throwing of bombs, discovered their anxiety for their own safety, the young prince struggled to obtain a near inspection ; and was scarce to be with-held by the tears of his mother, the prayer of his brother, or the intreaties of the nobility. When travelling in foreign kingdoms, what dangers did he not despise for the renovation of Russia. Sailing on the unstable whirlpools of the ocean, was to him an amusement : How often were the billows, curling their proud tops, witnesses of his undaunted boldness ; cut by the swift flying fleet, raging against the ships and joining with mad flame, and metal roaring through the air, they united to form a common danger ; but him they frightened not. Who without terror can represent to themselves Peter on the plains of Poltawa, darting through this arrayed troops, amid a hail of inimical bullets whizzing around his head, and, his voice elevated above the general clangor, encouraging his soldiers to a bold attack. And you sultry Persia ! neither your rapid streams, nor faithless bogs, nor the precipices of your lofty hills, nor empoisoned fountains, nor burning sands, nor the unexpected attacks of your inconstant nations, could prevent the progress of our hero ; could prevent his triumphant entrance into your cities, filled with perfidy, and concealed arms.

To be continued.

ON THE DELAYS INCIDENT TO THE COURT
OF SESSION

Continued from vol. xvii p. 283.

To the Lord President of the Court of Session.

LETTER VII.

MY LORD,

AFTER the scheme of division is lodged, the creditors are always allowed to see it, and give in their objections in the same manner as in the case of the state and order of ranking; but objections are very rarely made against the *scheme*, which is carefully framed upon the principles of previous judgements.

Still, however, the creditors must have time to examine it; and much time and many inrollments are usually wasted before it is finally approved of.

The expedient of printing is therefore necessary in the one case as well as the other; but it would be too expensive to print the whole of the scheme. The *last account* in the division, which apportions the fund, shews in one view, how far the allotment appears to be just. It will therefore be sufficient to print this *last account*; as the creditors or rather their doers, can resort to the scheme itself in the clerk's hands, and in half an hour's time can examine and take notes from it, in order to review the

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50 *on delays in the court of Session.* Nov. 13;
principles, and check the calculations at their leisure, and so satisfy themselves in every respect.

It is almost impossible to touch upon every circumstance that occasions delay in a process of this nature. But if the leading particulars are provided for, in the first place, improvements will naturally follow as to the rest. Making oath upon the verity of the debt is *one*; for it is often delayed *for years*, as being a thing that can be done almost at any time while the process continues in court. The delay of *renewed commissions* is not the only evil arising from this; for the intermediate death of a creditor is no uncommon occurrence; and in that case an oath of *credulity* by his representative comes in place of the check upon the original creditor himself, of a direct and pointed oath of verity, which would oblige him to specify the real state of the case, and to mention every counter claim and deduction.

For this reason I submit to your lordship that a regulation ought to be made, prohibiting the clerks from receiving the grounds of debt of any creditor, without his producing an oath of verity along with them; and further, making it competent for the creditors, to depone without any previous commission issued by the court, as is done at present in the case of sequestrations under the late bankrupt law.

Some new regulations I find, are in contemplation for saving time and expence to the creditors in other respects; one of which is to have *edictal citations* given, and *letters of publication* executed, *only* at the market cross of Edinburgh, and pier and

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shore of Leith, and not also at the parish churches;
as is done at present.

Another is, to provide, that in a *ranking* and *sale* at the instance of a creditor, the decree of sale shall have the effect of a general adjudication in favour of all the personal creditors; which is already the case in a *sale* and *ranking* at the instance of an apparent heir.

The former alteration is generally approved of, as it only diminishes the business of country messengers; but the other, which must affect the interest both of the practitioners, and of the officers of court, is not relished.

Both regulations have my hearty concurrence; though neither are of the same description with those that I have here submitted to your lordship. My aim and object would be, if possible, to lay the common agent under a *necessity* to give his edictal citations, and to apply for and obtain warrant for letters of publication, and publish his sale, all *against a day certain*, without leaving room for delay in any one stage of the cause.

So far as this is practicable, it is better accomplished by the restraint of forms and regulations, than by any overruling power in the court: because such a power may be well administered at one time, and much neglected at another. All courts are also liable to err and be misled, as to the conduct of parties, besides that every thing under their power remains subject to doubt and dispute.

We accommodate ourselves at once to the necessity of an established general rule; whereas in the other

52 *influence of climate on wool.* Nov. 13.
case, it would be natural for us to study the ten-
pers of a numerous bench of judges, and endeavour
to interest their passions and prejudices in our own
favour, perhaps at a great expence of time and mo-
ney; and after all, the result could not be so satis-
factory even to a party, as a uniform compliance
with a well digested regulation. I remain &c.

LENTULUS.

THOUGHTS ON THE EFFECT OF CLIMATE IN ALTERING
THE QUALITY OF WOOL, SUGGESTED BY READING
DR PALLAS'S ACCOUNT OF RUSSIAN SHEEP. BY
THE EDITOR.

DR PALLAS, whose attention to the economical his-
tory of the sheep deserves the highest commendation,
while the justness of his observations in general,
considering the imperfect information he could re-
ceive from the people with whom he conversed on
this subject, discovers an astonishing degree of philo-
sophic acumen, has been induced, from facts that
occurred to himself in his own peregrinations, to be-
lieve that a variation of climate has a powerful ef-
fect in altering the quality of the wool of sheep; and
that extremes of heat and cold alike tend to render
the fleece coarse and hairy. The subject is too im-
portant in its consequences to be passed over slight-
ly; and the following hints are thrown out with a
view to lead to a more particular investigation of
it, before any final conclusions are adopted.

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We can conceive that climate may produce an alteration of the quality of wool in three ways, which ought to be discriminated before we can form precise notions on this subject.

First, It may operate directly on the filament itself while growing, so as to render the particular parts of that filament coarser or finer in proportion to the degree of heat that prevailed at the time every separate part of the filament was produced; or,

Second, The heat or cold may be conceived capable of producing such a total change in the animal economy as to dispose those sheep which have ever been subjected for a sufficient length of time to its influence, to produce a greater or smaller quantity of wool, and also to alter its quality in respect to fineness, &c. not only at the present time, but even during the whole future period of its life, or

Third, This over-ruling influence of climate may be supposed to be so powerful as not only to produce a permanent change on the temperament of the animal itself, which shall affect the quality of its fleece as long as the animal which has once been subjected to that heat, shall live; but also to affect the *progeny*, so as to dispose them ever afterwards to produce wool of the factitious kind, if you please to admit that phrase, which was created by the influence of climate on the parent animal. On each of these heads I shall beg leave to offer a few remarks after having made a few preliminary observations.

Parallel between wool, hair, &c. and vegetables.

Wool and hair resemble vegetable productions in some respects very nearly, though in other respects they differ from them considerably. Like vegetables from the earth, these animal substances spring out from the skin, to which they firmly adhere, and from which they seemingly draw the nourishment that sustains them; like vegetables too they advance in length by gradual increment, which though not perceptible at the time, can be easily measured by comparing their length at different periods. The variety of kinds of vegetable productions is very great, and they differ in their habitues and peculiarities amazingly, some being perennial, some annual, some of large stature, others small, &c; and though among the annual productions referable to this class, the diversity is comparatively smaller, yet it is still very considerable. Some kinds are annual, as wool and the body hairs of most animals, others are perennial, as the tails and manes of horses, the hair of the human head, &c. Some kinds continue to advance during the whole period of the animal's life, with nearly an equal degree of increment in equal times, as the human beard; while others soon attain their full stature, and remain ever afterwards entirely stationary, as the hair of the human eyebrow, but still more particularly so, the eye lashes. In these, and other respects, the similarity between these animal and vegetable productions is very obvious.

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Their dissimilarities, though not so obvious at first sight, are also very considerable. Among vegetables it is a general rule that the augmentation in size is by an additional increment, not only in length, but in their other dimensions also: among these animal productions, it is a rule equally general, that the whole of the increase in size consists in their gradual elongation only. Human head hair grows every day longer and longer; but its thickness continues nearly the same. Among vegetables too their gradual elongation very generally takes place nearly at the points of the shoots, while the parts below remain stationary in that respect; but the case is quite reversed with regard to wool and hair: for in them the growth takes place entirely at the bottom of the stem, while the points never, that I have been able to observe, make the smallest advances.

This progress of the growth of wool is beautifully illustrated by an experiment that has been made many millions of times in Scotland, though without any intention of illustrating this fact; viz. the *laying* of sheep with tar, commonly called *smearing*. About the month of November, annually, most of the farmers in the south of Scotland, cover the whole surface of the body of their sheep, with a composition of tar and butter in certain proportions. This is done by separating the wool on the surface in long shades, and pressing the composition upon the skin and along the roots of the wool by means of the finger. The tar thus laid on adheres to the wool at that place, and makes a black mark, which remains quite perceptible as long as the wool remains upon

the sheep: but this mark gradually rises from the skin as the wool grows, so that at shearing time it is found to be nearly in the middle; the under part of the wool, which had grown during the winter and spring being of a pure white, below this black ring. The progress of the growth of the hairs of the human beard is equally observable in the operation of shaving, where it is evident that the stumps only advance by a gradual protrusion, as it would seem, of the hairs through the skin, very unlike to that which takes place when the stem of a vegetable is cut over, which remains for ever stationary, and new shoots only push out from around it.

But the most remarkable dissimilarity that takes place between vegetables and these animal productions, is in regard to their propagation. Vegetables are reared from seeds; and may be transplanted from one soil to another, whereas these animal productions are appropriated by nature, each not only to the particular animal to which they belong, but also to the particular part of the animal from which they spring: and if in some cases it be in the power of man to eradicate these, this is always a work of great violence and difficulty; but it is very doubtful if in any case he can be able to rear them where they would not naturally grow; and in no case can he transplant those of one class into the place of another.

Another pretty obvious dissimilarity between vegetables and these animal productions is, that though cold tends in general to retard the growth of

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vegetables, and to stint their size in all their dimensions, it seems in these respects to have no perceptible influence on animal hairs. The human beard advances nearly with the same rapidity in winter and in summer; and is equally soft or rigid in cold or in warm climates: and from the experiment above related, it appears that wool advances equally fast during the winter as the summer months. Indeed it has been by many supposed that cold weather rather promoted than retarded the growth of wool, and animal hairs: but this opinion we shall have occasion afterwards to examine.

Among the annual *animal* productions themselves, there are many striking dissimilarities; many of which, the limits I prescribe to myself in this essay, prevent me from pointing out; but it is necessary I should remark some of them. The most useful to man of all these animal filamentous productions is the wool of sheep; and as our object here is chiefly to ascertain the most striking peculiarities of wool, some circumstances that tend to discriminate it from other animal filaments that nearly resemble it, may not be unacceptable to the reader.

The wool of sheep, like the body hair of horses, cattle, and most other animals, begins and completes its growth in one year; and like them also, after having completed its growth it loosens of itself from the skin and falls off, being succeeded by another fresh crop which comes in its stead. But it differs from them in respect of the uniformity of its growth, and the regularity of its shedding. Every filament of wool seems to keep exact pace with another in

the same part of the body of the animal; the whole crop springs up at once; the whole advances uniformly together; the whole loosens from the skin nearly at the same period, and thus falls off if not previously shorn, leaving the animal covered with a short coat of young wool, which in its turn undergoes the same regular mutations. Among other animals the case is different. Their hairs discover not the same uniformity of growth; they loosen from the skin unequally, and drop off one by one, so as to leave the old and new hairs at one season blended together for a long time, and never discover that sudden and total nakedness so observable in the sheep at the beginning of summer. This seems to constitute one distinguishing characteristic of wool*.

In another respect is the wool of sheep essentially different from the hairs I have had occasion to examine. Hairs for the most part are either uniform in their thickness throughout their whole length; or if there is any difference, they are smaller at their point

* Whether these filaments die out entirely from the root when they loosen from the skin, like annual plants when they have perfected their growth, or whether, like herbaceous plants, the shoots only are annual, while the roots remain, and send out fresh shoots to succeed them; or whether, like young animal teeth, the young shoot spring up in the same socket with the old, and force them out upon their points: or in what other manner this change is effected must be left to future physiologists to discover. From the peculiarities of wool to be afterwards mentioned there is some reason to suspect that the new filament always succeeds another in the same place. It would seem probable also that other body hairs of animals spring out by the side of the old, before they loosen. But this is mere conjecture.

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than at their roots*. Wool, on the contrary is always variable in the thickness of the filament throughout its whole length. And in general it is considerably thicker towards the points than the roots, though this I shall have occasion to show is not universally the case. This constitutes another, and a still more characteristic distinction between wool and hair than the former.

I have had occasion to remark above that the hairs of the human beard seem to be protruded through the skin, nearly in the same manner, as if the point of a wire were pushed through a hole in a plate, being thus formed of a uniform thickness throughout. The filament of a silk worm is moulded nearly in the same manner. The viscid juice which constitutes the silk, is generated in the body of the creature, and being pushed through fine holes in the animal, formed for that purpose, is first fixed to an external object, and being afterwards drawn through these holes while yet in a soft and yielding state, is no sooner excluded, than it hardens so as to retain its shape and size, and thus constitutes a kind of animal flexible wire, which we call a thread, which seems to be of a uniform thickness throughout its whole length. Could we suppose that by the influence of any cause whatever, the hole which forms the mould of the silk could be occasionally dilated, the part of the filament that was drawn through the hole at that period would of course be thicker than the others;

* In some kinds of hairs this is very observable: as the whiskers of

and it would vary through its whole length in proportion as the influence of that dilating or contracting power was exerted or withheld.

It is not alleged that a filament of wool is thus moulded; but the above is given merely as an illustration of the manner in which an effect might be produced upon a filament nearly similar to that which is universally observed to take place in regard to wool.

These general observations being premised, we shall now proceed to inquire what is the influence of heat or cold on wool under the threefold distinctions already specified.

To be continued.

A CHARACTER.

Translation from the French, of a lady's answer to a reproach of insensibility, and unnatural coldness.

By Arcticus.

THis austere coldness and insensibility you reproach me with, and possibly think a constitutional fault, is neither the effect of prudery, nor the melancholy scruples of a silly saint. Believe me above such little motives of action; believe that my blood often circulates with rapidity; believe that I know there is but one spring in the year of life, and that love is combined with, and attached to humanity: nay I will even permit you to believe that Cupid in certain attire, has as many

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charms in my eyes, as in those of the rest of my sex: yet after all these confessions, which I make with pleasure and openness, as artifice and disguise are only the refuge of little minds, which I have no occasion for, I tell you that as much as I honour love, I despise lovers, and detest their perfidious flames, their deceitful arts, with their false vows, alas! often but too much credited, by our amiable and credulous sex, merely because they feel no trace of such perfidy in their own gentle bosoms.

But if you would see my frigid system vanish into air, let fortune throw in my way, such a man as my imagination sometimes creates, and whom I am afraid is only to be found there; however take my mental picture of him.

He must have a gentle though lively temper, to hide a strong and masculine mind.

His expressions of attachment must neither be dictated by artifice nor vanity, but proceed directly from a feeling heart.

He must be well informed without pretensions, serious without melancholy, free without licentiousness, and in short carry nothing to excess but love and prudence; nay, he may charm all my sex, and adore but me.

He must hide his passion in public; as I desire no other proofs of it there, but a passing glance to convey the feelings of his heart, which nobody must observe but me.

In private he may make up for public restraint, in breathing a chaste and delicate passion; and if

he merits it, he may probably hear of a reciprocal flame. pure as the love that fans it.

To render this union of heart more durable, he must be my guide, my friend, my councilor, and my lover, so that when near him, my mind may acquire elevation and grandeur.

Yes, I confess it, should fortune throw such a man in my way, who alas, I am afraid is but a creature of my own fancy, my coldness would vanish at his approach, like snow in sunshine; and I would accompany his footsteps at all times, and in all places; but whether in a palace or cottage, I would never deign to bestow a thought.

Till that idol of my heart and mind is realised, I desire not to please, and shall persevere in my coldness, which never yet cost me an effort.

The group of admirers whom my feeble charms attract, are not flattering to me, I despise their sentiments, with their little arts to please, and yawn at their incense.

Let them seek the weak and vain, to hear their sighs and sufferings;—the zephyr bends the reed but has no effect on the steady oak.

I cannot help mentioning a remark that occurred to me when translating this beautiful picture of a lover drawn above, that *physical* perfection seems to be below the attention of the fair painter, and is never once hinted at in the whole letter.

ARCTICUS.

OBSERVATIONS ON NATURAL HISTORY.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

As the following account contains some new facts respecting the natural history of some birds natives of Great Britain and its adjacent islands, it would be obliging if you would give it a place in your Miscellany.

R. J.

*PELECANUS Catbo. Lin.**Corvoraunt.*

This genus is remarkable for having a gullet capable of prodigious extension, as birds of this genus, (*pelecanus quocratalis*) have been shown in England whose gullet could contain a man's head, and Salerne in his ornithology, mentions one shown in France, whose gape was so wide as to admit the legs of a man with boots on, but none of the species of this country have gullets capable of such vast and extraordinary extension. The species I shall now give an account of is thus distinguished by Linnæus, "*Cauda rotundato; corpore nigro castile suberistato.*" It is an inhabitant of the vast cliffs that hang over the sea in various parts of the coast of Great Britain; they are also found in the Shetland islands*, particularly in Mainland, the largest of the islands; they are found there in vast numbers on two rocks in North Maben, and what is singular they inhabit them alternately, leaving one always unoccupied during the succeeding year, seemingly that the winter rains &c. might clear the place, where there

* Also inhabit the lofty cliffs of the Orkneys in vast numbers.

is generally much filth collected. They are very voracious, which the illustrious Pennant remarks is occasioned by their having a most sudden digestion promoted by the infinite number of small worms that fill their intestines. They are also observed frequently to steal from each other during the time of incubation, which gives rise to many severe battles, and the mother who returns from fishing, and finds her nest robbed either of straw or eggs, must either recover her property by force, or wait till her neighbour quit her nest, when she generally takes ample retribution. These birds are employed by the Chinese for fishing. An ingenious correspondent of mine in one of the Shetland islands, to whom I lie under great obligations for different communications with regard to the natural history of these little known islands, mentioned to me the following curious circumstance. "I have often observed, says he, these birds when they caught a fish by the middle, tail, or other inconvenient part for swallowing, with what agility they tossed back their head in order to turn the fish and swallow it head-ways. As they would toss the head over the center of gravity of the whole neck, I was led to expect some singular formation, and on dissection found a bone articulated to the third vertebrae of the neck, descending from the occipital bone." Upon dissection of the *pelecanus gragatus*, he found only a strong cartilaginous support to the back of the head. This peculiarity appears quite new to me, as I have never read any account of this by any author, but if this circumstance is mentioned, I should wish to know by what author.

To be continued.

POETRY.

For the Bee.

The following lines are extracted from a beautiful descriptive poem transmitted to the Editor by a friendly correspondent. It is with regret the Editor finds himself denied the satisfaction of inserting the whole, on account of its length. With a little revision it would make a proper publication by itself.

ON A LADY BATHING.

When the gay songster pours his matin strain,
And rosy morn o'erspreads the dewy plain;
See on the shore the ventrous fair one come,
And with quick step ascend the cover'd dome,
There safely shelter'd from licentious sight
She draws the silk from legs of glowing white;
Untied, unpin'd, unlac'd, obedient fall
The hat, the gown the stays, and spangl'd shawl;
Her auburn locks in rich luxuriance flow
O'er heaving breasts that emulate the snow:
And now the loosen'd floeking lawn betrays
Those dazzling charms, which Heaven alone surveys,
A while she stands in faultless Eve's attire,
Shrinks blushing from herself with virgin fear;
Then in soft flannel plunges in the main
And shines as summer's sun thro' summer's rain:
So the fair lily thro' the chrystal glows,
So thro' the morning dew the balmy rose.
The parting flood with joy its guest receives,
And round her Zephyr all his sweetness breathes,
Sportive with youth she wantons in the main,
Now sinks below now skims the wave again;
Then back returns with kindly strengthen'd pace,
Her ev'ry feature beaming richer grace:
Then quickly throws her wat'ry garbs aside
And drest in careless haste she leaves the tide.
So charming Venus Love's imperial queen,
First rising from the curling wave was seen.

AN EPISTLE FROM ASCANIUS TRIMONTANUS, TO HAFODIUS CAM-
BRESIS.

For the Bee.

While you delight in Ystwyth's roaring stream,
And leave thy golden vale*, Silurian theme:
Me gently gliding silver I weed detain
From Forth's majestic wide extended plains.
Your eye you turn from soft Gibbonian art,
And cut a frock for honest old Froilsart.
"You prize his tale tho' told in terms uncouth,
The charm of nature and the force of truth."
Me nor the coblers of a worn out state,
Nor scepter'd monarchs move my love or hate;
For bright Apollo with the golden hair,
Chaces the dreams and dims the horrid glare:
Come then my Hafod let us pierce the gloom
Of Gothic night, and visit Chimay † tomb:—
There with full hands of purple flowers adorn
His ancient stone—with civic oak his urn.
True faith and honour mark'd him for their own
And on his page quick nature's form was shown.

VERSES WRITTEN EXTEMPORE ON A YOUNG LADY.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

Your inserting the following lines in your excellent publication the
Bee, will singularly oblige &c. W. F.

Paisley.

Lodg'd in a form less fair,
Thy mind I wou'd admire:
Owning a mind less rare,
Thy form would love inspire.

But in thee Jefsia meet,
In union high-combin'd,
The human form complete,
A Cherub's brilliant mind.

* The rich and beautiful vale on the Dove in Herefordshire has
commonly and antiently been so called.

† Froilsart was a canon, and treasurer of the convent of Chimay,
and was buried there.

FARTHER EXTRACTS FROM DR. ANDERSON'S CORRESPONDENCE
RESPECTING IMPROVEMENTS IN INDIA.

Continued from p. 37.

Mr Alexander Macleod to J. Anderson. Esq. physician general, Fort St. George.

MY DEAR SIR,

I HAVE found near the hills at this place nine bread fruit trees, two of a very considerable size, the others about forty feet high. There is fruit on most of them growing, two at the extremity of almost every branch. The dimensions of the two largest trees, are as follow: Circumference of the stem at five feet from the ground, five feet six inches: from that height downwards the stem enlarges, gradually terminating in a base, which forms a triangle, whose sides are small segments of a circle bending inwards.

The height of the tree I could not get from actual measurement; but it is at least two feet higher than the topmost leaves of any of the surrounding cocoanut trees; and the latter are full grown, and as high as any about Madras. The circumference of the other large tree is, at four feet above the ground, six feet. It ends like the first in a triangular base of equal dimensions. The height of this tree equals the first.

The fruit I procured from the largest tree is nearly circular, and measures fifteen inches in circumference, but it is not ripe. At Perincullum, the place I shall go to tomorrow, there are six or eight trees, as I am informed, some of a still larger size than those above mentioned. I understand that in these districts there are about twenty or twenty-five, not more. The natives living near the hills

live on the fruit when rice becomes scarce: when green it is used in curries, when ripe eaten alone. The Tamul name of the tree *erapilla* or wet jack. By the present Tappal I do myself the pleasure of sending you a specimen of the young fruit and blossom. I send inclosed a small sprig and blossom of a plant I found in the hills here; it smells like sage, and the leaf is of the same colour. The natives use the juice of it as a medicine, giving it to children troubled with indigestion. I never saw this plant in any other part of India, but if I am sending a plant with which you are well acquainted, I trust you will readily excuse me for troubling you with an useless communication. I was astonished at finding on those hills, a great profusion of the plant called clary; the leaves are in thick clusters on stalks four and five feet long. I am, with respect and regard, dear Sir, your &c.

Valalaguntum in the Dindigul Valley, June 8th 1792.] ALEXANDER MACLEOD.

From Dr Anderson, to Colonel Kyd, on the climate of the Malabar coast.

DEAR SIR,

I am favoured with your letter of May 26th, acknowledging the receipt of the publications I sent you, from which you have extracted what regards the fall of rain, in such a way as to draw a conclusion that agrees with experience; for betwixt the latitude of 16 and 18 degrees on the coast, there was so little rain fell during the years 1764, 1765, and 1766, that the country was desolated with famine.

The same thing has now happened again in the same part of the country, insomuch, that I am credibly informed, one half of the inhabitants are no more, and the remainder so feeble and weak, that on the report of rice coming from the Malabar coast by order of the governor

general, 5,000 poor people left Rajamundry, and very few of them reached the sea side, although the distance is only 50 miles;—the pestilence occasioned by famine is better prevented than cured.

I will leave it to others to declare the causes of the uncertain fall of rain at the mouths of great rivers; for Egypt is remarkable for drought; and the Gadavery spreads out into a delta at Rajamundry in the same manner as the Nile, so that its different mouths occupy fifty miles of the sea coast.—The Kistna likewise falls into the sea in the same manner, about fifty miles south of the Gadavery, and their waters are united on the intermediate flat country in the months of July and August, when they overflow their banks.

It is curious that these two great rivers should proceed in opposite directions to join their waters in a country where perhaps from the causes you have mentioned of the participation of different monsoons, the fall of rain is most irregular and uncertain. One thing, however, is most certain, that the bulk of mankind reap little benefit from speculative observations, otherwise the waters of these rivers would long ere this time have been converted to the purposes of agriculture; as I have heard say, for I was never at the place, that near Timericotta the Kistna is precipitated from rocks seventy feet, which is a sufficient height to carry its waters over the Palnaud and Guntoor countries; and streams from the Gadavery might no doubt be carried over the Mustaphanagur, Ellore, and Rajamundry Circars; as even in the first week of June, when its waters are at the lowest, the channel in its bed is never less than a quarter of a mile in width, and three feet in depth of running water.

I forbear to say any thing on the new theory of water, and the union of its principles by the medium of fiery

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meteors, till that doctrine is more illustrated; but as it appears from the course of the rivers that the land near Poona, and that near Simoga, are the highest, these and Adam's Peak on the island of Ceylon, are three summits nearly in the same meridian that must oppose the course of the S. W. monsoon; the vapours that follow the sun in its northern declination must be chiefly condensed into water, and attracted by them; and the east side of the peninsula being charged with a reverberating heat, will rarify the vapours and enable them to pass on without falling in rain; and we know that the countries betwixt Masulipatam and Vizagapatam and the southern extremity of the peninsula are most subject to great drought, while the Carnatic by being interspersed with hills and extended to greater width, has never suffered so severely. Farewell and believe me your, &c.

Fort St George, Aug. 9. 1792.

JAMES ANDERSON.

HINTS ON DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

FROM AN OLD TRADESMAN TO YOUNG ONES.

LETTER III.

Continued from Vol. xvi, p. 300.

IT probably has not escaped your attention, that many men are ruined by a kind of thoughtless imprudence very much short of bad attention. But rain, come how it may, is a very unpleasant occurrence, and when it happens to one who is young in life and business, it is attended with consequences more fatal than bankruptcy itself. One chief cause of ruin in young traders is imprudence in the management of their money. A few remarks on this subject will be a proper addition to

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what I advanced before on setting a proper value of money.

Good fortune is very apt to intoxicate the young; and I have known instances where one year of an excellent run of business, as it is called, was absolutely the cause of ruin. Whatever success, was, perhaps, owing to your being a stranger, and to the inclination people have to go to a new shop, expecting they can purchase cheaper than at an old one; or perhaps your success has been attributed to your remarkable attention, industry, and address: if you lay aside that attention, you cannot expect the same consequences to follow. If you are noted for an industrious young man; if the people love to deal with you because you are polite, humble, and attentive, be assured they will leave you, if you trust your business to your servants, and commence gentleman before you have known what it is to be a tradesman. I know nothing so easy as to acquire habits of address, industry, and attention; and when you have acquired a regular and methodical way of doing things, you cannot conceive how much it will assist you, how smooth and easy your business will succeed, and how soon you will gain that kind of establishment in the public opinion which is the wish of every shopkeeper to attain, and which in fact he must obtain, or leave off trade.

How different is the practice of many young shopkeepers? After a year or two of success, in which their profits have been considerable, they think they are entitled to launch out into expences of living with those profits.

A shopkeeper who has cleared 200l. in one year, thinks he has a right to spend that sum in any way he pleases, and away he goes to furnish his house, give entertainments, or buys a horse or a whisky. More people

have galloped on horse-back or in their whisky into the gazette, than ever walked thither on foot. With the horse and the whisky come a great variety of expences, of which you have no idea. He that keeps a horse, keeps him for the purpose of riding, and riding will be provoked by every fine day, or slight invitation; you would scruple the expence of a post chaise to go a dozen miles into the country, but having a horse it is nothing as you are apt to think, and you fall into every trifling temptation to waste money and time. Your shop becomes soon the place where you are least to be seen. This negligence will be remarked by many more than you are aware of; and when distress comes, you will be dreadfully mortified to hear the neighbours say, "aye, I expected no less, for he was never to be seen unless mounting or dismounting from his horse," with many other reflections, which, let me tell you, prudent men will make.

But it is madness in him who makes 200l by his trade, to suppose that he is worth 200l. *per annum*. Setting aside the consideration of those many accidents which raise or lower particular articles in your business, and setting aside even the consideration, that days of sickness and unavoidable misfortune may come, you ought to consider, that the overplus of every year, after providing decently for your family expences, ought to go in new purchases, in extending your trade, and enlarging your custom and connections.

Many now opulent merchants of the city of London once had small shops like yours. Their progress was slow, but it was sure; and they were not ambitious of being fine gentlemen, till they had realized the characters and consequences of opulent merchants. They now keep their carriages, are magistrates, or senators; their expences

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now wholly independent of little casualties; and the habits of economy which they acquired in youth still remain with them, so far as to regulate their mode of life.

Be not then deceived with the success of your early undertakings; trade may fail, in both cases, it is good to have had an eye to the evil day.

OBITUARY OF THE LEARNED.

The Honourable Thomas Fitzmaurice Esq.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

ALTHOUGH none can disapprove more than I do of officious eulogy concerning the lives of private individuals, in which the public might not participate, and which might thereby excite remarks, or at least reflections unfavourable to the deceased, or disagreeable to surviving relations, yet, when a man has for a long time conducted himself with a splendid fortune and useful talents in a way to contribute to the welfare of his country, I look upon it as a debt due by posterity not to permit such a name to vanish in the obituary of a common newspaper, or in that of a literary society. On this account I have thought it proper in this department of your respectable literary journal, to mark my respect for the character and memory of the late worthy Thomas Fitzmaurice son of the earl of Shelburne and brother of the marquis of Landsdowne.

There is another reason, Sir, that induces me to distinguish the memory of Mr Fitzmaurice in Scotland, because he was educated in this country, applied himself diligently to useful learning in that truly academical university of Glasgow, and distinguishing himself from the

wealthy and noble students who prefer so often the gay amusements of a city to the vigorous pursuit of science, he did credit to our noblest Scottish manufacture, that of learned, virtuous, and useful citizens.

To these may be added, with respect to this country, that his son Lord Kirkwall, now in the sixteenth year of his age, is the heir of a Scottish earldom; and what is much more interesting, of the brave earl of Orkney.

Mr Fitzmaurice was born in the year 1741, and after an excellent grammatical institution in England, was placed at Glasgow to study under the tuition of the eminent Adam Smith, Dr Black, and John Millar, three men, who, in morals, politics, philosophy, and jurisprudence, were fit indeed to verify the formal or ceremonial adage of "*Tres faciunt collegium.*"

It was in the classes and company of those truly eminent and justly celebrated men that I had first the pleasure of becoming intimately acquainted with Mr Fitzmaurice; and I then conceived the opinion of him which by his conduct in life he afterwards verified, "That the scales in which he weighed moral excellence were much too exact to incline him heartily into the dirty beaten paths of political life," and that he would become what I conceive to be the most respectable of all characters, an active, independent, useful country gentleman, ready to assume magistracy when called upon as a duty, but never as a trade. During his service in parliament he stood aloof from that party spirit which disgraces our country and nation; and when he became rich, by his mother's settlement and by his marriage, he chose a private station, on the principles of Mr Addison's Cato, in which the more he is traced the more respectfully he will be remembered.

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I shall conclude this short entry with the copy of a letter I had from him when he came first into parliament, not only as a specimen of his early years, but as an example and a lecture to our modern nobility.

Bath, Jan. 10. 1763.

"Yours of the 12 of December from Glasgow I had the pleasure of receiving when at Oxford, since which my thoughts and time have been taken up with electioneering till last Wednesday se'ennight, when I was elected member of parliament for Calne in Wiltshire.

"Had not Dr Blackstone's lectures kept me pretty closely confined at Oxford during the greatest part of last summer, I should have taken care not to have allowed so long an interruption of our correspondence to have taken place.

"I admire equally your persevering to pursue law and rhetoric as studies, and natural philosophy and chemistry as amusements. Were these, or such like employments of time more attended to and cultivated, our young people of rank and fashion would render themselves less at a loss to consume those numberless heavy hours, days, nay, even weeks and months, that so frequently hang upon their hands: for though wine, women, and sleep, with frivblish dissipation, may for some time engage them agreeably, they soon come to find that these feverish contrivances will not hold out, even although the glorious hazards and rewards of gaming should be called in to assist with all their forces.

"For these and many other reasons I cannot but congratulate myself on the time I passed at Glasgow; tho' I much regret my not having paid more attention to the civil law, for which I am now punished in the course of my law lectures at Oxford, which interest me more than

I am able to express, and which will hereafter be a noble legacy to England*."

Mr Fitzmaurice was the great grandson of the famous Sir William Petty, author of some excellent tracts on political economy, most of whose descendants have been remarkable for talents and for attachment to the principles of the British constitution. I am, Sir, your well wisher.

B.

ANECDOTES OF PAINTING IN SCOTLAND.

For the Bee.

THERE seems to have been a taste for painting in Scotland so early as the reign of James V. Portraits of him are in a good stile. A full length of his natural son, when a child, was done; but it was destroyed in a house belonging to the family of Errol, in the year 1586. There still remains a good copy of it; probably the work of a French painter. Lord Seton, ancestor of the Winton family, when ambassador from Mary of Guise, became acquainted with Sir Anthony More, who accompanied him to Scotland, and did a family piece for him on timber †. Charles I. when at Seton-house in 1663, admired

* Mr Fitzmaurice when in Scotland discovered a predilection, even at that time, for the innocent and pleasing study of rural affairs, and the Editor of this paper had an opportunity of conferring a very acceptable favour upon him by introducing him as a member of a society of farmers at Ratho, and of reading a discourse written by him as a member, which is no doubt minuted in the M. S. collections made by that society.

† A very good copy of which, made by Mosman at Aberdeen, is now in the possession of Mrs Seton of Moume in Aberdeenshire. The original, it is believed is, or lately was, in the house of Pinkey.

it, and Lord Winton offered it to him; the king refused to rob him of it. The original pictures of Queen Mary* are thought to have been done in France. Portraits of James VI. are said to have been done before he left Scotland. George Jamiesone, a native of Aberdeen, studied under Rubens along with Vandyck; he returned to Scotland in 1628, and died 1644. When the king was at Edinburgh, 1633, the magistrates procured from Jamiesone many of his portraits, with which they adorned the sides of the Nether-bow port. This much attracted the king's notice on his way to the parliament house. Charles sat to Jamiesone for a full length picture; and, on account of a complaint in his eyes or head, the king made him wear his hat, a privilege he ever after used. Alexander his scholar did a portrait of Sir George Mackenzie at full length, in his gown, as king's advocate. The elder Scougal, who in his draperies imitated the stile of Sir Peter Lely, had a great repute in the time of Charles II. and portraits of his hand are almost in every family in Scotland. Corru-des, a foreigner, did also many portraits at this time, in a good stile. The duke of York engaged De Wit, a Flemish painter, to ornament the galleries of Holyroodhouse with 119 portraits, 19 whole lengths. The ancient heads are ideal, the modern copies. He also painted the chimnies and ceilings there. Though de Wit's talent was chiefly for history, he did many portraits in Scotland; particularly at Castle Lyon and Glamis, and at Clerkington in Mid Lothian. He was employed till 1688, when he was dismissed from the service of the public, without complete payment for his works. He died in Scotland. For some years after the Revolution, the younger Scougal was the only painter in Scotland; and

* And of the regent Mary, a very good one of whom is in the Trinity House, Leith, usually mistaken for one of the queen.

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had a very great run of business. This brought him into an hasty and incorrect manner. Nicolas Hude was unemployed at London for several years after his coming from France in 1685, till William duke of Queensberry brought him to Scotland, to work for him at Drumlanrig. Hude's genius inclined to historical painting; but for a livelihood he painted portraits. Hude was not an unsuccessful imitator of Rubens. In 1703 Jean Baptiste Medina, a native of Brussels, was brought from London by some Scots noblemen, and soon after he was knighted by the duke of Queensberry, being the last man knighted by the commissiuner. Medina at first applied to history, but afterwards to portraits, in which he equalled any of his predecessors. His manner is easy; and he succeeded better in men than in women's pictures. There are a vast many good portraits of his hand in Scotland; particularly at the surgeon's hall, Edinburgh. Paton, a miniature drawer in black and white, lived about this time, and did several portraits from life, and copies, with a good deal of likeness and expression. In 1712, on the death of Sir John Medina, William Aikman returned to Scotland, and for 13 years was in good employment. John duke of Argyll was his patron, and persuaded him to go to London, where he much improved himself by imitating Sir Godfrey Kneller. He died 1731. Aikman's picture is in a gallery of the duke of Tuscany. Richard Wair, a scholar of young Scougal, professed painting portraits from 1708 to 1722; but his genius led him to paint pieces in still life. Wair's cotemporary was George Marshall, scholar of Scougal and of Sir Godfrey Kneller. He died in 1732. John Alexander, a descendant of Jamieson's, spent his youth at Florence. He executed several historical pieces at Gordon castle. He published prints from drawings of Raphael's pictures in the Vatican. Alexander's favourite subject was copying Mary Queen of Scots;

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Towards the latter end of his life he began a historical painting of her escape from Lochleven, but he did not live to finish it. John Medina, son of Sir John, has made an excellent copy of Queen Mary's picture. Norie's genius for landscapes entitles him to a place in the list of Scotch painters.

Queries respecting the above.

1. What house of the Erroll family was destroyed, 1586.?
2. What evidence is there of the picture of James V.'s natural son being burnt there?
3. Where is the copy of that picture now?
4. Is there evidence that Sir Antonio More really came to Scotland; or, might he not have done the family picture alluded to when lord Seton was abroad?
5. Do any pictures remain of More's hand in other families which are properly vouched to have been painted during his residence in Scotland?
6. From what authority are all the portraits of Mary said to be done in France; or, did she never sit for her picture after her return?
7. In whose possession are all the portraits of James VI. done before he left Scotland?
8. Whose property is the full length of Charles I. by Jamieson?
9. Where is the historical picture of Mary's escape from Lochleven?

INDEX INDICATORIUS.

Linlithgoensis, encouraged, as he says, by the inserting of the inscription from *A. Rider*, requests that the following lines may obtain a place for preservation. The person to whom they refer, he says, was a man who made some money by the quill in that borough, and when he died, his relations thought it proper to cover his remains with a

gravestone containing a character that they thought suitable; but a neighbour thinking it might perhaps suit another as well as him wrote the following lines, which he imagined contained a more appropriated character. They are here inserted because of the sly epigrammatic point, which every reader will perceive. It seems the gentleman used to join to his signature the words *Scribo Lenithgoensis*.

Here lies the body of John Easton,
Who many a good fat hen did feast on;
He was *Scribo Lenithgoensis*,
And din'd at other folk's expences.

SENTIMENT.

The world's a pilgrimage of care,
Each man has his allotted share,
For some wise purpose given
To disregard the rubs of life,
The taunts of envy or of strife,
Is wisdom sure from Heaven.

Would mortals with impartial eye,
The works of nature's hand descry;
This truth they would obtain,
That providence with nicest skill,
Divides the lots of good and ill,
Of pleasure and of pain.

Beneath the ermin'd robes of state,
Cares numerous as attendants wait,
Peace for ambition pays.
The peasant who to labour goes,
Enjoys more undisturb'd repose,
Than he who empire sways.

C. G.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

The note by *speculator* is received. But though the Editor has every inclination to oblige his correspondents, he finds it impossible. The communications now by him, form such a mass as would require a very great length of time to look over them all, so that he can only promise to pick out a paper that is a great way back, when he makes an occasional revisal of the whole, which he can only do at considerable intervals. This answer may apply to several others, as they will respectively perceive.

The interesting verses by *M. B. S.* are received, and shall appear soon. Some slight inaccuracies appear. But no defect in the opinion of the Editor is so great as common thoughts dressed up in feeble inorganic language, though that should even be flowing and harmonious.

 THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 20. 1793.

 ON THE PRACTICABILITY OF REARING THE SILK WORM
 IN SCOTLAND. BY ARCTICUS.
*With a figure of the Tartarian mulberry.**For the Bee.*

MR EDITOR,

I must own I had my doubts, on reading your paper in the Bee, relative to rearing the silk worm in Scotland, if such a project was practicable; but on paying some attention to the subject, I begin to be of your opinion, for the following reasons.

In the province of Pekin in China, where silk is spun in great quantities, the winters are much more severe than you ever experience in Scotland, according to the observations of our Russian students, placed there to learn the language, who find Reaumur's thermometer, from 10 to 15, and even 20 de-

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degrees below the freezing point, during that season; whereas the extraordinary cold observed at Glasgow by Dr Irvin and Mr Wilson, in January 1780, and which made so much noise as a phenomenon occurring probably only once in an age, was only about 18 degrees of Reaumur, which is, as I suppose, two thirds more than the mean of your ordinary winter cold.

The white mulberry tree, which is the most favoured and natural food of the silk worm, is likewise a native of the same province and climate.

I think also that the three following facts militate in favour of the new Caledonian manufactory, which you so strongly recommend; and that a sort of presumptive evidence may be drawn from them, that the climate will not prove too severe for the apparently delicate insect.

The first is, that the eggs of the silk worm are not hurt by even a severe frost.

Now as we know that the great architect of the universe, has done nothing in vain, (a truth that natural history points out more and more every day, however unfashionable such an argument may be,) we have reason to believe, that he intended this useful insect for a great range of climate, like many other links of the vast chain of animated beings, wherever it would be of use to his admirable system.

2. The white mulberry tree, its favourite and natural food, is as little hurt by a severe frost, as the eggs of the insect; for it stands even the winters of Sweden.

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3. I have in my possession, a web made in my own garden in the imperial cadet corps of St Petersburg, (near a yard long, and half as broad,) by another species of *phalena*, who not only spin as fine silk as the *phalena bombyx*, the true silk worm, but weave it into a web in large societies, a circumstance which has procured the insect the name of the *phalena sociella*, or *colonella*; nay, it is only this superfluous trouble taken by the too industrious worm, which prevents its production being as serviceable as that of the other.

From the above three facts, I say a sort of presumptive evidence arises in favour of the success of your new manufactory.

I think likewise that some light may be thrown on the subject, by examining the nature of the food of the silk worm.

The proper food of this insect, is certainly the mulberry tree, or rather its leaves, although it will live, I will not say how long, on lettuce, cichory, dandelion, the leaves of the elm and fig tree; and lastly on nettles, which have so strong a botanic affinity with

The mulberry tree.

Linnaeus enumerates seven varieties of it, viz. the white, red, black, Tartarian, Indian, paperifera, and tinctoria; five of these the silk worm is known to feed on, although its taste for the last two is doubtful; and in my opinion the four first and most favoured of these trees, may be naturalized in Scotland with much safety; for the white and red are known to stand climates much more severe than

that of Scotland; and all four harder winters than any you feel at home; so that in the great range allowed to the growth of its food, we have another presumptive proof that the silk worm was intended to inhabit high, as well as low latitudes.

But to examine the four different species of mulberry a little more particular.

The *first* on the list is the white, which, as it has been said already to stand the climate of Sweden, there can be no doubt of its standing the much milder climate of Scotland.

The *2d*, or the red, a native of America, grows spontaneously about Quebec. There is little doubt of its finding the climate of Scotland more than genial.

The *3d*, or black, you may certainly likewise count your own, as it delights in bleak situations, exposed to wind on the sea shore; a taste which certainly Scotland can as amply indulge it in, as most countries.

And as to the *4th*, or Tartarian mulberry, which you so much desire to possess, and which I expect soon to be able to furnish you with, through my friend Pallas, again on his travels in Russia, there is as little doubt of its thriving in Scotland; as it is a hardy tree, which stands likewise severer winters than any it will meet with in Caledonia. Now let me tell you Sir, there are few silk rearing countries, which can boast of four species of the mulberry tree; so that if you can introduce all that I have endeavoured to shew practicable, you will possess more than most others.

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The Persians at Ghilan, for example, where so much silk is spun, can only offer two species to their worms, the white and red, whilst at Zaczyn, the silk rearing province of Rufsia, one species only, the Tartarian, is to be found.

As to the superior qualities of the different species, probably there is very little to be pointed out amongst the four just mentioned, with regard to nourishment, except what may be drawn from the following fact; that if the first three are laid down together, the silk worm will first eat the white, then the red, and next the black, in the order of the tenderness of the leaves.

The *Tartarian* seems to hold as high a place in its esteem, as either the red or black; but all must yield to the white, which seems to be its natural food.

Now, Mr Editor, if an advice could be given with propriety, by a man in my latitude, on such a subject, I should think that in your rather uncertain climate, two precautions will be necessary; the first to hatch the eggs in the Persian manner, by carrying them near the *warmest part* of the human body, wrapped up in a cotton rag; which will insure their hatching in fourteen days at farthest, with much more certainty than from the action of your capricious sun, and exactly at the time when their destined food is ready. To be sure this practice may occasion some dispute amongst the Edinburgh physiologists; but I suppose they will generally agree, that it is the *heart* in Scotland, and the *head*

in France, with which the eggs should be in contact.

The second precaution which I would recommend, is to wipe the leaves dry before giving them to the worms,—a precaution ever observed in more steady climates, where copious dews obtain; and I am much mistaken if the heavy dew so common with you, vulgarly called a Scotch mist, will not wet them as effectually as the aerial solution of the east.

But one advantage you will certainly have over all other countries where silk is reared, and an advantage probably arising from the *conducting power* of the very aqueous vapour just mentioned, which is, that you will lose but very few worms from the violent electric commotions, which so often destroy the hopes of the silk rearer on the continents of Europe and Asia; for a thunder storm destroys so many of these insects, especially if it happens immediately after the *somnus niger, albus, or desquamationis*, the three first sleeps of the insect, (the last, or *somnus excoriationis* being not so critical,) that a plantation which commonly gives twenty bales of silk, will hardly afford one. Is it possible to pass this peculiarity in the happy island without remarking, the small value people often put on real blessings; as the very marine vapours which so often cloud the atmosphere of Great Britain, and which may occasionally fall on a holiday dress, and excite the spleen of foreigners, and even some of its own inhabitants, keep the island in eternal temperature, summer and winter; protect it from the dangerous thunder storms, so much dreaded and felt

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on the continent ; give a constant verdure to your fields, and furnish a never failing supply of corn ; whilst the inhabitants of all clear skyed countries on earth, are subject to perish from famine. Then no more jokes on Scotch mists, and cease to lay to their charge, the *sterility* of the more highland regions of the country ; for rocks and stones produce nothing any where, at least to the knowledge of your correspondent

ARCTICUS.

P. S. After having endeavoured to show the practicability of rearing the silk worm in Scotland, I think it a duty incumbent on a British citizen, to remark on the impolicy of attempting to naturalize every manufactory of the continent ; as if you leave nothing to barter, trade must cease of course. What does Adam Smith, your classic author on trade, say upon that head, who must have considered all its combinations and effects ; for I own that on a first view of the subject, it appears that a perseverance in such a system, must convert your ships to fire wood, and your sailors to manufacturers without a market.

The large cones of coarse silk you mention to me as found by Sir William Jones in the East Indies, are probably spun by the *phalena atlas*, which is likewise an inhabitant of America ; so that the equally industrious and ingenious British manufacturers, may procure this new species of silk, from both the new and old continents, if they find it an object of attention, which in my own private opinion,

it promises fair to be, and a good succedaneum for the true silk, in all that branch of the business comprehended under the denomination silk shag; nay, I hope to see bed quilts or coverlids, linings for great coats, warm stockings, gloves, gilets, &c. made from it, which would answer well in the colder countries.

N. B. Since writing the above, an ingenious friend who has resided long in Constantinople, informs me, that the part of the janisaries who really are about the grand signior as guards, wear a turban of a species of coarse silk, which forms a large volume round the head, at the same time that it is extremely light, and of a shining handsome appearance, very distinguishable from the common sort, which would be both heavy and expensive in a turban of such a size; he thinks that they are probably made from that mentioned by Sir William Jones.

The figure of the Tartarian mulberry that accompanies this number, is copied from the *Flora Rossica*; the drawing was made when the fruit was green, and only very young.

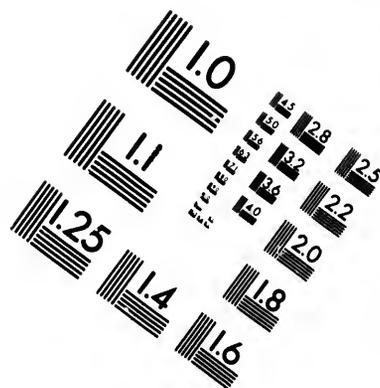
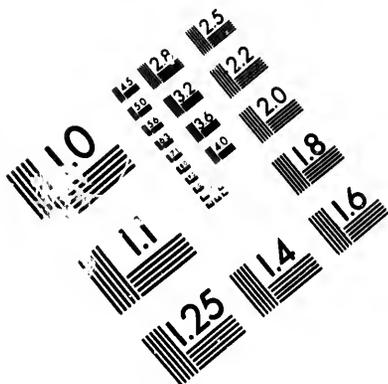
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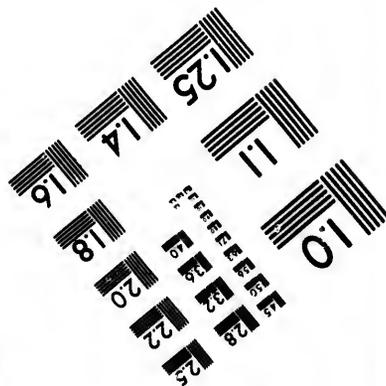
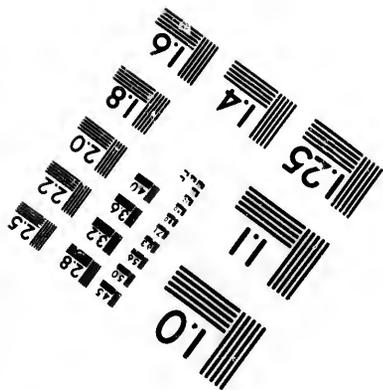
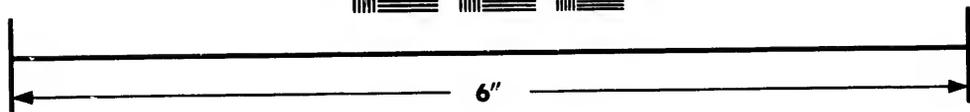
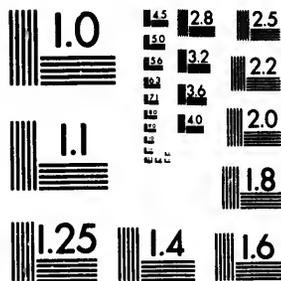
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ORATION

TO THE MEMORY OF PETER THE GREAT, BY MICHAEL
LOMONOSSOFF.

Continued from p. 48.

STUDYING brevity, I shall bring no more examples of his courage, hearers ! I make no mention of the many actions fought, and victories gained in his presence, and under his generalship ; but shall represent his magnanimity ; a virtue congenial to great souls, which ornaments victory, and touches the human heart more than courageous deeds. The bravery of the soldiers, the assistance of allies, and advantages of place and time have a great share in victory ; and above all, chance appropriates this to herself as an exclusive privilege. The magnanimity of the conqueror is all his own. Who subdues himself, gains the most glorious victory. Neither soldiers, nor allies, nor time, nor chance itself domineering over the affairs of men, have in this the smallest participation. 'Tis true, prudence is astonished at conquerors, but our hearts love the magnanimous. Such was our great protector. He cast off his anger with his armour, and he not only did not deprive an enemy of life, who was not armed against him ; but on the contrary, shewed them sincere respect. Tell, ye Swedish leaders captured

at Poltava, what were your emotions, when expecting chains, you were girded with the swords you had lifted against us; expecting a prison, you were seated at the table of the conqueror; expecting derision you were hailed masters: what a magnanimous conqueror had ye?

Congenial to magnanimity, and often conjoined with it, is justice. The first duty of rulers established by God on earth is to govern the world in justice and in truth, to reward merit, to punish transgression. Although war and other important occupations, particularly the shortness of his life, very much hindered our great sovereign from instituting unalterable and distinct laws; how great attention however he paid to this object is confirmed by many edicts, statutes, and reglements; the composition of which deprived him of innumerable days of repose. God had judged fit that a daughter equal to her great progenitor, should bring them to perfection in her undisturbed and blessed reign*.

But although justice was not perfectly established by plain and regular laws, it was written in his

* There perhaps never was a potentate who had the good of his people more sincerely at heart than Peter; and tho' he might at times have erred in the means, yet no one can doubt that the intention was upright: and who, that does not make himself completely master of all the circumstances, will venture to pronounce decisively that he did err, even in cases that seem to have been doubtful.

On his death bed, reflecting on the many evils that are ingendored by tedious law suits, he regretted that he had not yet been able to check this evil, and calling his confidential ministers, he dictated him-

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breast. Though all was not contained in books, it was perfected in deed. Mercy was manifested in judgement, even in cases where villainy obstructing his great plans demanded severity. From many examples one will prove it: having forgiven many distinguished personages for heinous transgressions, he expressed his heartfelt satisfaction, by admitting them to his table, and by the voice of cannon. The punishment of the Strelits does not stain him. Represent yourselves and consider, what his zeal for truth, what his pity for his subjects, what his own danger intimated to him. Innocent blood flows on the streets of Moscow, widows weep, orphans cry, ravished matrons and virgins shriek: "My relations are killed before my face in my own house, and the sharp weapon was pointed to my own breast. I am saved thro' God. I bore, I yielded, I wandered without the city. Even now they have prevented my necessary journey, and arm themselves against my native country. If I delay to revenge, and by punishment prevent utter ruin, I already see scaffolds covered with carcasses, desolated houses, and ruined temples; Moscow in flames, and my dear country involved in smoke and ashes. All this destruction, tears, and blood, God will lay to my charge." The observance of strict justice obliged him to severity.

self an edict dated from his sick bed, limiting the duration of all law suits to a very short period of time; and he lived long enough to learn that most of the law suits that had been depending in that empire, had been terminated in consequence of it. This was the last public act of Peter.

I cannot better shew forth his graciousness and the tenderness of his heart than by his amiable condescension to his subjects. Unequalled in ability, elevated by majesty, exalted by glorious deeds: all these were increased and beautified by ingenuous condescension. He often appeared simply among his subjects, without monarchial state, marking magnificence and slavish fear. It was allowed to meet him on foot, to follow him, to go with him, and to begin a conversation. Formerly many sovereigns were carried on the shoulders and heads of their slaves. Condescension elevated him above all sovereigns. In time of amusement and repose, affairs of consequence were presented to him. Importance did not diminish cheerfulness; and simplicity did not lower seriousness. How did he wait on, and receive his faithful servants; what cheerfulness presided at his table! He inquires, listens, consults as with friends: and if the repast was short in the small number of dishes, it was prolonged by gracious conversation. Amidst so many public cares, he lived as with acquaintances in amusement. In what small huts of tradesmen did he circumscribe his majesty, and even the lowest but skilful faithful slaves he encouraged by his visits. How often did he employ himself with them in their various trades and labours; for he enforced them more by his example than by his power: And if any thing at that time appeared harshness, we now find it beneficence. He reckoned a change of labour repose. The rising sun in various places lighted his various

toils. The public offices and courts of justice often decided causes in his presence. Different arts, not only by his inspection, but by the assistance of his hands, hastened to perfection. Public edifices, ships, harbours, and forts, ever saw him at their foundation, director ; in the labour encourager ; and in finishing rewarder.

What shall I say of his journeys, or rather rapid flights ? Scarce had the White Sea heard his commands, when they are felt by the Baltic ; Scarce had the track of his fleet vanished on the waters of Asoph, when the noisy waves of the Caspian yield before him. And you mighty floods ; south and north Dwina, Dneiper, Don, Wolga, Buch Wisla, Odra, Alba, Danube, Squana, Thames, Rhine and others ; say how often had you the satisfaction to represent Peter the Great in your waves ; tell, for I cannot number ! We now, with happy surprise, behold the roads on which he travelled, under what tree he snatched repose, from what spring he quenched his thirst, where with common labourers he toiled, a common workman, where he wrote laws, where he planned ships, harbours, forts, and where in the mean time he was the familiar acquaintance of his subjects. Like the heavenly bodies in their course ; like the sea in its flux and reflux, so was he in his cares and toils for our advantage, in unremitting motion.

Imagination transports me to fields amidst fire, to councils amidst difficult consultations, to new growing towns, harbours, and canals, amidst in-

numerable multitudes ; amidst the raging waves of the White, the Black, the Baltic, and the Caspian Seas ; in the ocean itself : every where I see Peter in sweat, in dust, in smoke, and in flame ; I cannot believe myself that in every place is the same Peter, but that there are many : that it is not a short age, but a thousand years. To whom shall I compare this great sovereign ? I see in antiquity and in modern times, rulers with the surname of Great ; but they are little before Peter. One conquered many kingdoms, but neglected his own. Another subdued an enemy entitled great ; but shed the blood of his fellow citizens for his own love of glory, and instead of triumph, heard the weeping and sobbing of his native country. Another decorated with many virtues, instead of raising, could not sustain the weight of declining empire. Another was a warrior on dry land, but feared the sea ; another domineered at sea, but was afraid to land ; another loved the arts, but dreaded a naked sword ; another feared neither iron, nor water, nor fire, but did not possess that privilege and inheritance of humanity, prudence. I shall use the example of Rome only, but even that is deficient. What in the course of two hundred and fifty years, from the first Punic war till the time of Augustus, was done by Nepotes, Scipios, Marcelluses, Reguluses, Metelluses, and Catos, all that Peter performed in the short period of his own life. To whom then shall I compare our hero ? I have often pondered, what like he is who with powerful policy governs Heaven, earth, and sea : " He looketh at the earth, and it trembleth, he toucheth the

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hills and they smoke." Bounds are affixed to human imagination. The Deity we cannot comprehend. He is usually represented in human form: if then, according to our conception, we seek a man resembling God, expect Peter the great, I find none.

For his eminent services he was named father of his country; but this title is insufficient. Say, by what name shall we call him, who begat a daughter our most gracious sovereign, who by her courage ascended her father's throne, subdued her proud enemies, gave peace to Europe, and poured blessings on her subjects.

Hear us O God! reward O Lord! the great toils of Peter; the care of Catherine, the tears and sighs, which two sisters, two daughters of Peter, at parting shed; the blessings conferred on Russia by all: reward with longevity and posterity.

And you great spirit shining in eternity, and by your effulgence darkening the lustre of heroes, rejoice! your daughter reigns; your grandson is heir; your great grandson, according to our wishes is born. By you we are exalted, by you strengthened, by you enlightened, beautified; by her saved, by her encouraged, protected, enriched, glorified. Accept this unworthy mark of gratitude. Thy merits exceed our abilities!

ALLADIN THE PERSIAN, AN EASTERN TALE
For the Bee.

Sir, I have observed several hints from you, requesting pieces of entertainment that have a useful tendency. If you think the inclosed little tale comes under that description it is at your service; and by inserting it you will much oblige, Sir, your constant reader and sincere wellwisher,

T. J.

CHAPTER I. *The gift.*

THERE were formerly in the city of Schiras, the capital of Persia, two principal families, who had often been rivals for the command of the armies or the first places in the council of the Sultan: The two heads of these illustrious families, had married the daughters of the Mufti; this venerable personage had been anxious to marry his daughters advantageously, and at the same time to put an end to the quarrels which had divided both court and city. His end had been answered; the monarch was better served, and as favours were now equally distributed to the two families, envy or hatred no longer existed. Schreidan one of his sons-in-law was governor of the capital. Manefses, the other, commanded the Sultan's body guard. This employment gave him constant access to the sovereign, and very great authority. Many years passed without the Mufti having the satisfaction of seeing his race perpetuated. He frequently shut himself up alone in the mosque, and after prostrating himself in the floor, invoked God and the prophet. "O great Mahomer, cried he one day, who sittest on the right hand of God, what have I been guilty of, that

I should be deprived of a comfort, which thou grantest to all the children of Adam? You have said, great God, that his posterity should be as numerous as the sands of the sea; and I alone remain upon the earth like to a tree whose roots are dried up. During forty years I have never failed one day in my five ablutions, and I am now at the end of my course." In saying these words tears overflowed his cheeks, and sobs interrupted his speech. At that instant the door of the mosque opened;—a ray of most splendid light struck his eyes; he saw in this ray a man on horseback, brilliant with brightness, who said to him, "Thy vows have been carried by the prophet to the footstool of the eternal throne; thou shalt live again in thy children, and thy race shall not finish, but with the Koran." The dome closed, the light disappeared, and the heart of the Mufti was filled with ineffable joy; he prostrated himself again, and rendered a thousand actions of thanks to God and his prophet.

On his return, his children were struck with the happiness and joy which appeared in his countenance. He gave a grand feast which lasted three days, which was attended by all the grandees of the empire, and even by the sultan himself. His daughters were not long before they informed him that the promise of the prophet was fulfilled. They were with child at the same time; and the most magnificent preparations were made for their lying in, which would take place at the same period. The two sisters conversed frequently on an event so long wished for. The protection of the prophet, assured to their chil-

dren, a brilliant and happy destiny. "I wish," said one of them, "that my son may be the handsomest of men." "And mine the bravest," said the other. "He will be like his grandfather," said one, "who lived to the age of ninety, and who at that age made his wife the mother of two children."

Each of the two families had a protecting fairy, who came at the birth of every child, to present it with gifts; but it sometimes happened, that a wicked fairy, came before the other, and then all that remained for her to do, was to balance her gifts by those of such tendency, as to soften their bad effects. When the wicked fairy had gifted a child with deformity, the other granted him an expression of benevolence and sweetness, which caused his ugliness to be overlooked: When she made one proud, the other gave felicity and an honest heart. The good fairy had need of a great deal of art to counteract the ill effects of her enemy, for which reason she had made morality the study of her life, that she might know the different qualities of the mind which combat each other.

Sometimes when she had no other means to oppose to the baneful effects of the gifts of the wicked fairy, she gave to the child, laziness, and a love of sensual pleasure. She blunted by this means all his faculties; and by means of this wise combination, a man who would have been a monster by the excess of his vices, vegetated on piles of cushions, amidst his women, and terminated speedily his course.

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The wife of Schreidan just felt those pains which prove mankind to be the children of Adam, and which announced the toils to which human life is subjected. The family immediately fell to prayers; invoked the prophet, and called out hastily on the good fairy. Alas! it was in vain; she was at that moment attending the lying in of the princess of China. A noise like thunder was heard; and the bad fairy dashed through the windows, mounted on a dragon, which vomited out fire and smoke. "I give your child, says she, in a menacing tone, with a *feeling heart*, a *superior genius*, and a *frank and open disposition*." Scarce had she pronounced these words, than she flew away to do more wickedness. The family were stupified: the sick lady, who having fainted had heard nothing, thanked Heaven for the great qualities granted to her son. "The fairy must have made up her quarrel with our family (said an old aunt); my nephew will be the greatest man of his age." "Ah, says the grand-mother, all that glistens is not gold: I do not like these great geniuses,—they act frequently like fools." At this instant the good fairy arrived, who had travelled 3000 leagues in four minutes. "I am come too late, I see; but you seem all mightily pleased." They told her all that had passed. "That is a very wicked woman: repeat it to me once more—a *feeling heart*, ah the wretch! a *superior genius*, what wickedness! There is only wanting frankness" "He has that also," said the lady in bed, "and are you not pleased with it?" "I am in despair, (said the good fairy); there never came so many

misfortunes heaped on one head. Alas! (continued she, with a heavy sigh) the moments are precious. Well, he shall *be indolent*; that is all I can do to arrest the evils that menace him, and to counteract the disagreeable qualities with which he has been gifted with so much malice." She set out again directly for the Indies, where she was impatiently expected.

The wife of Manefses was brought to bed next day; the protecting fairy came first, and the family were enchanted with her quick appearance, "Your child, says she to the sick lady, shall have *a moderate but active mind, a patient character, and a cold heart.*" Manefses and his wife looked at each other with astonishment; The fairy took notice of it, "I know very well what I have done," said she, and disappeared. "It is scarce worth while, said Manefses, to be under the protection of a fairy for upwards of 400 years to obtain no better gifts. Your sister has been much treated by a bad fairy. Her son will be a great man whilst ours will never make any figure." One never understands the conduct of fairies, replied the wife, like wits, by wishing themselves remarked, they do a thousand foolish things.'

CHAPTER II.

The education of the two cousins:

ALLADIN the son of Schreidan, and SALEM the son of Manefses, were sent very young to a college of Santons, where these humble servants of the prophet only received those of the highest ranks. Alladin

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Alladin a tale.

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studied but little, he lost his time in the amusements of his age; his quickness however made amends; he surpassed the greatest number of his comrades, astonished his masters, and seemed rather to guess the meaning of the different authors, than study them. His spirit was independent, and averse to complying with the rules; every thing might be obtained from him by good humour, and he was overpowered by kindness; but ill judged rigours and the caprices of authority irritated, and his spirit revolted against them. The Santons found out that he was lazy, uncontrollable, and a disputant.

Salem was seen with very different eyes, both by the Santons, and by his comrades; he had no exertion of soul, no eagerness of mind, and was never drawn away by the most agreeable amusements. Steady to his task, he learned in three days what cost Alladin only an hour. He did not penetrate like Alladin the full meaning of his author, but he could repeat the text. Salem was cited as a model of perfection by the Santons: every mark of distinction was shewn him; and whenever they could not avoid giving some recompences to Alladin, they were always accompanied with remonstrances.

The principal of the Santons, an old man who had studied the morals of mankind all his life, was of a different opinion. He loved Alladin and pitied him. "O my son, said he, as he was taking leave of him, if I have any advice to give you, it would be to hide half your understanding; but that is impossible. It will be necessary for your first entry in the

world; and how can the brilliancy of it be shadowed, without some rays appearing? You will soon be known, hated, and persecuted. The most fatal gift man can receive from God is a great genius. It overpowers others, and disgusts us with them. You have a feeling heart, which is another misfortune; it will make you sensible of a thousand wants which you will not be able to satisfy; and your sensibility will heighten your misfortunes. To know and to feel are the most noble employments of the human faculties; they are also the two greatest sources of misfortune, because there are in the world two curses called envy and ingratitude." As he finished these words, he embraced Alladin with tears, who felt his heart oppressed. It seemed as if a rapid ray of light had shewn him the future misfortunes of his life, the abyss which surrounded him. His soul was melted by the affection shewn him by this respectable old man; tears of pleasure inundated his cheeks, and soon his mind gave loose to hope. He flattered himself that he should be beloved by mankind, whom he would love to serve. He only saw in himself but frankness, benevolence, and generosity, how could he believe others to be unfeeling, ungrateful, and hypocrites? Melancholy experience alone makes those who are born good and generous, acquainted with mankind.

To be continued.

ANECDOTE.

A gentleman, with a few of his select friends, happening one afternoon to drink tea with a young lady, to whom he had been once much attached, but whom he afterwards ungenerously deserted, in the course of the repast, this amiable fair asked him to help himself to some particular sweetmeat which stood on the table; he politely refused, observing at the same time, that he never eat any of it, as he found it disagree with him. Upon which one of the company addressing himself to the lady, jocularly observed, that he imagined she had known his *taste* better; she readily replied, with the greatest good humour, that his *taste* was greatly changed since she first had the pleasure of his acquaintance.

READING MEMORANDUMS.

When we consider our natural depravity and weakness, it appears to be as much our duty to avoid temptation, as it is to resist and overcome it when we happen to be inadvertently insnared.

It is equally incumbent on us to avoid whatever may unfit or indispose us for our duty, as it is to adopt those means that will enable us to discharge it to the best advantage.

POETRY.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

If you think the following little piece deserves a place in your entertaining Miscellany, you are requested to insert it. M. B. S.

MONTAUBAN OVER THE BODY OF JULIA *.

NEAR that sad bed where ill-starr'd Julia lay,
Montauban stood; distraction in his eye:
His look express the storm of wild dismay,
And throbs conclusive swell'd each rising sigh.

O'er the dread scene of vengeance, and of woe,
A glimm'ring taper shed a feeble light,
Whose sickly flames only serv'd to show
The gloomy horrors of that mournful night.

All pale and cold the guiltless victim lay,
Crept like the tender lily of the vale,
Which meekly bending droops its gentle head,
When threat'ning storms, and howling winds assail.

No more her bosom heaves with smother'd sighs:
Conflicting passions rend her heart no more;
The starting tear no more shall fill her eyes,
For all her sorrows are for ever o'er.

" And is this, the wretched husband cries,
" This the sad end of days so pure as thine?
" Go death; and boast the mighty sacrifice
" That swells the list of victims at thy shrine,

" Shall pale corruption's never satiate worm
" Feed on the beauties of that angel face?
" No! ev'n in death shall charm thy peerless form,
" Nor has the spoiler robb'd thee of one grace.

" Still on that lip the smile of peace appears,
" Peace which Montauban never shall know more;
" No more her soothing voice shall glad my ears,
" For Julia, guiltless Julia's life is o'er."

He spoke and wildly from the chamber rush'd,
Stung with the horrors of remorse and pain;
To seek in death the remedy he wish'd,
And quench the fever of his burning brain.

* Vide, *Julia de Rousseau* vol zd.

The direful draught was near ; a phial stood
 Fill'd with a liquid of narcotic pow'r,
 To freeze the gliding current of the blood,
 And drown in stupor life's concluding hour.

With trembling hand he pours the baleful juice ;
 To his parch'd quiv'ring lips the cup applies :
 " This ; injur'd Julia ! do I drink to thee,
 " And thus thy virtue is aveng'd, he cries.

And have I dar'd to think my Julia false ?
 " And have I seiz'd the thunder-bolt of fate ?
 " Off gloomy thoughts ! no longer tear my soul,
 " Nur crush my tortur'd conscience with your weight.

" Hold ! sure all nature rises at my crime,
 " Hark ! how the driving tempest howls around ;
 " See the pale lightnings cast a livid gleam,
 " And rattling bursts of thunder shake the ground.

" What nameless forms are these ? defend me Heav'n—
 " What frightful spectres sit amidst the gloom ?
 " Yet ah ! I dare not ask to be forgiven,
 " I dare not deprecate my awful doom.

" Why does this lingering draught delay its pow'r ?
 " Why creep thus slowly through my freezing veins ?
 " Ev'n death the wretch's friend delays the hour,
 " To put a final period to my pains.

" Ev'n now I feel a torture worse than death,
 " A torture which the guilty only know ;
 " Oh ! would that solemn hour which ends my breath,
 " Wind up the last dread close of all my woe.

" Ah ! what a languid flutt'ring at my heart,
 " What forms terrific press on every side ?
 " Help ! help oh death !—speed, speed thy ling'ring dart,
 " Have mercy gracious Heav'n !" he said and died.

M. B. S.

TRAVELLING MEMORANDUMS.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I do not leave to trouble you with a few hints which may escape the observation of the generality of travellers.

In the delightful passage by water, from Bruges to Ghent, I saw variety of such strata as are found to accompany coal; such as limestone, sandstone, thin grey bands, argillaceous strata, &c, which appeared within and above the surface of the water, in an horizontal position; and sometimes I saw like the baset, or outburst of seams of coal. I saw such a degree of blackness in the soil as much resembled strata of coal at the surface; but as I could not go out of the barge to examine circumstances, I can only say that it is highly probable there is coal in that part of Flanders. I write this to excite future attention to such an interesting subject.

These coal meals, as I would call them, are in the middle of an immense chalk country, which reaches from about 150 miles north of London, to the south-east of the principality of Leige. Now, if in the course of time, coal should be found in Flanders, it may also be discovered in the chalk counties of England.

I stopped a day at Leige and examined the coal works there. They have a steam engine; the pits are deep; one of the drawing pits is about 300 yards deep.

The seams of coal are not above three feet thick; but of good quality, and they are carried a great way into Brabant, &c.

The concomitant strata are mostly argillaceous and soft, with some thin bands of weak sandstone. Now,

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this coal field is in the middle of a chalk country, which appears immediately to the north-west and south-east of the coal metals; and I saw large patches of the chalk lying above the coal and other metals in the working field.

If these circumstances were generally known, they should excite the English to search for coal in their chalk counties. In posting through chalk districts of England, I often thought I saw some of the concomitants of coal appearing; but had no time to examine them. The chalk both at home and abroad is regularly stratified, and generally in an horizontal position.

The chalk was succeeded by strata of the mountain rock of various qualities, long before I reached Frankfort *sur le Mayne*, some of which were horizontal, some vertical, and others inclining with various degrees of slope, as in other countries. I saw strata of columnar basalts in a vertical position, the regular pillars of which lay perfectly horizontal; a natural consequence of the position of the strata, as the columns always form transverse sections to the bed of the strata.

I got the first view of the Alpine mountains from the plains of Augsberg, which appeared like low dark clouds in the extremity of the horizon, as I thought about forty miles off, which proved to be above eighty. As I advanced nearer this magnificent range of mountains, I perceived they were of great height; and abundance of snow appeared in patches, though the weather was exceedingly hot in October. My road led directly to the mountains, but I could not perceive an opening where I should enter among them. When I came very near, we went suddenly down into a low plain at the foot of the mountains:

It was a large morass, and the road led through it on a perfect level into a sort of glen, or deep gully, which pointed directly into the center of the mountains, which now appeared lofty and magnificent beyond conception. As I entered this deep glen, the scene was grand, majestic, and beautiful. The imagination was filled with pleasure and surprise. The road was level and good, and parallel to a limpid stream which ran slowly to meet me. Upon the right and left were lofty walls of craggy and romantic rocks of great height, which however were richly and beautifully wooded up to their very summits, and the wood upon their summits and ridges appeared beyond description beautiful. The valley or gulph pierced into the mountains, in a straight line, the far end of which was closed up by mountains of stupendous height. The evening sun was out of my sight behind them, which gave them the appearance, not of mountains, but of black romantic summer clouds, reaching up into the higher regions of the air, and ready to pour out their contents, to deluge the country below. The whole scene was wondrous: It was ravishing. These prodigious piles of rocks were of very white limestone, and made still whiter with snow. I could perceive no opening to pass by them to the right or left; and nothing but the strong wings of an eagle could go over them. I asked no questions, as I did not wish to anticipate, but to be surprised. At length night closed the scene before I reached the inn; however I saw by the twilight that we inclined to the left, which was easterly; our course, through the day, being full south.

In the morning we advanced towards the south-east. We left the high rocks to the right, which I had seen before me for above ninety miles. We ascended a little in the morning, but soon descended as much and more.

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The scenes were continually changing, and still for the better. Every new prospect was more romantic—more extraordinary and amusing than the last. The rocks appeared more jagged, more craggy, and romantic, at every turning of the road.

They could be compared to nothing more aptly than

To "cloud cap'd towers and gorgeous palaces,"
Rais'd by fam'd Merlin, or the Titans old,
Upon the lofty summits of the alps,
Now in stupendous ruins.

After advancing about 100 miles into the Alpine mountains of Tyrolé, I reached a fine valley, and the town of Inspruck, from whence I was carried by two gentlemen to see the salt works of Halle; some circumstances relating to which are interesting. Halle is situated in a fine valley upon the banks of a navigable river, which falls into the Danube at Vienna. The salt rock is about six miles from Halle, upon the north side of a high ridge of rocks, through which a level mine is cut of three or four miles in length. When the rock is dug at the salt mine, they dissolve it there in fresh water, and convey the brine in wooden pipes through the perforated hills to the pans at Halle, where a very great quantity of salt is made; which produces a great revenue to the Emperor.

I saw larches or larix cut down about thirty miles south of Bolzano, at an elevation of more than two miles of perpendicular height above the valley, and river Adige, some of which were near three feet diameter, and all red wood, the effect of age, except a ring of less than an inch on the outside. The timber remarkably fine, hard, and strong. The larch is now generally planted all over Britain. If it is left to grow to a sufficient age, the owners will not be disappointed in their expectations

from it. The pine is equally tall, straight, and beautiful as the larch; but the pine is white wood at every age.

Few things in nature ever surprised me so much as to see such beautiful, tall, and luxuriant timber of many sorts at such an amazing height as this. I account for this phenomenon from three concurring causes. First, a temperate equal climate; 2d. a calcareous soil, almost all the mountains of Tyrole being fine limestone; and 3d. the vast extent of these mountains, most of which are nearly of equal height, which forms a series of grand and rugged screens, sheltering between them a most romantic, rugged country, full of inhabitants, with numerous churches and villages.

They raise corn, maize, and many other esculent vegetables upon the sides of the mountains, up to their very summits, excepting some chance craggy pinnacles. The purple crocus, the pink, and several other flowers flourish now, the 21 October, up to the summit of these high mountains.

EXPLORATOR.

OUR GRAND-MOTHERS.

By THE LATE GOVERNOR LIVINGSTON.

- "Ubi prima quies in illo jam noctis abactæ
 "Curriculo expulerat somnum, cum foemina, primum
 "Cui tolerare colo vitam, tenuique Minerva
 "Impositam cinerem et sopitos suscitât ignes;
 "Noctem addens operi, famulasque ad lumina longo
 "Exercet penso; castum ut servare cubile
 "Cojugis, et possit parvos educere natos."

VIRG.

Our grand-mothers were not, it is true, so gaily drest as our wives, but of inexpressibly greater utility to their husbands. They saw with a glance of the eye whatever

concerned the welfare of the family. This they were studious to promote. In this they placed their renown. They were strangers to dissipation; nor were they seen constantly abroad. Their own habitation was their delight; and the rearing their offspring their greatest pleasure. Content with a kind of domestic royalty, they considered every part of this administration as of the last importance. Queens without a crown, they were "a crown to their husbands;" and not only saved their earnings by their economy; but augmented their treasure, by their industry. This was the source of their pleasure; and the foundation of their glory. They maintained good order and harmony in their empire—every female servant at work under their direction—every unnecessary waste prevented by their circumspection—such grand-mothers! what blessings to their families! they enjoyed happiness in their chimney corners, while their deluded grand-daughters seek for it in vain, amidst the tumult of the world. Their good housewifery supported families, that have since crumbled into nothing. In short, the wife appeared to acquit herself of a task equal to the labour of the husband, in being occupied with an infinity of cares respecting her interior department. Careful to inspire her female progeny with the like assiduity, she reared an offspring like herself. With such education (no French dancing masters then for country girls, that ought to be at their spinning wheels) their daughters were early inured to join such amiable mothers, in causing the sweet and peaceable charms of private life to reign in the family. By such virtues and accomplishments, they recommended themselves to the other sex; and, with their frugality and industry, were a better fortune without a groat, than a woman destitute of both, with thousands. Hence a man, inclined to marry, feared not to choose such a mate;

a mate that would save and increase, instead of squander, what he had; and was likely to perpetuate a race of diligent and attentive women.

O how often have I admired the industry of our grand-mothers! How often, in being an eye-witness of their domestic assiduity, have I applied to them those lines of Juvenal.

" Vos trahitis lanam, calathisque peracta refertis

" Vellera: vos tenui prægnantem stamine fusum

" Penelope melius, melius torquetis Arachne!

But now how remote are we from duties so simple and endearing! A regular and uniform conduct would seem a torment to our gossips and gadders. They want perpetual dissipation—all out of doors—full of vanity, and loaded with the gewgaws of London and Paris. " Who can find a virtuous woman? for her price is far above rubies. She seeketh wool and flax, and worketh willingly with her hands. She riseth also while it is yet night, giveth meat to her household, and a portion to her maidens. She layeth her hands to the spindle; and her hands hold the distaff. She stretcheth out her hand to the poor; yea she reacheth her hands to the needy. She maketh fine linen, and selleth it; and delivereth girdles to the merchant. Strength and honour are her cloathing, and she shall rejoice in time to come. She openeth her mouth with wisdom; and her tongue in the law of kindness. She looketh well to the ways of her household, and eateth not the bread of idleness."

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, NOVEMBER 27. 1793.

ON THE EFFECT OF CLIMATE IN ALTERING THE QUALITY OF WOOL.

Continued from p. 60.

1. *Of the influence of heat or cold on the filament itself.*

It has been long known by persons who work in wool, that the points of the filament, which form the outer part of the fleece of sheep, are in general much coarser than the roots of it, but the cause of this phenomenon never seems to have attracted their notice. The following experiments were made with a view to discover this, and seem to be perfectly satisfactory. They are recorded in Anderson's observations on the means of exciting a spirit of national industry published some years ago, p. 104, from which they are here transcribed.

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“ It is some years since I first took notice of the above mentioned fact ; (viz. the coarseness of the points of wool,) and having often had occasion to converse with people who had never observed it, I was on many occasions induced to show them some wool before they could be satisfied of it ; so that I had many opportunities of seeing the experiment verified, without having met with one instance in which it failed, or was in the least doubtful.

“ In the month of June of this present year 1775, I took some filaments of wool from a fleece lately shorn from the sheep, with an intention to show a friend the difference between the fineness of the root-end and that of the top ; but although there was a perceptible difference between them, yet I was a good deal surprised to find that this difference was far less than I had ever observed it before. At first I imagined that my former observations might perhaps have been erroneous ; and that what I had imagined to be a general rule was perhaps only a particular exception, arising from some accidental unobserved cause ; and therefore, with some degree of eagerness, examined several other fleeces ; all of which I found to agree in this particular with the first.

“ At a loss to account for this singular phenomenon, I continued to reflect upon it for some time ; and as I again and again examined with great attention the separate filaments of wool, I could not help remarking that the root-end of the filament was not the finest part of it, as I had till then imagined ; but could plainly perceive, that it was sensibly smaller

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about a fourth or fifth part of its whole length
from the root-end than it was there; so that the
whole filament was of unequal thickness in every
part, varying in this manner: At the point it was
thicker than at any other place; from whence it gra-
dually and slowly diminished for about three fourths
of its whole length, from which it began, at
first imperceptibly, but gradually more sensibly, to
increase in size as it approached towards the root-
end.

"This form of the filament soon satisfied me as to
the cause of the phenomenon that had at first per-
plexed me, and at the same time afforded a very
clear illustration of the great effect that the cli-
mate has upon the fineness of the wool. For
it was here palpably evident that that part of
the filament that was produced during the sum-
mer months, forming the points of the wool,
was coarser than that which grew during the cold
winter months, so that it gradually grew finer and
finer as the rigour of the cold increased, till about the
month of February, when the cold is usually most
intense in our climate; after which time, the wea-
ther beginning to grow gradually warmer and war-
mer, the size of the filament as gradually expanded,
till the middle or end of May, when it was separated
from the body of the sheep.

"I was, by this experiment, furnished with a very
satisfactory answer to an objection that had often
before been made against the opinion I had enter-
tained, that the cold of the season in which it grew

was the cause of the superior fineness of the roots, in comparison of the tops of the wool; it having been often alleged, that it was possible this circumstance might rather be occasioned by the warmth that was produced near the skin of the sheep even during the cold weather, by the length and closeness of the wool so perfectly covering its body at that season. But had this been the case, the fineness must have gradually become greater at the roots as the deepness of the fleece increased, and of consequence the very root of the filament ought to have been the finest part of it.

"This phenomenon appeared to tally exactly with the idea I had preconceived, as to make me be afraid lest I might become the dupe of my own prejudices, which might make me imagine that I actually perceived things, that only existed in my own imagination; as has often happened with others in the same circumstances. But to guard against all danger of being imposed upon in this respect, I drew out some of the filaments singly; and having doubled them in my hand, held out the two ends to a person who knew nothing of my intention in doing it; and having asked which was smallest, the root-end was invariably made choice of as the smallest.

"I then cut the filament at the smallest part of it, as above described, and in the same manner presented a end of this smallest part along with that end of the filament that had formerly been the root; which last was as invariably pitched upon as the coarsest of the two.

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" These experiments I repeated frequently with five or six different persons, at different times; none of whom ever committed one mistake in chusing as above specified: from which I was perfectly satisfied, that my own observations had been entirely just; and that the inference I drew from thence could not be controverted.

" It readily then occurred to me, that the smaller difference between the roots and the points of the wool shorn at Whitsundy 1775 than what I had ever before observed, was to be entirely ascribed to the peculiarity of the seasons for the year preceding that. For in this part of Scotland the summer 1774 was the coldest throughout that was ever known in the memory of man; which ought naturally to have made the points of the wool that grew in that season much smaller than usual. And as the spring 1775 was uncommonly warm, it was not at all surprising, that the difference between the two ends of the filament should be far less perceptible than usual.

" To satisfy myself, however, experimentally of the difference, in these respects, between the wool of this and the former year, I was at pains to procure some wool of last year's growth; and having compared some of the filaments of it with others of this year 1774-5, the following particulars were observable,

" 1. The difference between the point and the root of the filament of wool of crop 1773-4 was much greater than between the two ends of the filament that grew in the year 1774-5; And,

" 2. The difference between the root-end and the smallest part of the filament, was much greater in the wool of crop 1774-5 than in that of the former season. This was perceived and acknowledged by others than myself, as before, to prevent my being deceived.

" These phenomena admit of as easy an explanation as the former; being the natural consequences of the two different seasons in which the separate filaments were produced.

" For the summer 1773 was very warm and comfortable, and the winter of the same year uncommonly mild; the spring of the year 1774 having been the coldest and most uncomfortable that was almost ever known.

" Hence the points of the wool were coarse, and the roots fine, to as great a degree as may ever be expected to happen in this climate: and as there was little variation between the temperature of winter 1773-4, and spring 1774, there was likewise little variation between the roots and the finest parts of the filament.

" But as the heat of spring 1775 was greater than we almost ever experienced, the roots of the wool of that year's growth were uncommonly coarse, so as to differ much more than usually happens from the smaller parts of the filament produced in winter; which was probably the cause of my remarking it so readily that year, although it had always escaped me before.

"I have been thus particular in describing the phenomenon observable in comparing the wool of these two different seasons, not only to prevent any mistakes that you might fall into by making your observations on any wool that might fall into your hands without paying attention to the nature of the season in which it may have been produced; which might make you imagine, the facts had not been by me fairly related, if the appearances should differ in some respects from those I have enumerated, owing to a variation of the season; but also to enable you to repeat these experiments yourself, if you should be so inclined, with pleasure and advantage, instead of perplexity and doubt that might otherwise have distressed you.

"To verify these experiments in a still stronger manner, and give the observations a more incontestable degree of certainty, it readily occurred, that if the coarseness of the points of wool is to be ascribed entirely to the heat of the season in which it is produced, there must be a difference between the form of a filament of wool that has grown upon a lamb, and one that has been produced upon a shorn sheep. For as the lamb is yeaned in the spring, while the weather is yet cold, if our observations have been just, the points of it ought to be finer than that part of the wool that grows during the warmer weather in summer.

"To ascertain this particular, I examined some filaments of wool that had been cut from a lamb on the 15th of August this season 1775, and had the

satisfaction to find, that this additional trial tended to confirm all the foregoing observations: for the roots of this wool were sensibly coarser than the points; which is directly the reverse of what invariably happens with regard to the wool of old sheep.—— This experiment I also tried as before, by showing the two ends to different persons, none of whom ever committed a mistake.

“ From this experiment it also follows, that a filament of the wool of a sheep of the first shear, commonly called in England as well as Scotland a *bog sheep*, if it has not been shorn, will always be of a different form from that of a shorn sheep; as it will gradually increase in size from the point till about fourth part of its length from thence, after which it will as gradually diminish till within about a fourth of the root-end; when it will begin again to expand till it arrives at the root altogether. On this account it is necessary, if you repeat the experiments, to take care that you do not get a *bog's* fleece instead of a shorn sheep.

“ These experiments demonstrate in the clearest and most satisfactory manner, that heat at all times tends to render wool coarser in quality, and that cold to a certain degree is indispensably necessary for the production of fine wool; so that the opinion usually entertained on this head is directly the reverse of truth.

“ In consequence of the discovery that the wool which grew in cold weather was finer than that which was produced in the warm season, it occurred, that if a sheep should carry such wool as to

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admit of being cut twice in one year, there would be a possibility of separating the coarse part of the filament from the fine, which might sometimes be attended with very beneficial consequences.

To try if this could be done with profit, I took two lambs that carried long wool, and on the 12th August 1775 caused them to be clipped; and having taken a lock of wool exactly from the top of the shoulder of each, marked the lock of wool by a piece of paper, referring to a particular mark put upon each of the lambs, so as that they might be exactly known, and with certainty distinguished from one another in the spring.

In the end of May 1776 these two sheep were again taken, and a lock of wool cut exactly from the same part of the shoulder from whence the former had been cut. — These were compared with the two former locks; when it was found, that the wool which had grown before August 1775, was twice as coarse at least, and much harder and drier, and more apt to fly about in separate filaments when working, than what had grown between August 1775 and May 1776. It was likewise remarkable, that there was little variation in the size of any part of each of these filaments, that which grew in summer being nearly of an equal coarseness in every part, and that which grew in winter being as equally fine. — The winter was not remarkably severe, nor the spring uncommonly hot. —

From these experiments it seems to be undeniably proved, that wool produced in a hot climate must be infallibly coarser than the wool produced from the same animal if it had inhabited a cold climate would have been ; but in as far as these experiments go, it would seem that the influence of the heat ceased to be felt upon the filament the moment that heat abated; so that like the mercury in a thermometer, it may be made to vary *in infinitum*. Its effects therefore are only local and temporary ; nor can we discover the smallest pointing at a permanency of effect from any of these experiments.

To be continued.

ALLADIN THE PERSIAN, AN EASTERN TALE.

Continued from p. 102.

CHAPTER III.

The court of the Sultan.

THE two cousins were presented to the sultan, who received them with his usual affability. They were admitted that day to see him on his close stool, which excited much envy among the courtiers. This distinction * was only granted to the visiers,

* The same customs are found in countries, under the same kind of government. One reads in the original letters of the Duchess of Orleans, lately published. "The first dauphin loved to have persons converse with him when on his close stool. I have often had conversations with him in this manner."

to their children, and to some lords distinguished by their employments or high birth. They profited of those moments, and asked favours of the sultan, when the clearness of his complexion assured them of the perfect state of his health. Those who were not honoured with these private interviews, made considerable presents to the first physician to be exactly informed of the good digestions of the prince.

They proposed certain questions in the council, according as they were good or bad. Rigorous edicts, contrary to the natural goodness of the sultan, were surprised from him, because the visier had taken advantage of a momentary state of ill health, often also in these circumstances war had been declared; the happiness of the million depending on the good or ill digestion of one man. But in all countries, do not the winds, rain, and fine weather, govern the destiny of mankind? These causes which produce plagues, plenty or famine, are they more noble than the above mentioned?

The sultan was called Iskander, *the feeling*. This his name had been unanimously given to him, because he was violently affected, not only with the misfortunes and misery of his people, but even by the look of a discontented countenance. This was not a very profound sensibility. He would have been too unhappy upon a throne: It was that faculty to be affected, which most women have, and which they have considered as a virtue: it was a sort of momentous sensibility, which is to real feeling what a caprice is to a real passion.

The sultan had abolished the custom of signing all warrants of death, which his predecessors had always followed. They had all thought until this reign, that judgement did not belong to them; but that if the sanction of the supreme authority was even necessary, it was when it was a question to deprive a citizen of his life. They thought that the judges were true, upright, and just in their decisions, when their sentences should be laid before the eyes of their sovereign; and that when rigid justice had declared the law, particular circumstances might enable the prince to exercise clemency. Iskandor never could bring himself to sign a sentence of death. A Roman emperor said, "*Why do I know how to write?*" Iskandor said "*I will not write.*" The academies had consecrated, by the most pompous eulogium, so rare a bounty, and the sensibility of the prince.

For a long time they never gave him any account of the different sentences of his courts of law: they had even found out a phrase, to avoid hurting his feelings by the word death; and whenever they thought it necessary to inform the prince such a one was no more, they said, *he has made your highness a present of his parting this life.* The villages some leagues round the capital were composed of habitations, which art had endeavoured to imitate rustic simplicity. They were covered with thatch, and the greatest neatness reigned within; the high treasurer every year sacrificed a considerable sum to keep them in good repair, and to maintain their inhabitants. They took care whenever the prince went out hunting or riding, that he should meet with companies of sheep-

herds, and shepherdesses, dressed with some elegance: their crooks were adorned with ribbons; and sometimes they formed dances to the sound of the hautbois or flute: They proposed to him to enter among the cottages: he found the family seated at a table plentifully covered. The sultan returned home loaded with blessings, and thought with delight on the happiness his people enjoyed.

The distant provinces suffered every species of misery, but he was ignorant of it, and by indulging this repugnance to see any one unhappy, he had been advised to banish his ministers, whenever he took from them their employments: they would be too wretched, they assured his highness, if they continued to pay him their court, and after having enjoyed high rank and dignities, were mixed with the common crowd, from whom they had received every homage. His sensibility would be hurt to see those who formerly had enjoyed great places, but whom the necessity of the times might have forced him to distress. He had therefore from these considerations always exiled his ministers when disgraced, and the courtiers were too fearful to offend the prince even to mention their names.

Iskandor thus passed serenely his days in the midst of a brilliant court. Feasts succeeded each other, and old age, of which he felt the approaches, was alone able to trouble his mind. The queens, for he had four, endeavoured to dissipate these melancholy ideas. The gazettes were filled with accounts of old persons who had died upwards of an hundred years of age, and who had preserved their faculties entire to the last moment. The sultan lost his

hair: immediately the courtiers had their heads shaven, and a dress was invented to resemble the hair which covered the whole head. The sultan's sight became so bad, he was forced to wear spectacles. The academy of physic immediately published an elaborate dissertation to prove that for some time the air was infested with a malignant vapour that attacked the eyes, and all the courtiers wore spectacles. One may see by these details how much this prince was beloved. He had admitted women to his court: every man by the laws of Mahomet may have four wives; they were before the reign of Iskandor shut up in the haram with their slaves. Iskandor, weary of living alone in his seraglio, wished for a court: but there can be no court without women. Such an innovation had met with many enemies: the chief of the black eunuchs was its greatest. According to him, it would occasion the most dangerous consequences, and no government can exist, if women were allowed to appear in public, every thing would be known, and the secrets of the divan and the seraglio would be no longer a mystery. The women would decide on every thing; for there are moments when men are so weak to refuse them nothing, and the nights would overturn all your ministers have laboured to effectuate during the day. Recollect, however, recollect august prince, added he, this maxim of the great Cosroes: "I am not so much afraid (said he) of the lances of the men, as of the distaffs of the women."

The vizirs were of a contrary opinion to the chief of the eunuchs: they represented that his opinion

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was to be suspected, and that he was biased by the prejudices of his situation. A young lord, who commanded the guard of the sultan, rose, and pleaded most eloquently the cause of one half of mankind. "We are (said he) unjust to women, and enemies of our own happiness; let us grant liberty to those with whom we are united by a legitimate knot. They are our equals: we have, at present slaves, but we shall have companions. Women will govern, they cry; well, be it so: Is it not better to be governed by them than by eunuchs?" This argument succeeded; he had in his favour love and justice. The chief of the eunuchs left the council in a storm of passion, and the orator of the fair sex was shortly after raised to the dignity of grand visir.

The courtiers, to please the sultan, were anxious to have their wives appear with brilliancy at the court; and the prince had erected for them different places about the queens: but, as the greater part could not support the expence of four wives attending the court, they had allotted to each a separate department in their palaces. One of the four was called the *political* wife: To her was given a fine equipage, diamonds, and slaves superbly dressed: she was to attend the court, and solicit favour from the ministers. To act this part, they chose a wife rather pretty than handsome; who was graceful, witty, and cunning. It was not necessary for her to be too young; from 25 to 30 years. Her reign lasted from 10 to 12 years, as probably in that time her husband would have obtained all his ambition wanted so that her talents became less needful.

The second wife was *for parade*. She was a woman of a dignified appearance, who knew the world, and had the talent of saying common-place things with ease: she must have a good memory, to retain the names of all the guests who came to her dinners, &c.: she must support every fatiguing and tiresome person, as if he was the most brisk: This wife was dressed with a certain magnificence, but without elegance: two or three rich dresses, which lasted many years, were sufficient for her to appear in at those ceremonies, where her presence was indispensable.

The third wife was called the *housewife*. She was commonly a fat, fresh woman, perfectly mistress of arithmetic, knew the prices of every thing, and was the manager of the house. Her dress was of plain and simple stuffs.

The fourth was *the wife of the night*. She was a young person, of about 16 or 18; and was never dressed, but in a shift of muslin, embroidered or studded over with some stars of gold. A sash of silk showed her shape; her hair floated carelessly on her shoulders, or intermixed with flowers; her shoes were elegant: and a black ribbon proved as a contrast to a streak of alabaster. Wit was useless for this character; and good humour, and sweetness of temper, was all that was looked for. Parents, according to the different characters of their daughters, educated them for political wives, for parade, as house-wives, or ladies of the bed-chamber: and when a husband lost a wife, he had it announced by the public crier in the bazar, the sort of wife he was in want of. The housewives

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She was a woman who viewed the world, and placed things in their proper light, to retain her dinners, and tiresome. This wife was not without elegance, which lasted many years in at those dispensable. *wife*. She was a very mistress of every thing, and dress was of

He was a young man never dressed, and studded over his neck showed her shoulders, which were elegant to a mark of character; and was all that to the different of them for positives, or ladies and lost a wife, in the bazar, the housewives

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Alladin, — a tale.

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were the scarcest, and least looked for; they were commonly chosen from the banking or finance line. The ladies for parade were supplied from the law; but the political ladies were always taken from the court; and the talents necessary for this line ought to have been received from the earliest youth. Dissimulation, suppleness, the art of saving one's own interests in appearing solely to be employed with those of others, and all those fugitive shades formed by bon ton and taste, which express and avoid ridicule, with delicacy, can only be found in the upper spheres of society.

The court of Iskandor was in a continual agitation through the intrigues of the different societies, who wished to displace, or to make a minister; and the women were the principal springs of each intrigue. Often places were given to those whose sole merit was lying, amusing, and who pleased the women by their agreeable manners. Sometimes a mufti had been chosen who did not know two lines of the Alkoran; and a prime minister who was ignorant of the laws, commerce, and finance. When their incapacity was complained of, the women said, he was an agreeable creature, and the men repeated it. This trifling character was termed facility; and the minister who yielded to the tears of the women, was cried up as one full of sensibility. The two cousins had made their entry at court at the same time, but had not had the same success.

To be continued.

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J

ON THE DELAYS INCIDENT TO THE COURT
OF SESSION.

Continued from p. 52.

To the Lord President of the Court of Sefision.

LETTER VIII.

MY LORD,

DEBATE and inquiry to a certain extent, are necessary towards a mature and uniform decision; but beyond that point, they are extremely hurtful, not only as wasting time, and money, but as leading into doubt and perplexity. If therefore your lordship can attain the just *medium*, and fix the forms there, you will merit well of your country.

The observations made above on processes of ranking and sale, are most of them applicable to a process of *multiple paining*, where *oaths of verity*, a *state and order of ranking*, and a *scheme of division* are all required.

I think it would be no small improvement on the latter to introduce intimations to the creditors in the newspapers, as well as the minute-book, similar to those that take place in the former. And to have a decret of certification pronounced in it, which might be held as *final*, without obliging the creditors to extract it.

A process of *compt and reckoning* is of a very tedious nature. The conclusion of this action is, That the defenders should render a fair account, and make

payment of the just balance: or, if he fails to do so, that he should be decerned to pay *such a sum*, as the estimated balance due by him.

The precise sum thus concluded for, is generally double or triple, perhaps *quadruple*, of what is justly due; a circumstance introduced by custom, probably with a view of inducing the defender to exhibit a candid account, though the effect has been the reverse.

By the first interlocutor, the defender is usually ordained to give in an account, charge, and discharge, of his intromissions. But after many inrollments, and a great loss of time, he often exhibits a very imperfect account, or one unsupported by the proper vouchers.

Objections are made in writing; and written answers, replies, &c. follow. And after an interlocutor, finding the account insufficient, and ordaining the defender to give in a new state, a second state is lodged, not more satisfactory, perhaps, than the first. But it serves to drag the pursuer over the same ground of tedious and expensive litigation, a second time. And thus a space of *two*, perhaps *three*, years may elapse before any thing material is got done in the cause.

When the Lord Ordinary at length decerns, in favour of the libel, which is the only vigorous measure he can pursue, the defender gives in one representation after another, almost without end; which are the more readily listened to, because the extravagant sum libelled is so much beyond what the pursuer himself can say is justly due to him.

In short, the pursuer, however anxious and keen he may at first have been, comes to be almost wearied out, and so to neglect his own cause before it is possible for him to obtain from the defender the *best* account that he can render in the circumstances of the case.

The evil here is very great, and cannot perhaps be removed, but may, I think, be alleviated. A suitable regulation may compel the pursuer to be more scrupulous and attentive in libelling the sum due to the defender, and his oath may be required on the real amount of it; at least according to the best of his knowledge and belief.

By the same interlocutor that ordains the defender to give in a state of accounts, the pursuer may be appointed to give his oath of *verity* or *credulity*, on the just amount of his claim. The sum being thus ascertained, the Lord Ordinary will fall to decern for it, if the defender shall fail to give a state of accounts, within the time assigned to him; or if the state given in by him shall be found defective; for he ought not to be allowed to give in any new or supplementary state after the interlocutor rejecting the first state is once become final.

In case the pursuer shall neglect to make oath, his action ought to be dismissed, and expences awarded against him, reserving the power to him to bring a new action on the same grounds. And not even the consent of parties should afterwards render it possible to revive or take a single step in the old action.

I would not have the pursuer's oath of credulity held as final evidence of the sums really due; and

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therefore I would reserve action of repetition to the defender against him, in case of mistake.

But, on the other hand, care ought to be taken that a defender, by withholding information, should not have it in his power to involve a pursuer in perjury, or even to tax him with false swearing, unless upon an accusation in the criminal court.

I am, &c. LENTULUS.

ON THE POOR LAWS, LETTER II.

Continued from p. 29.

Method of providing for the poor in Scotland.

THE same circumstance which gave rise to the poor laws in Britain, occasioned new arrangements in Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Switzerland, and those parts of Germany where the reformed religion took place. An exact account of these different institutions, and the effects that have resulted from them, would form a very useful and interesting publication: but this cannot at present be attempted. In the present essay I shall content myself with giving a distinct account of the system that has been adopted on this subject in Scotland, in hopes that others who are equally well acquainted with the institutions in other countries, may publish similar accounts of them.

At the reformation in Scotland was adopted a system of church government which affords the most perfect model of a pure democracy that ever was known to exist for an equal length of time (now

above 200 years) in any part of the world. Every member of the Scottish church is on the most perfect equality with all others in every respect; nor can an individual possess any influence in it, but that which is derived from respect to his talents or purity of conduct. The influence of this government extends only to spiritual affairs, for unless it be the share it has in the administration of the poor's funds, and the power of representing, when repairs of churches or manse are wanted, the clergy can have no interference with temporal affairs whatever.

In regard to church government, Scotland is divided into parishes; *presbyteries*, including several adjoining parishes; *synods*, including several presbyteries; and the general assembly, which is supreme over the whole.

Each parish, as to spirituals, is put under the care of a clergyman, who is called the *minister* of that parish. Upon that minister and the elders, who collectively are called the *kirk session*, devolves the care of the poor; and to them, in the first instance, are entrusted the management of the poor's funds. The *elders* are laymen chosen from among the most respectable inhabitants to assist the minister in the discharge of his religious duty to the parish. They are generally chosen, in country parishes, from among the class of farmers; a respectable order of men, who for sobriety of mind, regularity of moral conduct, decency of deportment, and attention to the punctual discharge of religious ordinances, cannot perhaps be exceeded by any persons on the globe. These generally reside in different parts of the parish, and have of course

each of them a district around him entrusted peculiarly to his charge; and as one principal part of their business is to see that the really infirm shall not suffer want, while at the same time the poor's funds shall not be squandered away upon improper objects, no application for charity can ever be made in which the physician has not an opportunity at once of being satisfied, on the best authority, of the propriety of granting or refusing the claim, and of knowing exactly the amount of the supply that the case requires. This, together with the scantiness of the sums that can in general be afforded, has introduced into practice; in this department a system of rigid economy which has been attended with the happiest effects; and such practical checks have been adopted for preventing abuses in this line, as seem to promise that they cannot soon be overcome.

The poor's funds in Scotland arise almost entirely from voluntary alms, and pious donations of individuals. It is the universal practice, each Lord's day, in every parish, for such of the audience as are in easy circumstances, to give to the poor such an offering of alms as they shall deem proper. In old times this offering was collected in the church itself, after divine service was over in the forenoon, by the elders going through the church in person, who by presenting a small box fixed to a handle into each seat, gave every one an opportunity of dropping into the box whatever piece of money they chose, or allowing it to pass by where they do not find it suits their circumstances or inclination to give. This practice still prevails in some remote places;

and wherever it does prevail, the congregation sit with composure and silence, while the offering, as it is always called, is collecting. But in polite congregations the usual practice now is, to place under a covered porch at the entry into the church, a brass basin, supported by a small stool covered with a white cotton cloth; into which every one who inclines may drop his offering as he goes into the church. An *elder* always attends to take care of the offering; who, when the service is begun, removes and keeps it under his charge till the service be over, when the session meets, and the money is then told over, its amount marked down in the session account book, and deposited in a box kept for that purpose. This box has usually a small slit in the top, through which the pieces of money can be dropped without opening it: and is closed with two locks the key of one of which is usually kept by the minister, and the other by the kirk treasurer, so that it can never be opened but in the presence of these two at least.

A kirk session, when regularly constituted, must always consist of the minister, elders, session-clerk, and kirk-treasurer. None of these ever receive any salary, except the session-clerk, who is usually the schoolmaster of the parish, and has a small salary allowed for minuting the transactions, usually not exceeding from 20s. to 30s. a-year.—The kirk-treasurer is for the most part one of the elders: and he is an important member of this court. Without his intervention no distribution of the poor's funds is deemed legal; nor can any payments be made, receipts granted, or money transferred, but by

him; the minister and session being personally liable to make good all money that may otherwise be given away, should it ever afterwards be challenged by any heritor in the parish.

The precautions taken for the distribution of the poor's funds are likewise simple and excellent, and are as follow.

No money can be *legally* issued from the poor's funds even by the treasurer and session, unless legal proof can be brought that public intimation has been given from the pulpit immediately after divine service, and before the congregation has dispersed, that a distribution of poor's money is to be made by the session, at such a time and place, specifying the sum, and inviting all who have interest in the case to attend if they shall incline. This intimation must be made a full fortnight before the time of distribution; and as every heritor (owner of landed property) in the parish, has a right to vote in the distribution of the poor's funds, they may all, if they so incline, then attend and exercise that right: but if none of them should then attend, which is often the case, the session has then a right to proceed, and whatever they shall thus do, is deemed strictly legal, and is liable to no challenge. But should they proceed without having given this previous intimation, they may, if the heritors should afterwards challenge it, be made to repay out of their own pockets, every shilling they shall have so issued: It sometimes happens, that young ministers, through heedlessness in this respect, expose themselves and families to considerable trouble and loss, which by attention

might be easily avoided. In the same way, should a minister and session, without the intervention of a treasurer regularly constituted, lend upon bond or otherwise, any of the poor's funds, and should the person so borrowing afterwards fail, these lenders are personally liable to make good the whole, and any heritor in the parish who chooses it, can compel him to do so. These *legal* checks on the proceedings respecting poor's funds are not so generally known as they ought to be.

The members of the session are also liable to pay all losses, and to account for all sums that it can be instructed they received, if they neglect to keep regular books, in which every transaction shall be entered: Or, if these books have not been revised and approved of by the presbytery*; but if they shall have been so revised, they cannot be challenged for omission of forms, and can only be made to account for errors, or frauds, or evident delapidations.

Under this wise and economical system of management, it has been found by the experience of more than two hundred years, that in the low parts of the country, where the parishes are in general of such moderate extent as to admit of the people of every part of the parish generally to attend divine service every Lord's day, the ordinary funds have

* The presbytery is by law, appointed auditor of the poor's accounts of the several parishes within its bounds, and if they find any difficult case occur in the discharge of this duty, they may lay it before the synod, for advice.

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been amply sufficient to supply all the real demands of the poor, and in most parishes a fund has been accumulated from the savings of ordinary years to help the deficiencies that may arise in years of uncommon scarcity. In the singularly bad season 1782 these accumulated funds afforded great relief to the poor.

To those who have been accustomed to the waste and extravagance which prevails wherever an involuntary poor's rate has been established, it will appear altogether incredible that any saving could ever be made from the very small sums that are thus collected. From the authentic account transmitted to Sir John Sinclair in his Statistical Surveys, it appears that the weekly *offering*, as it is called, in a parish consisting of about one thousand souls, is usually about three shillings. The extra offerings at the administration of the sacrament of the Lord's Supper, which in country parishes is only once a year, may be about three pounds. To that must be added, some small fees paid for the use of a mort cloth at funerals, which is generally purchased by the poor's money, and of late some similar fees for the use of a wheel carriage by way of hearse, which has in many parishes been bought by the poor's money also, and some other trifling items in particular parishes, which in all may amount to not more than from 18 to 20 l. the whole sum that can be annually appropriated to the support of the poor.

If any individual, indeed, suffers by an uncommon disaster, such as fire, or epidemical dis-

case of bestial, or other clamant case, it is usual for the minister to make an appropriated collection for the benefit of such unfortunate sufferer. On having given notice the Sunday before, that such collection is to be made the next Lord's day, the parson after the service is over, generally addresses the audience, setting forth in just colours the circumstances of the case, which consist with his own knowledge, and exhorting by suitable arguments those who have it to spare, to extend their bounty as far as they shall think just and prudent. And as the majority of the audience know the case themselves, it seldom happens but on these occasions the benefactions are liberal, and afford a suitable relief. Sometimes when the loss has been very great, this collection is extended to the neighbouring parishes, and it is pleasing to see with what alacrity the lower classes of the people contribute in such cases to the relief of the unfortunate, and as this donation is ever received by those to whom it is given, with a grateful humility, it forms a sort of cement of friendship between them and their neighbours, which proves highly beneficial in all the future period of their lives; for it is natural to man to preserve a tender kindness for the person he has once obliged, when the behaviour of that person is decent and becoming; and every one who has secretly contributed to his relief, is naturally inclined to believe, that by conferring a favour he has secured the grateful benevolence of the person obliged, and therefore is ready to count upon him at all times, as his sure friend on every emergency.

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It is in this sense that even alms-giving may be deemed not altogether unworthy of the praises that St Paul has so emphatically bestowed upon *charity*. It is one of the strongest bonds of mutual good will among men. The exercise of benevolence is a sensation that the human mind delights to dwell upon; and the contemplation of the effects of it upon the mind of the person who is obliged, is naturally calculated to touch the finest feelings of the heart, to humanize the soul, and cement society in the bonds of affection and brotherly love. I cannot help, therefore, considering those institutions, which, by forcibly tearing from man against his will, that supply which he would cheerfully give if left to himself, as among the most horrible devices that have been invented for extirpating, if it were possible, the very seeds of the social affections, and introducing into society the demon of discord instead of the angel of peace. I congratulate thee O my country! that thou art still in possession of that simplicity of mind, and purity of morals, which enables thee to taste so universally the soothing satisfaction which results from the uncurbed exertions of these kindly beneficent affections! May the time be distant when thou shalt be forced to foregoe them!*

* I do not know an object which the mind can contemplate with such a pitiable kind of horror as the present state of France; whatever opinions men may entertain of its civil government, there can be no difference in opinion respecting the deplorable consequences that must result from that marked detestation the ruling powers have discovered against every tendency to religious worship. I am no advo-

I believe there is no country on the globe where the poor are in general more suitably provided for, or enjoy a greater proportion of happiness, or feel their distress so kindly sympathised with, as those in the country parishes in Scotland in general. Every one, however in these happy districts feels, "that it is more blessed to give than to receive." And from their earliest infancy they strive as much as possible to keep themselves from the prospect of ever needing to receive support from others. This is, to them, a situation so humiliating that it becomes necessary for the elders to keep a strict look out, that no person in that division, who, from disease, or age, or otherwise, is disabled from following their usual business, shall be allowed to suffer through want; for there are many instances of persons thus circumstanced, who would rather allow themselves to perish than let their wants be known, unless a kind of compulsion were exercised for discovering them. I have known this kind of delicacy carried so far, as that the neighbours have even gone the length of searching the house to see if there were necessaries in it, before it would be acknowledged that there were none. In these tender offices of friendship, the

cate for bigotry or the warm emotions of enthusiastic zeal; but the consolations of a rational and pure devotion are so soothing to the human mind, and its influence so beneficial to society, that I cannot form an idea that society can exist for any considerable time where that is wholly wanting. I presume this is the universal opinion of my readers;—and I trust to God the day is far distant when my countrymen shall begin to imitate such a baneful example!

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parties who interfere always act with a kind, sym-
pathetic constraint, which gradually overcomes the
most determined opposition; but nothing can recon-
cile many persons to the idea of dependence, or fa-
vours received without a return. It is not the alms
but the kindness of the giver, that is received—and
that kindness must be returned; nor is it possible for
those who have not seen it to conceive in how many
ways age and decrepitude, will contrive to serve their
benefactors by a thousand obliging assiduities, in
thought, in word, and in deed. The attachment between
the freed men of Rome to their former masters, and
the kindness of a nurse to her foster-child, have been
often taken notice of: But both these, I am inclined
to believe, fall short of the warm and affectionate glow
of reciprocal kindness that subsists between a poor
pensioner, and those who contribute to their support
in Scotland. Nor is there almost a person in this
country who does not experience the soothing compla-
cency that this on innumerable occasions confers: I
should reckon myself guilty of *parricide* (if you will
admit that phrase), of the crime of destroying the very
source of one great happiness of my compatriots, if I
did not endeavour, as much a sin me lay, to ward off
every institution that had a necessary tendency to
cut up by the roots this system of mutual endear-
ments between the rich and the poor.

No one then is to believe that the money which comes
through the hands of the administration of the poor's
funds, is all that is bestowed upon the poor in Scot-
land; far from it; there are a thousand other channels

through which the indigent derive consolation and support, all of them tending to produce the happiest effects upon society. A son feels himself ashamed to think that his parents should require the assistance of another to support them; he therefore strains every nerve when in the vigour of life to spare a little of his earning to render their old age more easy than it might have been; and sweet to a parent is the bread that is given by the pious attention of a child. If there are several children, they become emulous who shall discover most kindness. It is a pious contention which serves to unite them the closer to each other, by commanding their mutual esteem. The Sunday is usually appropriated to this family visit; the whole children then meet together, which strengthens their mutual kindness*. The parents relate with grateful exaggeration the kindness of their benefactors, and strive to make their children repay by their assiduities, the favours they have received. These are glad to become the servants and grateful defenders of their benefactors on all occasions. The neighbours who, too poor to give alms, bestow their attention at least upon the aged, visit them at necessary times, and perform with alacrity the offices they stand in need of. These also in their turn participate of

* Mr Burns has drawn a picture no less beautiful than just of this kind of family meeting so common among people of the poorer class in every part of Scotland, which I with pleasure insert in the next number of the Bee. Thousands who but for sparing occasionally in the *little penny fee*, as he in their own language calls their wages, would have been brought upon the parish, are enabled to maintain a respectable appearance till death without other support.

the grateful good will of the children. These assiduous duties of the young folks in discharging the debt of gratitude, derived from their parents, naturally conciliate the esteem of the children of these neighbours. Esteem is the parent of love, and connections are thus formed which link the whole community in straiter bonds of friendship. But I must stop—the limits to which I am obliged to confine myself forbid me to enlarge.

Such is the regular progression of nature when unthwarted in her course. Beneficence is congenial to the heart of man, and the infirmities of nature are happily calculated to cherish the seeds of it, where ever they are not eradicated by the operation of cruel and injudicious laws; which by substituting force for nature, tear the whole fabric asunder, and leave nothing but dissevered fragments, instead of the goodly fabric that should have been preserved. The system of Scotland with regard to the management of the poor is happily adapted to the preservation of the social union in its highest purity: that of England is as naturally calculated to destroy it. But I will not dwell upon this displeasing theme. It is enough that those who have experienced it can bear witness how much it is the reverse of the just picture I have drawn above. Long may those who can judge of the truth of this picture remain ignorant of the other! I shall in a future paper take occasion to show that if ever they do know it experimentally, it must be their own fault.

ON THE STUDY OF NATURAL HISTORY.

NATURAL history is one of the most pleasing studies in which man can engage; for the objects it brings under review are so infinitely diversified, yet all so admirably adapted for the purpose they were intended for in the universe, as to afford a perpetual source of wonder and admiration to those who nearly contemplate them.

To the student this branch of science naturally divides itself into two branches, *viz.* that which regards the classification and nomenclature, and that which has a respect to the propagation, increase, qualities, and habitudes of the different objects of investigation. This first ought naturally to precede the other; for without a knowledge in that department, all advances in the other that might be made by individuals would be vain and nugatory, because it would be impossible for others, to ascertain what were the particular bodies to which the attributes specified did belong. The ancients, regardless in some measure of this circumstance, having applied themselves with much assiduity to the second department, ascertained the qualities of many objects, but the knowledge they thus acquired is to us almost useless, because we cannot ascertain with certainty the objects of their investigation. The moderns in this respect have acted more wisely; for by beginning with the classification of all objects, and by describing them in such a way as that no one can ever be confounded with another, they lay the sure foundation of a science which in time may become an object of immense importance; seeing if ever any one quality of a particular object be accurately ascertained, the knowledge of that single quality may be preserved for ages, till others respecting the same object may be added to it; so

that by continual additions of this kind, it will come to be completely known at the last. Those therefore who busy themselves in the classification of objects, are engaged in a most useful employment, as they are constructing a scaffolding by means of which may be reared a stately fabric of infinite magnitude and utility, without which scaffolding it never could have existed.

Still however it ought ever to be adverted to that the classification of objects, though it be an indispensable initiatory step in the science of natural history, in the same manner as learning the letters of the alphabet is an indispensable step in the progress of every branch of learning; yet if it be considered merely in itself, without having a reference to the uses to which it may be applied in the farther study of nature, it would lose much of that respectability to which it otherwise may justly lay claim; and as in the present age many persons seem to prosecute the science of classification alone, with a degree of keenness and ardour which would make one believe that they considered this as the ultimate object they aimed at in the science of natural history, it is no great wonder that some cynical snarlers should sneer at these short sighted naturalists, and represent them as pluming themselves upon the attainment of useless and trifling acquirements. The wise man, while he considered the first as taking too narrow a view of the science of nature, would blame the last as condemning that as utterly useless, which though of little utility to the possessor, might be of great use to some others who should afterwards avail themselves of his labours. He would compare it to the indiscriminate collections made by a man of fortune, who knew not to what uses might be applied the materials he had heaped together, but who by subjecting them to the inspection

of men of genius, might enable them to make many discoveries, which without his intervention they never could have done. These are therefore to be considered as useful labourers in the field of nature, and although they never can aspire to the honour of attaining a place in the superior mansions of that sublime edifice, yet if they can please themselves by taking up their abode at the threshold, why should their happiness be there disturbed?

It is no difficult task to account for the predilection shown in modern times to the science of nomenclature above the other branch of natural history. In the first the labours of the ingenious Swede have so much simplified this business as to render it attainable without much trouble to any one who shall apply to it. The arrangements he has made too, are in many respects so beautiful as to prove highly pleasing to the youthful imagination, and the attention is kept so continually awake by a gentle exertion, without any painful effort, as to excite a sensation somewhat of the same attractive sort with that of the billiard or the card table; add to this, that the person who has made any considerable progress in this art, has such frequent opportunities of discovering the superiority which this kind of knowledge gives him above others, without being reduced to the necessity of going out of his way to seek for opportunities of displaying it, and we will not be surprised at the eagerness with which men should attach themselves to this branch of science; for what can be more attractive than a study which requires no further exertion of mind, than serves to amuse, and at the same time so powerfully flatters the vanity of man.

Much the reverse of this is the study of that department of natural history, which goes to ascertain the

qualities and haitudes of the different objects; those especially of animated nature; for in that department, many of the objects come so seldom within our reach, that they in a great measure elude our observation; and when they do come sometimes under our view, it requires such a painful attention to minute particulars, before facts can be fairly authenticated, that the inquiry becomes tiresome, and is soon abandoned for others of a more lightsome and engaging sort. Hence, it happens, that instead of engaging in this pursuit themselves, or weighing the facts with care that others have asserted, writers on natural history in general, content themselves with copying what has been said by others; so that if any one person has been able to frame a plausible tale, though perhaps it be in a great measure destitute of foundation, yet, if the object be not immediately under our eye, that tale shall be so often narrated as a truth by respectable writers on all sides, that it comes to be universally believed; and the person who shall but whisper a doubt of that system, will be reprobated as an impudent innovator; his reasons for doubting be treated with contempt; and himself be viewed with obloquy by all the writers who have copied that tale, and by all the admirers of these writer. What a tremendous conflict has a man thus to fear? - - - and why should he expose himself to obloquy? and his family perhaps to ruin in defence of truth, which it is every body's business as much as his own to defend. *Si populus vult decipi decipietur*, he will say, and will let the world go on without interrupting their devious career.

In these circumstances we can only expect that a very few men will engage in a study that is attended with great difficulty, perplexity, and doubt, and which neither

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is productive of honour nor of emolument. Linnæus, Pallas, and a few other writers of established character, have discovered surprising talents for investigating facts respecting the economical history of such objects as have fallen under their immediate inspection; but few are the objects which they could have opportunities of investigating, themselves, and in most cases they have been obliged to build open facts collected from others, many of which must no doubt be of a suspicious nature. As to Buffon, his imagination was always at hand to assist him in rearing up a beautiful fabric from the most flimsy materials, and thus to propagate error through the wide extent of an admiring universe.

For these reasons it may be said that the real science of natural history has hardly had a beginning*. Even the animals which are reared by ourselves, and under the observation of every person in Europe every day of their lives, have few of their real qualities actually ascertained by naturalists†. Dr Pallas in the natural history of the sheep, published in this work, has discovered a laudable attention to the subject under a variety of points of view; but the ascertaining with accuracy so many facts as re-

* Unless it be among anecdotes of hunting and fishing, which may be picked up by a careful observation of the practice of various nations, the most savage as well as the most civilized, all of which are founded on an accurate observation of the natural habitudes of the respective animals to which they refer, I scarcely know another uncontaminated source of information to which the naturalist can apply on this subject.

† It is a well known fact that Buffon published many (thirteen I think) editions of his works, in all of which he described the common ox as shedding his horns annually like the deer; and this error, absurd as it was, has been copied by several others from him.

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quire to be here investigated, far exceeds the power of any one man, who has many other pursuits; so that the object is still but in an incipient state. This, however, is a sort of beginning that may be prosecuted.

As another attempt of the same kind, with regard to another animal, that will probably some time become of vast importance to Britain, the Editor proposes to submit to his readers in a subsequent number of this work, some facts respecting the natural history of the herring, which in like manner require farther elucidation. Most of these facts were indeed published some years ago as an appendix to a work that he has reason to believe has not fallen into the hands of many of the persons who had the best opportunities of either confirming or confuting these observations. It is meant that this sort of republication should in some sort remedy that defect.

ANECDOTES.

SOON after the late treaty of peace between England and America, the master of an American vessel in London, fell in company with some sharpers, who urged him very much to join them in drinking a bottle or two of porter. He, not aware of their policy, consented to go to a public house; where, after they had all drank very freely, they dropt off, one by one, until at last the Yankee was left quite alone. The inkeeper coming in, says to him, 'What are you left alone?' 'Yes,' replied the other. The inkeeper observed to him, that he supposed he was not much acquainted with 'their English blades.' 'I am not,' replied the American. 'Well,

said the inkeeper, 'the reckoning falls on you.' "Does it!" replied the other, affecting surprise, and clapping his hand into his pocket, as if to pay it, but pausing, he says, "Well, if this be the case, give me another bottle before I go." The inkeeper stepped out to get it. In the mean time the American wrote on the table, "I leave you American handles for your English blades," and walked off in his turn.

Soon after the late Sir William Johnson had been appointed superintendent of Indian affairs in America, he wrote to England for some suits of cloaths richly laced. When they arrived, Hendrick, king of the five nations of the Mohawks, was present, and particularly admired them. In a few days, Hendrick called on Sir William and acquainted him that he had a dream. On Sir William's inquiring what it was, he told him, he had dreamed that he had given him one of those fine suits he had lately received. Sir William took the hint, and immediately presented him with one of his richest suits. Hendrick, highly pleased with the generosity of Sir William, retired. Sir William, sometime after this, happening to be in company with Hendrick, told him he had also had a dream. Hendrick, being very solicitous to know what it was, Sir William informed him, he had dreamed that he (Hendrick) had made him a present of a particular tract of land (the most valuable on the Mohawk river) of about five thousand acres. Hendrick presented him with the land immediately, with this shrewd remark: "Now Sir William, I will never dream with you again, you dream too hard for me."

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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 4. 1793.

ROBINIA FEROX.

With a plate.

THE *robinia ferox* is a beautiful hardy shrub, and on account of its robust strong prickles, might be introduced into this country as a hedge plant, with much propriety. It resists the severest cold of the climate of St Petersburg, and perfects its seeds in the garden of the Empr-ss there. It rises to the height of six or eight feet; does not send out suckers from the root, nor ramble so much as to be with difficulty kept within bounds. Its flowers are yellow, and the general colour of the plant a light pleasing green.

The figure here given, is copied from the *Flora Rossica* by Dr Pallas, who found it in the southern districts, and sent the seeds to St Petersburg, where it has prospered in a situation where few plants can be made to live.

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It is not a little remarkable that the three most common plants in this country, whins or furze, broom, and heath, are scarcely to be found in the Russian dominions. A gentleman who lived several years in that empire, and travelled many thousand miles in it, from St Petersburg to the southern confines, assured me, that these three plants are so rare, that he does not recollect ever to have observed a single stalk of one of them during the whole of his travels in that empire. This is to me, a striking proof of the great severity of the climate in winter there, even in the lower latitudes; for we know that even in this country, neither whins nor broom are very hardy plants; the first in particular being apt to have its young shoots killed down almost every winter, where it has grown with luxuriance on a fertile soil. The broom also is often, though seldomer, nipped by the severity of the spring frosts. But in Russia, where even the hawthorn and beech, we are told by an observing correspondent, (Bee, vol. xii p. 255) are hot-house plants, these two plants cannot survive at all. As to heath, I have observed no instance of its being killed by cold in this climate; so that I should suspect its scarcity in Russia, ought rather to be attributed to the nature of the soil than the temperature.

We have a striking proof of the absurdity of reasoning, as to the hardiness of plants, *a priori*, or of relying in this case on any thing else than well authenticated facts, by observing the great difference in the effect of cold on the gooseberry and currant plants. Here, we perceive no difference; we deem them e.

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qually hardy, and I suppose many persons would be inclined to think the gooseberry the most hardy of the two: but in Rufsia they perceive that there is a most striking difference; for though the gooseberry, unless carefully protected from the cold, would be every winter killed there, yet the currant is so hardy, the black currant in particular, that it is never observed to lose the smallest point of a twig, though left entirely unprotected in the most exposed situation during winter. The currant is reported to have been first introduced into Britain from the island of Zant in the Levant, so that we should expect it would be rather tender of cold. This, and many other facts, prove, that we should always try the hardiness of plants by actual exposure, from whatever country they come, before we conclude that they necessarily must be tender. It is not impossible but that some plants which have been originally brought from the torrid zone, may be so hardy as to resist the utmost rigours of a Siberian climate.

ON SOME STRIKING INACCURACIES IN
THE CORN RETURNS.

To Mr John James Calderwood, receiver of corn
returns, London.

SIR,

THE office of correcting errors is in general so disagreeable, that few are willing to undertaake the task.

This is particularly observable where the errors affect the public in general, and where of course, every one may think it is as much the business of thousands of others as of himself, to come forward as a public accuser. These considerations, operating no doubt on others as well as myself, have so long delayed any public notice having been taken of the abuses I mean to bring under your view in this letter.

On the first publication of your weekly returns of the prices of corn, I remarked with astonishment some glaring absurdities in it : but these were so striking and obvious to every person who bestowed the smallest attention to them, that I could neither believe that you, Sir, would overlook them, nor that others should have been long silent with regard to them ; so that I had no doubt they would have been corrected long ere this time ; I therefore waited with patience in daily expectation of seeing this done. As no symptoms, however, indicate that any thing of that sort is as yet in contemplation, I have at last resolved to address you on the subject ; and to lay the correspondence before the public.

My observations shall be here confined chiefly to the prices of oats and oat-meal ; an object of very great importance to this, and many other parts of the kingdom.

When the law which created your office was under discussion in the House of Commons, much anxiety was discovered to fix the rate which should regulate the importation and exportation of these articles ; and the variation of even a few pence on these rates, would have been then considered as ruin.

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ous to the country in the extreme; but since that time, though under your auspices, the prices have been varied, not a few *pence*, but even several *pounds*, beyond the real truth, so as to affect *without a cause*, the trade of this country in a very material degree, the legislature, the public, and yourself, as if all seized with an incurable apathy, have allowed these things to be done without a single note of censure or of disapprobation.

To satisfy you, Sir, and the public, that what I have said above is literally true, nothing more is necessary than to bring under your view, the following prices as stated in your "Average prices of corn" published on the 20th of July 1793. Any other of these returns that have been published would have exhibited nearly the same appearances. It is to be observed the prices are said to be invariably, for the oats, *per quarter*, of eight Winchester bushels, and the oat-meal *per boll*, consisting of 140 lbs. Averdupois, or 128 lbs. Scots troy, which by your law are declared to be the same; and they are in fact so nearly equal as to prevent any material error from originating in this source.

price of oats price of oat-
per quarter. meal per boll.

		s.	d.	s.	d.
Bedford, - -	Bedfordshire,	23	0	57	3
Derby - - -	Derbyshire,	30	0	30	9
Rofs, - - -	Hertfordshire,	27	2	94	11
Burton on Trent,	Staffordshire,	28	10	29	8
Beverly, - -	Yorkshire,	16	11	19	4
Alnwick, - -	Northumberland,	27	8	15	4
Exeter, - - -	Devonshire,	19	8	28	5
Edinburgh, -	Mid Lothian,	24	0	18	11
Nairn, - - -	Invernesshire,	15	5	14	11

The errors in the above table, from mere inspection only, are sufficiently apparent. Every person who travels the road, knows that the quality of corn for horses is not materially different, in different parts of the country; and that though they may weigh a little more in one place than in another, and of course may yield a *small matter* more or less of oat-meal, yet that difference can bear no sort of proportion to the variations indicated in the above table. For example, oats in Rofs are 27 s. 2d. and oat-meal 94 s. 11d; that is to say 3 quarters and a half of oats nearly, are required to make one boll of meal; while at Ainswick, oats are 27 s. 8d. and oat-meal 15 s. 4d; so that one quarter of these oats give more than a boll and a half of meal: at this rate the oats of Ainswick are nearly six times as good as at Rofs, and yet these oats sell nearly at the same price. It is unnecessary to enlarge on other obvious discrepancies in this table.

I have sometimes been amused by putting myself in the place of a stranger who was desirous of obtaining authentic information respecting the internal economy of this country, who had got possession of some of your weekly returns. "What a treasure I have now got, would he say to himself; I have been busying myself for years to fall upon some plan for getting a true idea of the state of agriculture and internal economy of Britain, but in vain. Every mean of information I thought to obtain, proved fallacious in one way or other, but now I have fortunately found one that cannot err. The prices are now ascertained in the most ac-

accurate manner, under the eye of the legislature itself, and are authenticated with the utmost precision by an officer appointed for that purpose, who cannot go wrong. I may now therefore rely upon this document with the most implicit faith, and reason upon it with a certainty I have scarcely been able to do in any one case respecting political economy."

Impressed with these ideas, with your paper in his hand, he might thus reason.

"In the first place we see that there must be in Britain a great diversity of kinds of corn called *oats*, and these must vary prodigiously in their quality, for as oat-meal is nothing else but the flour of oats, the quality of the oats must be proportioned to the quantity of meal they produce, and the price of the meal when compared with that of the oats in any one place, must ascertain this proportion with the utmost precision. Hence it is demonstrated that the oats in one part of the country, are at least six times as weighty as those in another part of it. This is one very important fact ascertained respecting the natural history of the grain called *oats*."

He might then proceed to observe, that the price of oat-meal itself, varied prodigiously in different parts of the country; for in one place he finds it is 94s. 1d. per boll, and in another place, by the above table, only 14s. 1d. This fact would appear no doubt very wonderful, and he could account for it in no other way than by supposing that where the price is so high, must be some desolate place, at a great distance from all others, to which the access was so difficult, as to make the price of transporting

grain to it enormous. There also, he would say, there must be mines, or some other very uncommon advantages which were sufficient to counterbalance this enormous advance in the price of a necessary article of life. Impressed with these ideas, he would set himself eagerly to discover the singular peculiarities affecting this wonderful place called *Rofs*: but to his great surprise, he finds neither mines, nor any thing else uncommon affecting this place. In the course of his inquiries he further discovers that *Rofs* is situated in Herefordshire, which in your table is called a *maritime* county. On looking at a map, he finds that Monmouth, placed on a navigable river, is not above 15 or 16 miles from *Rofs*, and that *Nairn*, where the price of oatmeal is only 14s. 11d. is itself a sea port town. "There must then, he would say to himself, be some insurmountable bar to the transporting of *oat-meal* by sea. Is it possible that this kind of grain, like some kinds of coals, is apt to take fire of itself, so as to render it impracticable to transport it by sea. Aye this must surely be the case; for nothing else could prevent the one place from supplying the other: but this is another very singular fact, respecting the natural history of the oat-plant."

He is anxious to get at the bottom of this mystery, and inquires at every one he meets, to be satisfied; but to his utter astonishment, he soon learns that so far is this from being the case, that no sort of grain admits of being transported at so little expence, or is so little liable to sustain damage as oat-meal; in short he is informed that the freight of it transported by

sea from Nairn to Monmouth would not exceed one shilling per boll.

A new train of reflections are suggested by this information. "What a prodigiously lucrative trade then must this be! A merchant can buy oat-meal at Nairn for 14s. 11d; add the freight, it will then be 15s. 11d. delivered within 15 miles of Ross, where it can be sold at 94s. 11d. Here is a free profit of more than 500 *per cent.* of the prime cost of the article: what an easy way of amassing a fortune!!! Yet I do not find, though the facts be brought under their view every week by this *authentic intelligencer*, that one of the numerous merchants of Bristol have ever had the *sense* to avail themselves of it.—What a set of dunces these must be! It is not then true, as it has been in general believed, that the British merchants are quick to perceive their own interest. They are quite the reverse. Here is proof positive of it; and this is as curious a fact, respecting the mental faculties of man, as the others were respecting the natural history of oats."

These speculations turn the man's attention to trade; and he thinks of the various ways in which he and his friends may make rapid fortunes, by availing themselves of the amazing stupidity of the English merchants. He once more has recourse to your tables, the source of such amazing discoveries, and taking a map in his hand, he again turns to Ross the Peru of all his hopes.

By the help of these tables he soon discovers another source of wealth in the same quarter. *Ross* he

rees, is only fifteen miles from Hereford, and the prices at these two places are, at

	Oats per quarter.	Oat-meal per boll.
	s. d.	s. d.
Rofs,	27 2	94 11
Hereford,	30 4	53 6

“ Now says he, by buying a boll of *oat-meal* at Hereford, and transporring it to Rofs, there will be a gain of 41 s. 5 d; and by buying a quarter of *oats* at Rofs and bringing it back in return to Hereford, there will be another gain of 3 s. 2 d. Now I find that one driver with two single horse carts might, at one draught, easily carry thirty bolls of *oat-meal*, the profit on which, at the above rate would be £ 62 : 2 : 6. and he could bring back in return 24 quarters of *oats*, the profits on which would be £ 3 : 16 : In all £. 65 : 18 : 6. for one trip. And as he could make six trips a week, this would be at the rate of £ 395 : 11. *per week*, or, £ 20,568 : 12 *per annum* for the labour of one man and two horses!!! What a wonderful source of wealth!”

Such, Sir, are a few of the innumerable inferences that might be drawn from an attentive study of your truly *unequaled* performance: but it would waste a summer's day to enumerate the whole; so I must content myself with only hinting at a few.

I shall now attempt to be somewhat more serious, if serious it is possible to be, without being severe, when pointing out such absurdities.

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It is obvious at first sight that these amazing discrepancies can be occasioned by nothing but ignorance and carelessness in converting the measures used in different parts of the country into the Winchester quarter of corn, and the Scotch boll of oat-meal, which the law requires to be done by men who are in no case remarkable for accuracy, and who in this instance have no means for directing them put within their reach, no inducement to be at a trouble that would puzzle the most accurate philosophical experimenter to perform; nor any precautions adopted to guard them from error. What can be expected but errors in such a case?

It would be a tiresome thing to follow out this system of *bocus pocus* through all its divarications, each of which seems to exceed the other in its immensity of incredibility; so that readers who have not your paper before them, will be apt to suspect that I myself must be guilty of some misrepresentation; for it will seem to exceed all degree of credibility to think that a legislature which deems itself *wise*, should, by a deliberate act, appoint an officer who by a few touches of his pen, is to regulate the whole trade in grain along the coasts of this maritime nation, and authorise him to publish weekly accounts which shall be deemed authentic and infallible, which can be demonstrated to be little nearer the truth than if he had imitated a famous judge of old, by taking a throw of the dice, at random to ascertain the prices.

To give an idea of the manner in which these tables are formed, let the reader be told that if one

or more towns in a county have set down the price of either oat-meal or oats, or any other kind of corn, let that price be demonstrably absurd and extravagant, no matter how much, it is registered without hesitation or inquiry; and if no more towns shall choose to give a return in that county, then that single extravagant rate stands for the average of that whole county: and if in another county *no prices at all be returned*, then the average for that county must be 0. Now if twenty or thirty of the most populous counties should choose to make no returns at all; and if, of the remaining parts of the kingdom, ten or twelve small places, situated in different districts, should choose, like Rofs, to make a return of three times the price that every person of common sense knows must have been the rate for sale, these exaggerated returns must, without hesitation, be admitted as the general average price of the several districts.

When all the averages *thus* obtained, are carried to account, a general average from those counties that have made any returns, is struck; and this general average is put down in the place of the *actual* prices of all the counties which have made no returns. This is the matter of fact. Let us now see how it operates.

In the four following counties there are nine market towns; and the average by the returns from these towns is as under:

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	oats per quarter.		oat-meal per boll.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.
Hereford, - - - -	29	- - - -	69	5
Brecon, - - - -	24	- - - -	50	
Montgomery, - - -	23	4	69	11
Radnor, - - - -	32	- - - -	82	
Average, - - - -	27	1	67	10

Now, as the average price of oats is here not greatly different from most other parts of the kingdom, we are to conclude that the error lies chiefly in respect to the meal; and it is here rated at not much less than three times more than the actual price it must have been. If Rofs had been the only town in the county, that had made a return, the average of Hereford would have been 94 s. 11 d. instead of 69 s. 5d; and of course the general average of these counties by this slight change of circumstances, would have been raised 6 s. 4 d; so that the price of oat-meal would then have stood at 74 s. 2 d; or if no other town but Rofs had chosen to make any return in England, which is far from being an impossible case, the average price of the whole of England, must have appeared to be 94 s. 11 d. instead of 28 s. or 29 s. which its real price could not have exceeded.

Let us now see what is to be the effect of this exaggerated charge made by a few obscure places, upon the trade of the nation at large. I find the prices in the following counties are stated as under:

	oats per quarter.		oat-meal per boll.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlesex, - -	25	5	0	0
Surrey, - - -	25	5	—	—
Hertford, - -	22	10	—	—
Huntingdon, -	21	2	—	—
Shropshire, -	30	0	—	—
Essex, - - -	23	6	—	—
Kent, - - -	23	3	—	—
Cambridge, -	28	2	—	—
Norfolk, - -	22	4	—	—
Lincoln, - -	19	2	—	—
Cumberland, -	24	6	—	—
Flint, - - -	—	—	—	—
Denbigh, - -	22	6	—	—
Anglesea, - -	16	0	—	—
Cardigan, - -	—	—	—	—
Pembroke, - -	—	—	—	—
Caermarthen, -	—	—	—	—
Glamorgan, -	27	8	—	—
Gloucester, -	26	9	—	—
Somerset, - -	21	8	—	—
Monmouth, - -	—	—	—	—
Average, - -	23	9.	—	—

These twenty counties, containing 87 market towns, among which are many of the largest in England, seeing it chances that not one of these has made a return of the price of oat-meal, must all be regulated by the four small counties above named, containing only nine small places; because it has pleased the people in these small places to make exaggerated returns.

The nine towns above-named too, because they chance to be placed in four different districts, count in the general average as four. Whereas the six fol-

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lowing very large towns, because they chance to be all in the county of Lancaster, count only as one.

The returns from these places stand thus :

	oats per quarter.	oat-meal per boll.
	s. d.	s. d.
Liverpool, - - - -	- - - -	20 11
Lancaster, - - - -	24 4	23 7
Wigan, - - - -	- - - -	23 0
Warrington, - - - -	23 3	19 10
Manchester, - - - -	- - - -	22 8
Bolton, - - - -	- - - -	20 1
Average, - - - -	24 0	21 9

What a terrible difference between 21 s. 9d. and 69 s. 5d. which last counts so much in the general average of the whole kingdom.

Had the average of 21 s. 9d. which is much nearer the truth than the former, been substituted in place of it, to the twenty counties above-named, it is evident that it must have affected the trade amazingly; for in the one case, the price in these counties would have been so low, as to have allowed of exportation from them; and consequently supplies could have been sent to other counties, where the price, though really bigger than in these counties, was nominally lower; and to which places, it was impossible to transport a single boll of meal.

Instead of an average of 21 s. 9d. as it would seem from the returns of the above nine populous towns should have been near the truth, the average price of England, obtained by the means above stated, turns out to be 40 s. 4d. which average must be substituted in place of the real price in all those districts from whence there has been no return; and

by this average the whole of the exportation, and importation of corn, must be regulated for three months*.

But if the most populous trading and wealthy districts shall choose to make no returns, which we have seen is actually the case; and if a few inland places of no consequence be permitted to make such returns as they please, though being more than three times the real prices, which we have seen is actually the case; or as much under it, which may be done with equal facility; these averages may be so managed by artful men, as to become the source of infinite injustice and oppression. But without any such iniquitous plan, they may be, and actually are in fact the cause of such mischievous effects in trade as must deeply hurt the real interests of the country.

No argument, it is generally admitted, like matter of fact is. I shall therefore beg leave to state a few facts respecting the internal trade in *pease*, during the present season.

By looking over your returns, I find that, of the twelve districts into which England and Wales is divided, *three* only had made any sort of returns of the price of that article; and that, of course, *nine* of these

* Though it appears by the rates above stated, that fewer errors take place respecting the price of oats, than of *oat-meal*, yet the range running from 16 to 30s: clearly proves, that *errors* even here there must be. But, as if to make bad worse, our legislators, who at first said that the trade in *oat-meal* should be regulated by the price of oats, have, by a new law enacted last session, declared that the trade in *oat-meal* shall in future be regulated by the price of *oat-meal* only; with-

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1793. *on corn laws.* 169

have the the general averge price put down in place
of the actual selling prices.

On looking back to examine particulars, I find
that the three districts which have actually made
returns, are the

1st. comprehending, *Essex, Kent, Sussex*, the
5th, comprehending *Durham and Northumberland*,
and

8th, comprehending *Flint, Denbygh, Angleson, Car-
narvon, Merioneth*.

On going still back farther to examine particulars
more narrowly, I find that from the three very popu-
lous counties, composing the first district, the follow-
ing places alone have made returns.

		price of pease per quarter		Average	
		s.	d.	s.	d.
1st. District,	{ Maidston, - - -	32	0	-	32 8
	{ Sussex, - - -	33	4		
5th District,	{ Alnwick, - - -	40	0	-	38 7½
	{ Berwick on Tweed, -	37	3		
8th District,	{ Bernard castle, - -	47	4	-	58 0
	{ Carnarvon, - - -	56	0		
	{ Pwllheli, - - -	60	0		
	{ Doncaster *, - - -	51	8		

out having bestowed a thought on correcting the enormous errors in
the returns for that article, or providing any means for enforcing re-
turns. The consequences of this must soon be felt.

* This last, however, does not come into the general average
from a peculiarity in the act we need not stop to explain. It is here
set down that the reader may have at once in his view the actual state
of the returns.

Thus, it appears, that out of one hundred and fifty market towns, which compose the whole of the twelve districts into which England and Wales have been divided by this law, only eight inconsiderable places have made any returns at all, of the selling price of pease; and the only two places which can be considered as in a trading district that have made a return, Maidston and Sussex, give an average of 32 s. 8d; while *Pwllbeli*, which I suppose many of my readers now hear of for the first time, gives a price of no less than 60 s. per quarter. This however, goes to make up the general average price that must be substituted instead of the *real* price in all those *nine* districts which have made no returns; and I must here entreat your attention while I develop some of the consequences of this very curious mode of procedure*.

It is well known to every corn merchant on the east coast of Scotland, that the actual selling price of pease was lower in Norfolk during the whole season since reaping the crop 1792, than at Leith, or any where else along the north coast of Scotland, and that pease could have been bought at Lynn and sold here with profit; yet, as no returns had been made of the price of pease from Norfolk and the other counties where pease are reared for sale in quantities, and as some small inland places, where per-

* As another instance of the amazing negligence with which this law is enforced,—Though every dealer in grain is required to give an account *upon oath*, under severe penalties, of the whole quantity of corn he has bought or sold, it appears by the *return* now before me, that only 40 quarters of pease had been sold in the whole of England, and registered in this return.

haps not one quarter is sold for ten thousand that are sold at Lynn, had made returns at very high rates, the general average price was substituted for the real prices there; in consequence of which it appeared from *your tables*, that the price was so much higher in Norfolk than here, as, by the law as it stands, infers a forfeiture of ship and cargo when attempted to be transported hither. In consequence of this situation of affairs, it is a notorious fact, that the owners of the whole ships in Dundee, having occasion for some pease to victual their vessels, and finding these could be had cheaper from Lynn than at home, inadvertently ordered down a cargo of pease for that purpose. The vessel was accordingly seized; and though the commissioners, from a sense of the high injustice of the case, did mitigate the law, and did not actually condemn the vessel, yet the owners, as a great favour done them, were happy to be allowed to send back the cargo, and let their ships go without any; for pease of last crop, the produce of this country, could not be got in quantities for this purpose at *any price*.*

It is also a notorious fact, that during the whole of last season, not a single pot pea, could be bought in Leith or Edinburgh, that was not smuggled into the

* It is to be observed that white pease fit for being boiled, unsplit, are the pease chiefly reared in Norfolk; and grey pease, employed chiefly as a feeding for horses, are the only kinds reared in Scotland. No provision has been made by the law for allowing for the difference of price that ought and must always take place between them. This is one of the innumerable oversights in the law which subjects the country to endless perplexity.

harbour at the evident risk of forfeiture of every ship in which they were brought.

I state facts that are known, and can be proved by thousands. I do it to you, sir, that you may, if you please to represent the absurdities that you are obliged to register every week, to those who have it in their power to correct them;—and they loudly call for an immediate correction, as a national disgrace. But I state them also to the public, that in case you, sir, or those above you, should not think proper to move in this business, some other persons who have the welfare of the country at heart, but who have not thought of adverting to these things, may take a proper opportunity of bringing it forward for redress.

As to the alterations that were made during the last session of parliament, I have shown you they were in some respects much for the worse. These alterations were still worse in other respects, which my limits in this place prevent me from mentioning. The whole of this corn law must indeed be admitted to be one of the most complete absurdities in legislation that ever was uttered since the creation, by a deliberative assembly of sensible men, who were not under the influence of passion at the time; and by no possible modification can ever be carried into practice, so as nearly to effect the purposes they intended by it. Indeed they intended to do what no legislature in any circumstances that can occur ever will be able to perform, and therefore it ought not to have been attempted. *When some individuals shall have made fortunes, at the expence of the public, sufficient to satisfy themselves, it may then perhaps be discovered*

that the whole system MUST BE ABANDONED as impracticable. In the mean time such persons as myself may speak on.

As this letter is intended for the public information as well as your own, I hope you will pardon me for sending you a printed copy, I remain, sir, your very humble servant.

Bee office, Edinr. JAS. ANDERSON.
12th. Nov. 1793.

ON THE DELAYS INCIDENT TO THE COURT
OF SESSION.

Continued from p. 123.

To the Lord President of the Court of Seflion.

LETTER IX.

MY LORD,

ON the intricate subject of my last, an action of *count and reckoning*, I think your Lordship will approve of the proposal to ascertain, as nearly as possible, the *putative* balance, if I may so term it, due to the pursuer, and to have decret given for the amount of it; as the defender will be kept safe, by reserving, to him his counter action: and when he brings such an action, his very next step must be to exhibit a full and fair state of accounts, and produce the proper vouchers along with it. Throughout the whole of the process, too, the task of clearing up, or establishing facts, will fall to the share of him who is best acquainted with them.

Minutes of debate are almost uniformly attended with great and unnecessary delay; and they swell the cause, by spinning out the argument, to an enormous length, though seemingly calculated for brevity and dispatch. I am satisfied there would be no loss, in the entire want of such minutes; but as it might be difficult to exclude them, they may be subjected to the rules proposed in the case of a condescence, answers, replies, and duplies: each of them to be lodged within a fortnight, otherwise not to be received. No production to be made after the minute of answer; and the minute of duply to be the last of them. The process to go to *avisandum*, with such part or parts of them as are duly lodged, and without any, if the first of them be not so lodged.

In place of minutes, it were better the Lord Ordinary appointed mutual *memorials*, and allowed the parties, to give in *additional* memorials. To these papers the rules just mentioned would apply with equal ease and conveniency; and they might also be applied to mutual *informations*.

The provisions of the acts of sederunt, June 29: 1738, and June 5. and July 13. 1739, concerning *reports* upon mutual informations, are found to be inadequate to the purpose they were intended for; nay, to be often an obstruction in the way of the pushing party, as prescribing a particular mode of procedure, which can seldom be easily followed.

It would be a simple regulation to provide that unless the informations be lodged within a fortnight of the date of the order to prepare them, they shall not be received; and, that the process shall go to the

and the same connected strain of argument, that prevails in a reclaiming petition, or an answer.

A hearing in presence should be confined to a doubtful point of law, on which it is much better calculated to throw light, than to reconcile jarring facts, and defeat the effect of subtile and ingenious argument. Indeed, in other respects, a hearing in presence is not so well suited to the nature of a bench, so numerous as the court of Session, because *the many* of every description are more easily misled than *the few*, and are also sooner blinded in *speech* than *writing*, though this last were not to be studied by each of them at home in his closet, as happens in the case of the written pleadings in this court.

I am, &c.

LENTULUS.

ALLADIN THE PERSIAN, AN EASTERN TALE.

Continued from p. 129.

CHAPTER IV.

Conduct of the two cousins.

SALEM assiduously attended the circles of the best company, respected all their decisions, and shared all their different passions; he was the first at the levée and conchée of the prince; and the continual habitude of seeing him, produced a sort of appearance of being a favourite. The men were eager to speak well of him: he overshadowed no one, and his cold and tranquil soul, seemed to offer to all an universal benevolence. He was not warm for any one

party, but followed the stream of favour, of fashion, with design, because he had no marked character, or any fixed opinion of his own. Alladin, more independent, freed himself from the shackles of those societies which took the lead; he sought for the conversation of men of understanding and wit, and paid his court to the sovereign, without any servile baseness. He was thought to be presumptuous and decisive, because he judged for himself; indiscreet, because being frank and open, he felt the necessity of opposing others and speaking the truth: he appeared trifling and superficial, because he was precisely profound; and reducing to one simple and clear principle, the tedious reasonings of others, he terminated in a few words a heavy dissertation. His father, who loved him tenderly, and who had founded on him the hopes of making his family more illustrious, had given up to him a large portion of his estate, that he might appear in the world with eclat. An uncle who had taken an affection to him, left him, a short time afterwards, an immense inheritance, consisting of ready money, diamonds, and other precious stones, and many caravanceras which produced a considerable revenue. Alladin purchased a magnificent palace, and furnished it most superbly; in his stables were 300 horses, many of them of the highest blood, and his furniture for them was of velvet, or of satin embroidered with pearls, their mangers were of marble, and their racks of sandal wood: he had besides twenty elephants; and when in days of ceremony Alladin mounted one of them, he was seated in a tower made of the most rare wood finely sculptured:

a peacock of solid gold and of an immense size was on the top, and with expanded wings, incrustated over with precious stones, served him as a canopy, and to shade him from the rays of the sun. In his falconry were the scarcest birds from mount Caucasus, whose hoods were embroidered; and the gloves which Alladin and his friends made use of, were ornamented with diamonds. He had packs of lions, panthers, and tygers, wonderfully taught to hunt; in short his magnificence was equal to his riches. His table was delicately and profusely served, and all the youth of the court were alternately invited to it. Over the door of the most magnificent saloon in his palace were these words of the poet Saady, written in characters of gold,

“DEATH OR A FRIEND.”

As he was not married, his haram was filled with the most beautiful women of Asia, who felt none of the rigours of slavery. Alladin generally detained some of his companions to pass the evenings; and what was without example, he opened his haram to them. In the midst of a garden perfumed with orange trees, and every flower or fruit that could flatter the smell or taste, were seen an hundred damsels with light flowing robes. Each had her name written on a small plate of gold and attached to her necklacc. On one was, *Rose of the garden of Beauty*, on others, *Neck of Milk*, *Breast of Alabaster*, *Charm of Hearts*, *Emerald of Hope*, *Houris of the Prophet*, &c. &c.* They formed among themselves dances, and some of them, dress-

* The reader will not forget that the scene is in Persia, and the religion of the country Mahomedanism, whose doctrines in regard to women are very different from those of christian purity.

ed as Jerglans, imitated the various passions of love, acted different scenes of jealousy, tenderness, and disgust. Alladin permitted his friends to choose from among them, a small number only being excepted for the master. It was not from a depravity of taste or of mind, that caused him to allow such universal liberties to his friends: no, it was generosity, a dislike to exclusive enjoyments; he could possess nothing but in common, and when any of his friends shewed an attachment to one of his women, Alladin sent her to him magnificently dressed, and on her entrance, she said, behold your slave, that Alladin presents to you. However incredible it may appear, yet it is not less true, than that the utmost decency reigned in all these parties; the shady palm, and orange trees mixed with myrtles, which formed large groves, in conjunction with the veil of night, covered the mysteries of love. Alladin and his friends supped in a verdant saloon, lighted with an infinite number of candles exhaling odours of amber and roses. The most exquisite wines were served out of cups ornamented with diamonds; and concerts of voices and of instruments penetrated with joy and voluptuousness, hearts already open to every pleasure.

CHAPTER V.

The Calender.

The angel of death closed the eyes of the father of Alladin. This loss tore his heart to pieces, for his mind was fully sensible of the extent of it, and plunged him into the deepest melancholy. He renounced every pleasure; study alone seemed to offer him that consolation which he thought he might

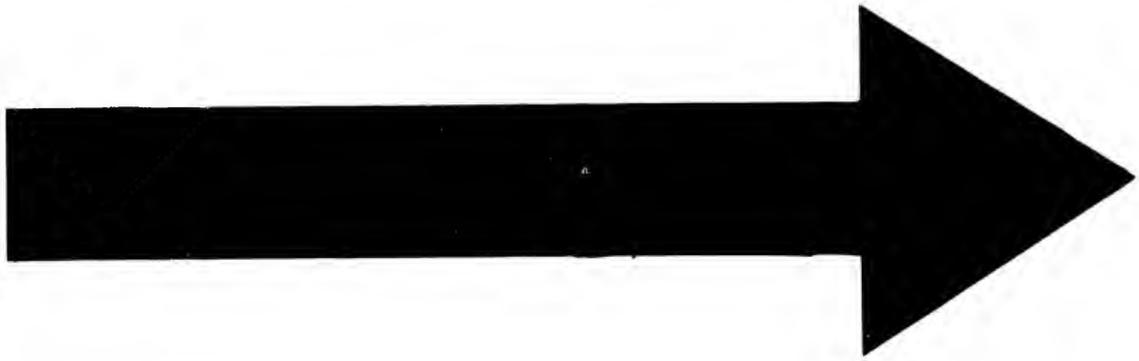
indulge in: he sought after those who had a reputation for science; but above all, he conversed more willingly with all strangers, and was eager in his inquiries from them of their manners, constitutions, commerce, and the particular arts which they cultivated. An old Calender who had travelled a great deal, above all attracted his notice. He was a man that had been well tried by fortune; who had been in high favours, and disgrace; who had lived in opulence and misery; and who had finished by making himself a monk, in order to enjoy an independant life, purchased by many labours. His drefs made him to be respected; and a few secrets which he possessed in physic, procured him considerable sums, whenever he wanted money; but he seldom employed this resource, in order not to be importuned;— he lived thus free from family and restraint.

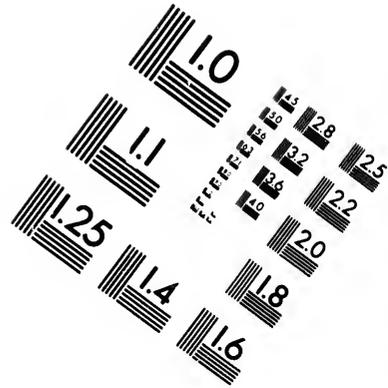
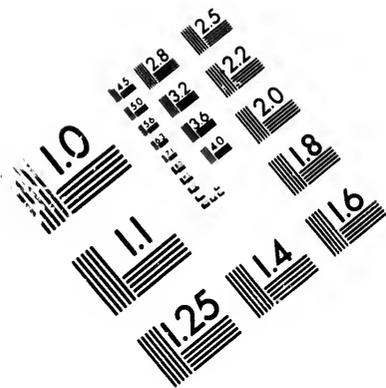
The Calender had seen a great deal, and observed much; he knew no absolute truth; found nothing great, nothing mean, nothing little: contemplating with the same eyes an intrigue of a court, with that of an anti-chamber, the world was for him a theatre, where he was happy in being only a great spectator, and seated on one of the lowest benches. He never reproached any one with what he ought to have done; he took men and things just as they were. Nothing is more foolish, and at the same time nothing more common, said the Calender, than to say to a man who has broken his leg; why did you attempt to leap that ditch? Why did not you take another road? The fact is, the leg is broken,

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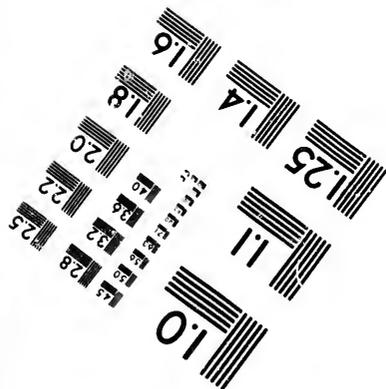
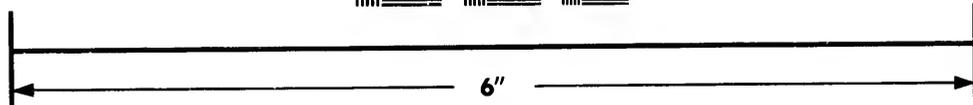
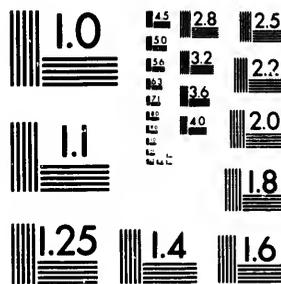
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and it must be cured, and not reasoned upon. He never gave advice, but sometimes opinions, and the greater part of mankind appeared to him like to sleep walkers upon a narrow path; you must not awake them said he, or they will fall down. He never reasoned against the passions, but proved often that they did not exist.

The uncommon talents of Alladin had not escaped the penetration of such a man, and had warmed him with the tenderest affection. He was happy in witnessing his excellent disposition expand itself, and partook of his success, which he sometimes paved the way to, by indirect hints. It was to be perceived that nothing was new to the Calender; and by his ease and nobleness of manner, he shewed that he had lived in the first company. He passed the greater part of the day with Alladin, who returned his affection by the warmest gratitude, and respected him as a father. Alladin had frequently requested to be more particularly informed about him, and the Calender had promised him the recital of his adventures, but he delayed it in order to be more assured of the friendship and discretion of his young friend

To be continued.

ANECDOTE.

THE Marechal de Vivonne wrote to Louis the fourteenth from Mefsina, and finished his letter with these words, "We have need here of ten thousand men, to carry on the affairs." He gave it to the commissary Du Terron to seal; who added after the ten thousand men, "and a General."

POETRY.

THE COTTER'S SATURDAY NIGHT, BY R. BURNS.

Inscribed to R. A****. esq.

*Let not ambition mock their useful toil,
Their homely joys, and destiny obscure;
Nor grandeur bear, with a disdainful smile,
The short and simple annals of the poor.*

GRAY.

I.

My lov'd, my honour'd, much respected friend!
No mercenary ba:d his homage pays;
With honest pride, I scorn each selfish end,
My dearest meed, a friend's esteem and praise:
To you I sing, in simple Scottish lays,
The lowly train in life's sequester'd scene,
The native feelings strong, the guileless ways,
What A****, in a cottage would have been;
Ah! tho' his worth unknown, far happier there, I ween!

II.

November chill blows loud wi' angry sougl;
The short'ning winter day is near a close;
The miry beasts retreating frae the plough;
The black'ning trains o' craws to their repose:
The toil-worn catter frae his labour goes,
This night his weekly toil is at an end,
Collects his spades, his mattocks, and his hoes,
Hoping the *morn* in ease and rest to spend,
And weary, o'er the moor, his course does hameward bend.

III.

At length his lonely cot appears in view,
Beneath the shelter of an aged tree;
Th' expectant *wee-things*, toddlin, stacher through
To meet their dad, wi' flighterin noise and glee.
His wee-bitingle blinkin bonnie,
His clean hearth stane, his thrifty *wife's* smile,
The lisping infant, prattling o' his knee,
Does a' his weary kinaug and care beguile,
And makes him quite forget his labour and his toil.

IV.

Belyve, the elder bairns come drappin' in,
At service out among the farmers roun';
Some ca' the plough, some herd, some tentie rin
A cannie errand to a neebor town.
Their eldest hope, their *Jenny*, woman grown,
In youtfu' bloom, love sparkling in her-e'e,
Comes hame, perhaps, to shew a braw new gown,
Or deposit her sair-won penny-fee,
To help her parents dear, if they in hardship be.

With joy unfeign'd, brothers and sisters meet,
 And each for other's weelfare kindly spiers :
 The social hours, swift-wing'd, unnotic'd fleet ;
 Each tells the wocos that he sees or hears ;
 The parents, partial, eye their hopeful years ;
 Anticipation forward points the view ;
 The *mother*, wi' her needle and her sheers,
 Gars auld claes look amais as weel's the new ;
 The father mixes a' wi' admonition due.

VI.

Their master- and their mistress's command,
 The youngkers a' are warn'd to obey ;
 And mind their labours wi' an eydent hand,
 And ne'er, tho' out o' sight, to jank or play ;
 And O ! be sure to fear, the Lord alway !
 And mind your duty, duly, morn and night !
 Lest in temptation's path ye gang astray,
 Implore his council and assisting might :
 They never sought in vain that sought the Lord aright.

VII.

But hark ! a rap comes gently to the door,
Jenny, who kens the meaning o' the same,
 Tells how a neebor lad came o'er the moor,
 To do some errands, and convoy her hame.
 The wily mother sees the conscious flame
 Sparkle in *Jenny's* e's, and flush her cheek,
 With heart-struck, anxious care, inquires his name,
 While *Jenny* haffins is afraid to speak ;
 Weel pleas'd the mother hears, it's aae wild, worthless rake.

VIII.

With kindly welcome, *Jenny* brings him hen ;
 A strappan youth ; he takes the mother's eye ;
 Blythe *Jenny* sees the visit's no ill ta'en ;
 The father cracks o' horses, pleughs, and kye.
 The youngster's artlefs heart o'erflows wi' joy,
 But hlate an' laithfu' scarce can weel behave ;
 The mother, wi' a woman's wiles, can spy
 What makes the youth sae bashfu' and sae grave ;
 Weel pleas'd to think her bairn's respected like the lave.

IX.

O happy love ! where love like this is found !
 O heart felt raptures ! blifs beyond compare !
 I've paced much this weary, mortal round,
 And sage experience bids me this declare—
 If Heaven a draught of Heavenly pleasure spate,
 One cordial in this melancholy vale,
 'Tis when a youthful, loving, modest pair,
 In other's arms breath out the tender tale,
 Beneath the milk-white thorn that scents the evening gale.

x.

Is there, in human form that bears a heart—
 A wretch! a villain! lost to love and truth!
 That can, with studied, sly, ensnaring art,
 Betray sweet *Jenny's* unsuspecting youth?
 Curse on his perjur'd arts! dissembling smooth!
 Are honour, virtue, conscience, all exil'd?
 It's there no pity, no relenting ruth,
 Points to the parents fondling o'er their child:
 Then paints the ruin'd maid, and their distraction wild!

xi.

But now the supper crowns their simple board,
 The wholesome porridge, chief of Scotia's food:
 The soupe their only hawkie does afford,
 That yont the hallow snugly chows her cood:
 The dame brings forth, in complimental mood,
 To grace the lad, her weel-hin'd kebbuck, fell,
 And aft he's prest, and aft e ca's it gude;
 The ryal wife, garulous, will tell,
 How t'was a towmond auld sin' lint was i' the bell,

xii.

The cheerfu' supper done, wi' serious face,
 They, round the ingle, form a circle wide;
 The sire turns o'er, with patriarchal grace,
 The big *ba-bible*, ance his father's pride:
 His bonnet rev'rently is laid aside,
 His lyart haffets wearing thin and bare;
 Those strains that once did sweet in Zion glide,
 He wales a portion with judicious care;
 'And let us worship God!' he says with solemn air,

xiii.

They chant their artless notes in simple guise;
 They tune their hearts, by far the noblest aim:
 Perhaps *Dundee's* wild-warbling measures rise,
 Or plaintif *martyrs*, worthy of the name;
 Or noble *Edgin* beets the Heaven-ward flame,
 The sweetest far of Scotia's holy lays:
 Compar'd with these, Italian trills are tame;
 The tickl'd ears no heart-felt raptures raise;
 Nae unison hae they with our *Creator's* praise.

xiv.

The priest-like father reads the sacred page,
 How *Abram* was the friend of God on high;
 Or, *Moses* bade eternal warfare wage,
 With *Analek's* ungracious progeny;
 Or how the *royal David* did groaning lye,
 Beneath the stroke of Heaven's avenging ire;
 Or *Job's* pathetic plaint, and wailing cry;
 Or rapt *Isaiah's* wild, seraphic ure;
 Or other holy seers that tune the sacred lyre,

XV.

Perhaps the *Christian volume* is the theme,
 How guiltless blood for guilty man was shed;
 How *He*, who sate in Heaven the second name,
 Had not on earth whereon to lay his head:
 How his first followers and servan's sped;
 The precepts sage they wrote, to many a land:
 How *He*, who lone in *Patmos* banished,
 Saw in the sun a mighty angel stand,
 And heard great *Bab'lon's* doom pronounc'd by Heav'n's com-

(mand.

XVI.

Then kneeling down to HEAV'N'S ETERNAL KING,
 The *Saint*, the *Father*, and the *Husband* prays:
 Hope 'springs, exulting on triumphant wing *;
 That thus they all shall meet in future days:
 There ever bask in uncreated rays,
 No more to sigh or shed the bitter tear,
 Together hymning their *Creator's* praise,
 In such society, yet still more dear;
 While circling time moves round in an eternal sphere.

XVII.

Compar'd with this, how poor religion's pride,
 In all the pomp of method, and of art,
 When men display to congregations wide
 Devotion's ev'ry grace, except the *heart*!
 The *power*, incens'd, the pageant will desert,
 The pompous strain, the sacerdotal stole;
 But haply in some *cottage* far a-part,
 May hear, well pleas'd, the language of the soul;
 And in his *Book of Life*, the inmates poor enroll.

XVIII.

Then homeward all take off their sev'ral way;
 The youngling cottagers retire to rest:
 The parent-pair their *secret homage* pay,
 And proffer up to Heaven the warm request,
 That *He* who stills the raven's clam'rous nest,
 And decks the lily fair in flow'ry pride,
 Would, in the way his wisdom sees the best,
 For them and for their little ones provide;
 But chiefly, in their hearts with grace divine preside.

XIX.

From scents like these old *Scotia's* grandeur springs,
 That makes her lov'd at home, rever'd abroad:
 Princes and lords are but the breath of kings,
 'An honest man's the noble work of God.'
 And *certes*, in fair virtue's heavenly road,
 The *cottage* leaves the *palace* far behind:
 What is a lordling's pomp? a cumbrous load,

* Pope's Windsor Forest.

Disguising oft the wretch of human kind,
Studied in arts of Hell, in wickedness refin'd!

xx.

O! *Scotia*! my dear, my native soil!
For whom my warmest wish to Heaven is sent!
Long may thy hardy sons of rustic toil,
Be blest with health, and peace, and sweet content!
And, O! may Heaven their simple lives prevent
From luxury's contagion, weak and vile!
Then, however crowns and coronets be rent,
A virtuous populous may rise the while,
And stand a wall of fire around their much lov'd isle.

xxi.

O *Thou*! who pour'd the patriotic tide,
That stream'd thro' great, unhappy *Wallace*' heart;
Who dar'd to, nobly, stem tyrannic pride,
Or nobly die, the second glorious part:
(The patriot's *God* peculiarly thou art,
His friend, inspirer, guardian, and reward!)
O never, never *Scotia*'s realm desert,
But still the patriot and the patriot bard,
In bright succession raise, her ornament and guard!

As I have appropriated a considerable portion of this and the preceding number to the purpose of giving foreigners some idea of the internal state of this country, in as far as respects the lower ranks of the people, I shall, I hope, be pardoned for transgressing a little farther on the patience of other readers, by inserting, with the same view, the following address, which was transmitted to me some time ago. It gives a just representation of the means employed by the clergy in Scotland, for filling the minds of their people with pious and benevolent impressions; and may be accounted a very good specimen of that kind of pulpit oratory that is the most common, and the most generally approved in this country.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

BEING in a country kirk last Sunday, where the clergyman was more studious of promoting the real interest of his hearers, than of amusing them with flourishes of rhetoric, I

was much pleased with his plainness and simplicity. As an address of that sort loses less than a fine oration, in being repeated again, I shall jot down what I can recollect; and if you think it worth printing, you can give it a place for the benefit of those that had not an opportunity of hearing it. It was delivered after the ordinary service of the day, nearly as follows :

MY DEAR FRIENDS,

I HOPE you are fully sensible of it, and will readily join me in acknowledging, that we lie under infinite obligations to the bounteous Giver of all good. The gifts of his bounty, far beyond number, call for our most grateful acknowledgements. It were in vain should I attempt to reckon them up; they are more than can be numbered: yet suffer me to remind you of a few; which I hope you know how to value. Our lives are prolonged in comfortable circumstances: while war and bloodshed rage abroad, we enjoy liberty, sacred and civil, at home. We worship the God of our fathers, as we have done this day, according to the dictates of our conscience, and the rules of his word: we lie down in peace, and arise in safety, without any to make us afraid. These are valuable blessings, and demand our most grateful acknowledgements; but what I wished more particularly to mention, at this time, was the plentiful and good harvest which you have now seen concluded. I am persuaded, you have been before hand with me, to think of a day of thanksgiving to Him, who, according to his gracious promise, sends us the appointed weeks of the harvest, and hath abundantly crowned this year with his goodness. Heartfelt gratitude naturally leads to outward expressions of it: but should we be forward to appoint a day of public thanksgiving, we might find ourselves too much so, if afterwards we be called to join with other

Christian congregations, by public authority. In this dilemma, I have thought of an expedient, in which I hope you will readily join: You well know that the prophets of old upbraided the Jews with their fasts and their festivals, declaring that the Lord was displeased with them; that they were an abomination in his sight; that he chose much rather the work of justice, of mercy, and of benevolence. What I would recommend, therefore, is that in your hearts you cherish sentiments of the most lively gratitude; that instead of interrupting your ordinary and necessary occupations, you continue them; but that you bestow the gain of *one day's labour*, and those among you who are not obliged to work, may in like manner bestow one day's *income*, suppose that of Thursday next, upon the virtuous and indigent poor. "Blessed is he that considers the poor man's condition." Consider the situation of such; how you can most effectually serve their interest and promote their happiness. Many a family struggles hard with want, without uttering a complaint. Prevent their necessity. Cause the widow's heart to sing for joy, and gain the blessing of the orphan. Provide for their shelter, and their comfort against the inclemency of winter. Consider how you can employ them, to make them useful to themselves and to you. Much good may be done without even seeming to confer a favour. He that seeth in secret will reward openly such as approve themselves to him in well-doing. God hath made the rich, and those in easy circumstances, the stewards of his bounty: he hath entrusted his property in your hands and blessed you with the opportunity and the pleasure of doing good. Your own prudence will direct you to the proper objects of your benevolence and charity.

I would not wish to be tedious:—Permit me to speak a word or two to the labouring poor, and I have done.

Dec. 4.

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address by a clergyman.

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—You, my friends, have not less cause of gratitude than the more opulent. A present God fills your hearts with food and with gladness. Had it been otherwise, you had felt first, and most severely, the effects of scarcity. Nor have you cause to repine at your lot. It is the appointment of the infinite Wisdom and Goodness, of our Heavenly Father, who knows what is best for each of his children. He can, and will, in due time, reward their patience, integrity, resignation, and other virtues. Besides, even at present, the meanest labourer in Britain possesses blessings and sources of enjoyment more valuable than fall to the lot of princes in lands not very remote. May these advantages be continued, and may we prize and improve them, expressing our grateful sense of his goodness, by obeying the laws of our Maker, and promoting the happiness of society, by a cheerful performance of every relative duty ; and may we thus obtain his favour, whose blessing maketh rich in time, and happy through eternity ! Amen !

Thus ends the exhortation of the pious pastor. I wish I could give you such an account as you would like of its effects. From what I could observe of the audience, in their looks of approbation, silence, and fixed attention, I was led to entertain great hopes, that deeds of charity, and labours of love would employ the pen of the recording angel in the mansions of bliss : but futurity is known to God alone : we must wait the event before it can be disclosed ; and even then it may be hid from our view.

October 23. 1793.

ICAM.

HINTS ON DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

FROM AN OLD TRADESMAN TO A YOUNG ONE.

LETTER IV.

Continued from p. 73.

In my former pages I considered the improper ideas very often—too often entertained, respecting the value of money; and the folly and misery of wasting that overplus of income, which ought to be employed in extending your business, in idle schemes of household extravagance. This is an error so common, and I have so many instances of it now before my eyes, that I cannot help adding a few remarks to what I have formerly advanced.

It cannot, I think, escape the observation of any reflecting man, that a false spirit of genteel manners prevails in the present day; a wish to be thought fine, generous, hearty fellows—to give frequent entertainments—to push about the bottle, and perhaps to sing a good song, and “Keep it up.” These were not the characteristics of tradesmen in former times; when a tradesman was represented on the stage, it was a snug, close, rich, and parsimonious fellow, who had amassed much money, and would not part with one shilling without good security; a vulgar low bred fellow, without one idea in his head but of acquiring money.

This, gentlemen, was the general character of Cits, as they were called; but it is not an amiable nor a just character. The stage writers are generally very ignorant of real life, and borrow of one another a few traits which they enlarge and render monstrous by the grossest amplification. The truth is, that the character of a trader is, and always has been, that of frugality and riches, and the fashionable part of the world know no better way to

render them odious then by adding avarice for frugality.

The young began soon to dislike seeing themselves, represented on the stage in a point of view unfavourable; and unfortunately went into the contrary extreme, dressing, visiting, treating, and doing every thing according to fashion.

Hence that absurd and extravagant spirit, which we find among so many young traders, who become fashionable before they have acquired credit at their banker's, and put on the appearance of wealth, before they have acquired as much as is necessary to carry on a very little business.

A young tradesman ought to consider himself as surrounded by numerous temptations; and that it is his business as much to resist and combat these, as to apply to the immediate duties of his profession. I know it is commonly said, "every one has friends, and one must see one's friends now and then." It is true, every one has his friends; but it is not necessary that every common acquaintance should be ranked in that number. Frequent dinners and entertainments to common acquaintances serve no good purpose that I know of; they increase the business of no shop; and when adversity comes, it will be found that they have made no real friends. A man, who has just entered the fatal *WHEREAS* page of the gazette, may be called a "Good, hearty, generous, fine fellow;" but of what use will this character be when it is known he did not otherwise deserve it than by good dinners, good wine, and a hearty welcome to every one who flattered him, and got into his acquaintance.

All the morality in the world cannot suggest a better maxim to young tradesmen, than to avoid debt by every honest means. "Engage in no business which you cannot

carry on yourselves, and you will thereby avoid incurring debts which you cannot pay. If a business falls in your way which you are not able to carry on yourself, before you seek the assistance of friends, be sure it is a business which will enable you to fulfil your engagements with them. If you neglect this advice, you may go on borrowing and borrowing, paying with one hand what you borrow with the other; but you are only, by these desperate means, increasing that horrid catalogue which will soon be presented to you, when you stand in the most mortifying situation a human creature ever stood in, before the commissioners of bankruptcy. For one that will be found among your friends to pity, you may be very happy, if you do not find ten who will not scruple to call you a swindler.

What, indeed, can we think of a man who borrows of those who have generously given him their confidence: what crime can be mentioned more base in the individual, and more injurious to society, than to abuse that confidence which, thank God, still subsists between man and man, in spite of all the wickedness with which the world abounds.

To be continued.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

The obliging letter of *Philanthropos* is received. It has been, and ever will be, the study of the Editor, to make such selections as best promise to suit the various tastes of his readers in different branches of useful research. On this plan it is impossible that every paper should prove agreeable to all classes of readers.

* * * * * Further acknowledgments deferred on account of the Editor's indisposition.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 11. 1793.

ON THE BEST METHOD OF HEATING DWELLING
HOUSES.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

As the great end of national improvement undoubtedly is to enable every individual to live comfortably; so every attempt to remove an inconveniency is not only allowable, but must be praise worthy. I do not know if I am excusable in saying, that our present system does not seem to have this end in view, as its most immediate object. The desire of obtaining wealth, and acquiring over other nations, a superiority in the political balance, seems more attended to in our exertions, than the purpose of rendering the condition of the individual less inconvenient. This desirable purpose is undoubtedly the ultimate effect of the extension of commerce and agriculture; but I think it would be sooner obtained, if the societies that are formed for national purposes were to join to their exertions in favour of arts and

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agriculture, endeavours to point out to the community the means by which we could most readily and effectually derive advantage from our advanced state in society, particularly with respect to the regulation of domestic economy; and as one branch of this art, to suggest means of improvement in rural and city architecture.

One of the greatest advantages that mankind reap^s from uniting in society, is the secure and steady supply of provisions; and next to that is the assurance he enjoys of being always protected from the inclemencies of the weather. In regard to the first of these objects we are most amply provided for; and there is little danger that in this country famine should ever extend to such a degree as to occasion a very extensive distress.

In regard to the second object, we are not so well accommodated. Our houses are universally uncomfortable. This may seem an impudent assertion; but it is true: and it is only owing to our unacquaintance with a better mode of heating them: to the power of prejudice in the old, and an affected hardness against cold in the young, that we are to impute our inattention to this inconveniency; and our consequent remissness in removing it. To prove the truth of my remark, it is only necessary that one should attend to his own sensations in cold weather, and observe the almost universal practice of all. A candid person will easily perceive, and be ready to confess, that not only he, but every one else, endeavours in winter to get near the fire; and that even then, having warmed his face, he finds himself disposed to turn to the grate; when having in this posi-

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tion experienced the soothing effects of the fire, tries by a rotatory motion, to give every part its share of the friendly warmth, till at length overpowered by the heat, he is obliged to seek, in a distant part of the room, an opportunity of cooling his over-heated body.

The observation of such conduct proves two facts: that artificial heat is necessary in winter, and that according to the present mode of exciting it, it cannot be obtained in the due degree; nay, as a further proof of the acknowledged necessity of artificial heat, and of the imperfect mode in which our houses are supplied with it, we may remark that the place of honour is by the fire side; and politeness obliges us, though sometimes reluctantly, to yield the warm corner to those whom age or station have made respectable.

Any one considering this matter, and convinced of its reality by the undeniable proofs that his own sensations afford him, will be surprised that a nation justly esteemed, in what regards the art of living, as well as in other respects, the first in the world, should, towards the end of the eighteenth century, be still unacquainted with a mode of rendering their houses completely comfortable; while nations which they reckon, and which are indeed, comparatively barbarians, have, from time immemorial known the art of effectually defending their bodies from the rigour of the seasons, both without and within doors.

You, sir, from experience, well know how difficult it is to eradicate errors that have been sanctioned by the use of ages; and that such errors are more

difficultly removed when the practice of them seems consonant to reason, and when ill understood experience seems to support them. This is eminently the case in regard to the subject of this letter. Though reason and experience convince us of the necessity and usefulness of artificial heat; yet the same reason and experience are said to prove that cold invigorates the body; and the more freely it is applied, the more capable is the body rendered to resist its effects. But as this statement of the matter, if taken without limitation, is evidently false; they who hold this doctrine are obliged to have recourse to an exception, and allow that this takes place only to a certain degree: but as the degree has not yet been ascertained, until this shall be done, we must reprobate a practice founded on the general theory, viz. the custom of starving people from their infancy, and the supposed advantage derived to health by sleeping in cold rooms, not only without fires, but with open windows in cold weather. In enabling us to understand the relation between our bodies and the objects that are applied to them, the observation of a few clear principles will very much assist.

In examining the various forms of matter, we find that some bodies may be brought in contact without a change being produced in either; and that others have the effect of destroying the respective forms of each, and thereby producing a third body dissimilar to its two constituents. It is evident the human body is subjected to the same laws: That there are substances which when applied, decompose that form of mixt, which, by rendering it fit to be

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animated, constitutes its existence; and that there are others which are capable of being so changed by its organs as to be made subservient to its support. But instead of giving us any intuitive knowledge of what is wholesome or what is hurtful to our bodies, nature has so adapted our organs and the substances fit for nourishment, that on coming in contact, they communicate an agreeable sensation to the soul. This is the only test we are provided with in the first instance, to determine us in the choice of articles to be used as food; and by this we are uniformly guided till we be supplied with the surer directions of experience. This relation between the human body and the objects around it, does not take place only in regard to the food proper for its support, and the sense to which it is applied; it takes place also with regard to objects applied to the other senses, which are placed as sentinels to give intimation of approaching danger: Nay so provident has nature been in guarding us against hurtful objects, that where these hurtful objects so far coincide with the organization of our bodies as not to be productive of aversion, they are however productive of suspicion, and it is only by a cautiously repeated trial that we become convinced of the safety of their application.

To apply these principles to the present case, it is to be observed that heat and cold, among other powers, hurt our sensations: these are by some considered as relative terms, though here they are properly enough to be reckoned positive ones.

In respect to heat and cold, both learned and vulgar agree in asserting, that the more a person expos-

es himself to cold, the more he becomes steeled against it. This is most undoubtedly true; but experience teaches us it is only so in a certain degree; and that even in this very moderate climate, we can scarcely live without artificial heat. If it were otherwise we should have no occasion for any fire but for culinary purposes; and the only use of our houses would be to defend us from wet, and secure our property. To render the doctrine of exposure to cold useful, or even practicable, it would be necessary that the mode of life should be in every respect congruent to the exposure to cold; though even in this case, we may be aserted, from the practice of all northern nations in clothing themselves, that this is a notion, like many others, that has its foundation on observations ill understood,

To point out the degree of cold that may usefully be applied to the body, in a clear manner, it is necessary to attend to the following facts: Mankind by descent, by their mode of life, and other circumstances, which, in civil society it is impossible to avoid, are of what is called different constitutions; and therefore the degree of cold, useful or hurtful to them, cannot be regulated by a thermometer. The only other way of measurement, is by the sensations of the person to whom it is applied. Here, then, we have a criterion by which every person is to know how far he may with safety expose himself to cold; viz. as far as it is agreeable to his sensations. For this reason, then, we must put the degree of cold, proper for the present condition of the person to whom it is applied, to be that which in him produces no uneasiness.

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 ceptible of cold, there can be no doubt: this is a
 circumstance which ought to engage the attention of
 all, as it is an acquisition which is absolutely neces-
 sary for enabling us to discharge our duties in soci-
 ety, and enjoy life with proper relish. But of the
 modes to be used in acquiring this degree of hardi-
 ness, it is not so easy to determine.

The manner of life of a very great part of the
 community, renders it impossible for them to ex-
 pose their bodies to cold in the way generally
 talked of, without risking a very material injury to
 their health. Those whom fortune has exempted
 from the necessity of earning their bread by the
 sweat of their brows, are subjected to a hardship far
 greater, that of being liable to be affected in their
 health by a thousand accidents, which in vain assault
 the sons of unremitting toil. The only way of inu-
 ring the body to bear cold, that to me seems unex-
 ceptionable, and likely to be successful, is to call
 forth the powers that the body is provided with for
 the resistance of cold, and which are evidently ap-
 propriated by the wise Creator to this end. As he
 well knew that mankind must be exposed, in pro-
 curing food, &c. to a greater degree of cold than
 is proper in an inactive state, so he has connected
 this attainment with bodily exercise, which, as it
 heats the body, so it plainly intimates by this provi-
 sion against cold, that this is inimical to health. Nor
 is the circumstance of man being obliged, also, to la-
 bour in warm climates, any objection to this argu-
 ment: our Maker knowing that heat is as prejudi-

cial to our ſafety as cold, has provided a remedy, by making ſweat the concomitant of labour, and a means of cooling the body.

To add force to my aſſertion, that cold is moſt pernicious to the human body, allow me to adduce the authority of Sydenham, a man who made it the whole ſtudy of his life to collect facts; and whoſe aſſertions are founded on the teſtimony of his own ſenſes. He obſerves, that two thirds of the diſeaſes which afflict mankind ariſe merely from cold;—a moſt convincing proof, that in his days, alſo, it was the error of our countrymen to be wanting in due regard to clothing and warm houſes; and that it is unpardonable in a people that have come to the knowledge of this fact, to be ſo little ſolicitous in preventing it. It is true, that the mankind of Sydenham, means the higher ranks in the community, among whom he practiſed; but even allowing this to be true, it does not in any degree diminiſh the attention that ought to be paid to his obſervations.

To be continued.

ON THE DELAYS INCIDENT TO THE COURT
OF SEſSION.

Continued from p. 179.

To the Lord Preſident of the Court of Seſſion.

LETTER X.

MY LORD,

THE delays of the bill-chamber have long been complained of as a grievance: and grievous they are

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in a commercial country in its infant state; where
quick returns, and the ready enforcing of payments,
are so necessary for the support of credit.

A sist of diligence is currently granted on the
most vague and unfounded pretences; and being once
obtained, it often serves to ward off the demand until
the debtor becomes bankrupt, and perhaps secretes or
makes off with his effects.

Of all the regulations against delays in the bill-
chamber, I scarcely know one that has not been more
or less evaded; either from their original unfitness
to answer the end in view, or by means of the con-
sent of party, or of the indulgence of the judge.—
I am sensible, therefore, it will be needless to at-
tempt an alteration, unless your Lordship can reduce
the practice to a case of *absolute necessity*.

An act of parliament ought to be obtained, declar-
ing, That *compensation or retention* shall be no ground
of suspension, unless instantly verified *scripto vel*
juramento, that is unless the written evidence of it
be produced along with the bill of suspension, or the
reference to oath be made in the bill itself. And
where the counter-claim is either *illiquid or unin-*
structed, that the charger shall be allowed to proceed
in diligence, reserving to the suspender the benefit of
his counter-action.

These provisions would narrow the practice of the
bill-chamber very much, and the business of it might
also be expedited by proper forms.

It would be no hardship to require *caution or con-*
signation in all cases of suspension; for the more ab-
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surd and inconsistent the diligence, the easier can the
suspender find a cautioner. Whenever, therefore,
a bill of suspension is offered, the clerk should be
prohibited from receiving it, unless a bond of caution
(or the sum charged for) be lodged along with it;
and unless the cautioner's circumstances be set forth
in the bill, so as the charger may answer as to his
circumstances, as well as upon the merits, and that
the Lord Ordinary may decide upon both.

I would have no *attestors* admitted of: but the
suspender may originally make out his bond, with
as many cautioners in it as he pleases, on his setting
forth the circumstances of each.

And when a bill of this kind comes to be advised,
with the debate upon it, the Lord Ordinary can ei-
ther pass the bill upon the merits, and find the cau-
tion good; or find the reasons of suspension relevant;
but refuse the bill, in respect the caution offered is
not good; or he may refuse the bill upon the merits,
but find the caution good. In case the suspender
should reclaim to the court, the Lord Ordinary ought
always to give a judgement upon *both* points.

It may happen as already noticed that the reasons
of suspension are perfectly good, and yet the bill be
refused from the insufficiency of the caution. To meet
such a case, I would have the clerk prohibited from
receiving answers, unless a bond of caution for the
charger be produced along with them, for the amount
of any counter-claim that is founded on and specified
in the bill of suspension; and unless the cautioner's
circumstances be set forth in the answers.

The Lord Ordinary will thus have it in his power, if he rejects the suspender's cautioner and refuses the bill, to cause the charger's caution be received, and so insure the suspender of payment, if his counter-claim shall be ultimately sustained. Or his Lordship, according to circumstances, may ordain both cautioners to be received; so as the parties may have mutual caution found to each other.

The same act of parliament, may provide for these cases, if your Lordship thinks it is beyond the powers of the court to do so.

When a bill of suspension is refused, I would have the clerk prohibited from receiving a second bill against the payment of the same debt, on pain of being liable for the debt, and also on pain of deprivation. But in order that the losing party, may in all cases have an opportunity of reclaiming to the court, I would have a fortnight of *reclaiming days*, to run *in time of Session*. And I would also have the charger allowed a fortnight of the same kind, to petition, if he chose it, against the *passing* of the bill (a practice too seldom followed, though undoubtedly competent). Though this reclaiming time may produce delay, yet I think it cannot be avoided, as, in the general case, the losing party will not be satisfied with the decision of the Lord Ordinary, whereas he must rest contented with the judgement of the court.

With regard to the answers, replies, and duplies following upon the bill, these may be subjected to the same regulations as a condescence, answers, replies, and duplies so often mentioned. But a great difficulty occurs with regard to the time of lodging the answers, which your Lordship will readily

conceive from the nature of a sist, or at least the effect that is usually given to it.

I am, &c.

LENTULUS.

ON THE POOR LAWS, LETTER III.

Continued from p. 145.

On the effect of desuetude in annulling statutes.

THAT there are many laws authorising an involuntary poor's rate in Scotland, which stand in the statute book *unrepealed*, is an undeniable fact: but because these are unrepealed, it does by no means follow that they are still *in force*. It is upwards of an hundred years since the last of these laws was enacted; and no maxim in law is more indisputable than that a statute may lose its force by desuetude as effectually as by an actual repeal; so that unless it can be made appear, that these laws have not only been enacted, but have been regularly enforced from the time of their enactments, they can only be considered as obsolete laws which cannot now be revived.

Lawyers have enumerated three modes by which a law may fall into desuetude, and thus lose its force as effectually as if it had been actually repealed: viz.

1. Where the law in question never has been carried into force at all, but has been suffered to sleep from the time of its enactment as a mere dead letter.
2. Where, although it had been, for a time, enforced, it had gradually fallen into general disuse;

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and had been for many years entirely disregarded.
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3. Where, although the law had been inforced in certain places, so as still to continue *there* to have the force of a law, yet, by a contrary practice prevailing for a long time, in other places, this practice has been considered as sepreceding the law, and coming in its place, so as there to render the law itself of no avail. I shall adduce a few examples of all these, by way of illustration.

In regard to the *first* kind of desuetude; viz that which arises from a continued neglect of the law from the time of its enactment, no examples can be found more apposite, than among the poor laws themselves, the subject of the present dissertation.

There is no act in the statute book, more clear and distinct than that of the year 1672*, or in which the stipulations are more exprefs. By this act "his
"majesty with advice and consent of his estates of
"parliament, statutes and ordains, that the magis-
"trates of the burghs following, betwixt and the
"term of Whitsunday next, 1673, provide correc-
"tion houses for receiving and entertaining of the
"beggars, vagabounds, and idle persons within their
"burghs, and such as shall be sent to them out of
"the shires and bounds after specified, and that they
"appoint masters and overseers of the same, who
"may set these poor persons to work; viz. one
"correction house for the burgh of *Edinburgh*, for
"those of the town and shire of *Edinburgh*," and

* Car. II. Par. 2. Sess. 3. Cap. 8.

so on for the following burghs with the shires and districts annexed by the act to each; viz *Haddington, Dunee, Jedburgh, Selkirk, Peebles, Glasgow, Dumfries, Wigton, Kirkcubright, Ayr, Dumbarion, Rothsay, Paisley, Stirling, Linlithgow, Culrofs, Perth, Montrose, Aberdeen, Innernefsie, Elgin, Inverary, St Andrews, Coupar, Kirkaldy, Dunfermling, Dundee, Bamf, Dornoch, Wick, Kirkwall*, for the shire of Orkney, and Zetland; "each of which houses shall have a large clofs, sufficiently inclosed, for keeping in the said poor people, that they may not be necefsitat to be always within doors, to the hurt or hazard of their health. And in case the magistrates of the said burghs, or any of them, shall not provide and have in readines, the said correction houses betwixt and the said term of Whitsunday next, they shall incur the pain and penalty of FIVE HUNDRED MARKS Scots money, AND THAT QUARTERLY, until the correction houses be provided: Which penalties shall be paid to the commissioners of excise in the respective shires or bounds from which the said poor persons shall be sent, to the said correction houses: And the said commissioners are hereby warranted to raise letters of Horning, and other execution at their instance, against the magistrates of the said burghs." Sec. A great number of stipulations follow, authorising the levying of funds for the building of these correction houses, and support of the poor, which it is unnecessary here to enumerate. This act was never repealed; but there is good reason to believe it never was enforced; as no vestiges of these correction houses

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reinsain; or records concerning them. Nor will it, I presume, be maintained, that after such a lapse of time, this act could now be legally carried into effect.

2. Of desuetude arising from a gradual relinquishment to enforce the law, innumerable instances might be produced. The following are a few examples of this kind, which, as marking a striking change in the progress of civilization, agriculture, and trade, may prove entertaining to the reader.

In 1426 there is a statute obliging all men to take their bills of exchange from bankers *within the coun-try*.

In 1436, there is a law ordaining that none be found in a tavern after 9 o'clock at night.

In 1567, there is a statute which enacts, that all persons guilty of fornication, as well the men, as the women "shall be tane to the deepest and foulest pule or water of the parochin, and there to be thrice douked, and thereafter banished the said town or parochin for ever."

In 1581, there is a statute, prohibiting horses to be kept at hard meat from the 15th of May to the 15th of October.

In the same year there is an act requiring landed gentlemen to reside at their country seats under a penalty.

In the same, cap. 113. "It is statute and ordained, bee our souverain lord the king, with advise of his estaites and hail body of his present parliament, that none of his hienes subjectes, man or woman, being under the de-

" greees of dukes, earles, lordes of parliament,
 " knightes, or landed gentilmen, that hes or may
 " spend of frie zeirle rent, twa thousand markes;
 " or fifty chalders of victual at the least, or their
 " wives, sonnes or douchteris, sall, after the first
 " day of May nixt-to-cum, use or weare in their
 " clething, or apparrel, or lyning thereof, onie
 " claith of gold, or silver, velvet, satine, damask,
 " taffataes, or ony begairies, frenzies, pasments,
 " or broderie of gold, silver, or silk nor zit layne
 "ommerage, or woollen claith, maid, and brocht
 " from onie foreine countries, under the paine of
 " ane hundred pundes of every gentil-man landed,
 " ane hundred markes of every gentilman unlan-
 " ded, and fourtie pundes, of ilk zea-man, for
 " every day, that hee, his wife, sonne or douch-
 " ter trangressis this present act."

The same year, (ib. cap. 114.) certain kinds of
 food, sweat-meats, &c. are prohibited from being
 used, except by persons of a certain rank, specially
 described, under severe penalties.

These statutes, and hundreds such, never were
 repealed; but who will say they are now in
 force?

3. Of laws which, though still in force in many
 places, have fallen into disuse in other places, by a
 contrary practice there prevailing for a long time, the
 following cases will serve as illustrations.

By the statute 1535, it is expressly enacted that
 none can be elected provosts, or bailies of burghs,
 except *residing burghesses*. In the town of Dumbar-
 ton a contrary practice had prevailed for time

immemorial of electing *non residents* as provosts. In 1729 the court of session reduced an election of magistrates in Dumbarion, because the provost was elected contrary to the foresaid statute; but the house of peers REVERSED that decree in respect of the usage contrary to the statute; and since that time it appears never to have been doubted, but desuetude prevails against the public statutes regulating the election of burghs, in those places where a custom contrary to the statutes has been immemorially established; accordingly, in the case of the burghes of Week against Sinclair of Ulbster, decided in 1749, the Court of Session were unanimously in the opinion, that the residence of the provost was not necessary, because in that respect the statute requiring residence had, in the town of Wick, gone entirely into desuetude.

Other decisions to the same purpose might be quoted; but it is unnecessary. Those already quoted are sufficient to show, that public statutes go into desuetude by disuse, and by contrary custom in those places where such custom has obtained. It is not therefore enough for those who wish to revive an obsolete statute to say, that because it has not been expressly repealed, it therefore continues to be in force, and may be applied when ever it shall be thought proper to revive it; for before that can be done, it behoves to be proved, *first* that the statute wished to be revived was enforced immediately after its enactment; *second*, that it has not afterwards been suffered to fall into general disuse; and *third*, that no contrary practice has prevailed in regard to that particular, in

the place where it is meant that the statute in question should apply.

To apply this reasoning to the laws for imposing an involuntary poor's rate in Scotland, it will be no difficult task to prove, 1. that these poor laws, were not actually enforced, at the time they were enacted:—nor, 2. was it possible to carry these laws into effect, either then, or at any future period, without giving the persons who are to execute these laws, a discretionary and dispensing power, which would constitute them in fact legislators, and not the executors of the law; for these laws have been so ill digested, that the enactments of one statute are directly contradictory of those of another which is of equal force, so that, act as you will, it is impossible but you must be going directly in the teeth of some statute of equal validity as that one you choose to adopt for your rule; and farther, that choose which statute you will as your rule, there are innumerable cases of great importance that have not been at all provided for by it, in regard to all which the administrators of the law cannot act at all, *according to statute*, and therefore if they do act, they must do so in an arbitrary and unconstitutional manner. And lastly it will be shown that while these laws have been suffered to sleep for more than an hundred years, another practice has prevailed in regard to the very object for which they were enacted; so that in regard to all such places at least where the poor have been hitherto provided for in another manner, these statutes must be considered as having fallen total.

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Alladin,—a tale.

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ly, and completely into desuetude; so that an attempt, under these circumstances, to revive them, must be considered as directly contradictory of every principle of the law of this land.

A more thorough examination of these laws will afford abundant matter for another paper in this work*.

ALLADIN THE PERSIAN, AN EASTERN TALE.

Continued from p. 181.

CHAPTER VI.

the Republics.

THE Calender knew many languages, and had made short extracts from the best authors, which formed a portable library of seven or eight volumes. There was one on governments; and particularly on republics, which Alladin read with the greatest attention. What! said he, is it possible there should exist such a government? He had never heard of any other than a monarchical government; and it had never entered his head that any other could exist, or that public affairs could be otherwise carried on.

Alladin was eloquent, and passionately fond of liberty: he panted after glory; and felt that it was not

* The reader will observe, I have availed myself here of the information furnished by my lawyer, in the case against the overseers of the poor in South Leith; and I am happy in having this opportunity of expressing my just sense of the obligations that I myself, and the public, lie under to that gentleman, for the light he has thrown upon this important subject, which has been hitherto so little adverted to.

possible to rise at a court, where servility and assiduity were counted as merits. What a multitude of obstacles was such a man likely to meet with in his career, like Alladin, who could not disguise his sentiments, and who wished, if I may be allowed the expression, to make his fortune barefaced. Delighted with a work which presented the picture of a government where man had full scope to his faculties, he read it many times with additional pleasure, translated it into the Arabic, and added to it reflections, which fortunately for him, were too profound for those who governed. "What a fine government!" said he one day to the Calender, where man is only subject to the laws: should not you be happy to live in a republic?" "Not more than under any other government, replied the Calender; man has every where a necessity to exert himself, and to domineer.—I prefer one master to fifty. When I was young, I should not have disliked living in a republic, to be able to charter at my ease, and to be listened to." "What!" cried Alladin, you do not then admire a government founded on virtue?" "Say interest, like any other, replied the Calender." "But man ought under such a government to be of more worth." "He only labours in it to sell himself to greater advantage." "But liberty" "exists no where."

Alladin could not think like the Calender on this subject, and fancied he ought to enlighten his country. He had a thousand copies made of his translation, on the finest vellum, ornamented with Arabesques and gold, which were soon distributed abroad.

The Sultan and grand visir heard the work spoken of, but never read it. They had other things to do than to occupy themselves with the constitution of a country, whose name even they were ignorant of. "But what does this work of Alladin contain?" said the sultan one day to his visir, "you have read it without doubt?" "I have run it over, replied the visir. It is a romance." "I thought it had been something more serious," answered the Sultan. "It relates to a country without a king." "Ah that is ridiculous enough, visir," and burst out into a fit of laughter. "The people is sovereign of that country," said the vizir; and the laughs of all the courtiers were in unison with those of the monarch. "This government is called the public good," said one. "I know only private good," answered another, with a sneering laugh. "Well, this is the height of folly, cried the queen; and pray what does he mean by his public good?" "They say there is much wit in it, said the sultan." "There is certainly imagination; but (continued a pert lord) if the people is the sovereign, who goes to his levees? and what becomes of us?" "That reflection is not amiss," said the sultan. The wags gave to Alladin the nickname of *Public Good*. The visiers asserted, that he was a man fond of new systems, and a dangerous person, who believed that a government could exist without a king; and this sentiment made so deep an impression on the sultan, that he treated Alladin with more coldness. The queens followed his example; and the courtiers avoided him. It is true, that some of the learned found the book inter-

esting; the translation elegant; and the reflections profound. Their suffrage alone, was the sole price Alladin acquired for a work which ought to have given him great reputation in Persia, and obtained for him the superiority over all his contemporaries.

CHAPTER VII.

The success of mediocrity.

HE quitted politics, which appeared to him too dangerous, and applied himself to the belles lettres. There is a kind of vivacity and warmth in the human mind, which in some measure urges one to write. This seems to be to the mind what the pleasures of love are to the senses. Alladin, urged by this necessity, commenced poet. He exercised his genius first on philosophical subjects, which he embellished with the flowers of a brilliant imagination. A few intimate friends only were admitted to see his works: he read them to them; but above all to the Calender, who gave him much good advice. His cousin Salem thought this a frivolous, and even a dangerous amusement: he did not think it decorous for a person of a certain rank, to condescend to turn author; and that it was losing time in making verses, which could be so much more usefully employed in state affairs, or in making a fortune. Salem frequently eyed Alladin with a disdainful smile, when he found him thus employed. "Salem is in the right (said the Calender), he judges after the common opinion, and from himself; it will not be difficult for him to abstain from temptation." The wise reflections of Salem were soon justified: the works of Alladin were handed about, altered and disfigured.

and, as soon as it was known that he made verses, he was fattered with satires, which attacked many persons in power; and in which even the sultan himself was not spared.

The friends of Alladin advised him to travel for some years: and when Salem came to take his leave of him, said, "I told you cousin, it did not become persons of our rank to turn authors."

The conduct of Salem was quite the reverse. He was assiduous in his attendance at court; followed his point with perseverance; and was great in trifles. He was always praised; but more for the failings he did not possess, than for the qualities he was master of. No one was more attentive with regard to others. He kept two secretaries; one for compliments of joy, the other for those of condolence. No event, that interested any noble family in the slightest degree, but what was the occasion of a letter and a visit from Salem. His visits were never long: the most interesting conversation could not detain him more than a quarter of an hour in any one house; and he left it without pain. His soul was incapable of feeling those sensations of generosity and interest for others; and his mind was not eager after information. He commonly conversed with a person in the corner of a room, in a kind of half whisper. This has a good effect in general; and besides, no unforeseen contradictions happen; and this sort of mystery, gives an appearance of importance. Every thing which was contrary to received prejudices, or which was out of the common order of things, Salem looked upon as imprudent and rash.

The word, *systematical*, was always on his tongue ; which he applied to all, who, quitting the beaten track, wish to ascend to first principles. Salem was good, but without animation. He never would do an unjust act, or intentionally hurt any one ; but he would never stir out of his way to do the smallest act of benevolence. He loved women, but without passion ; and attached himself, as it were by instinct, to those who enjoyed most power or credit. They took him without any determined sentiment : but, what added to his success, was the opinion the ladies had formed of his *discretion*. He was one to be depended upon in society ; and he remained the friend of those of whom he had been the lover. His billets doux could never hurt him. They were not those impassioned letters, which are so ridiculous when read in cold-blood, nor those, where the whole soul is painted ; his letters were like printed formulas, which would have served every lover. It seemed as if he had them for every occasion ; for the declaration of his passion, the triumphs of it, and the raptures, one of each might serve for all his intrigues.

Salem however had insensibly acquired an ascendancy over the women ; he was the man whom they esteemed, and consulted upon all the little quarrels in their families, upon what were the proper steps to be taken at court ; for he was acquainted with every avenue ; he had attached to him a crowd of subalterns by his officiousness and his visits, who informed him directly of every change in the public affairs. The visages were not afraid of him, for he never proposed any important innovations,

and executed whatever was intrusted to him with the most exact precision. Salem could tell you the uniform of every regiment, and the mottos on their colours. The vizirs were quite astonished at the profound knowledge he had of the smallest details.

He sometimes offered projects, but always accommodated to the ideas of the moment. He presented one day a very large memorial to retrench one sixth of the furniture from each dragoon and light horseman; and proved with wonderful intelligence that from the hundred thousand cavalry of the sultan, this economy would produce 4774 sequins a year, without tarnishing the eclat of the troops of so great a monarch. He gave also another economical project, which for a long time had much success: it consisted in only shoeing the fore feet of the cavalry. Envy was silent; and Salem advanced rapidly towards the temple of fortune. He was very methodical, and noted down all he was to do in the course of the day, and sometimes what he was to say. His cousin one day by accident picked up his pocket book and read as follows:

“ To call on the vizir to-day at ten o'clock, and on his secretary at twelve.

“ Remember not to fail sending a blue and red parrot to the favourite slave of the sultana Fatima, who seemed to wish for such a one.

“ To call on the princess Cheriti, and not to forget to condole with her on the loss of her little dog Ruby, which she is inconsolable after.

“ To visit the Mollach Abilek, who is ill, and to converse with him about the new mosque he is building.”

To be continued.

THE ADVENTURES OF A SHILLING.

For the Bee.

EVERY mind feels an innate curiosity from its earliest formation, which grows with its growth, and increases with its strength; and though probably some of your readers may possess it in a more eminent degree than others, I flatter myself that the bulk of them have a portion sufficient to relish the enumeration of a few incidents that occurred to me in the course of a series of perambulations.

I shall not trouble you with my birth, or from what mint I was ushered into the world; but I scarcely began to move in the circulating scene, when I found myself surrounded by a variety of figures all anxious to possess me; some on account of the mildness of my features, and the striking resemblance I bore to my sovereign master; but by far the greatest number on account of my intrinsic worth. Thus sought after by the young, courted by the gay, and prized by the wise, I felt a secret elation of joy on considering my own importance.

In my earliest days, while perambulating among the fashionable world, and passing incessantly from hand to hand, I had no power of reflection, and was left not an hour to myself. Thus was I charmed with novelty,

and dazzled with splendour: the agreeable pleasure I received expanded my countenance and the newness of the scene brightened my eyes. While youth and beauty seemed yet to countenance me, while my sides escaped being pined by the doubting Jew; and the plotting merchant had not brought me to the test, the prospect before me continued to brighten; and hilarity and joy were my continual attendants. In the midst of my fancied exaltation I was made to perceive the instability of every station in life, by an unlucky occurrence, which from the summit of greatness lowered me to the most humiliating condition. When this unlucky adventure overtook me, I happened to be in the possession of a gentleman of the beau monde, who was of that species who are charmed with the frippery of dress, and volubility of tongue; who delight in ludicrous allusions, and endeavour to excite laughter by laughing first themselves. With a carelessness which I had reason ever after to deplore, he threw me into a pocket which unluckily had been in need of repair, together with a parcel of mean grovelling miscreants, vulgarly called halfpence, who often aspire to our rank, but whose baseness are as often detected. With this motley crew I passed some time; but alas! we soon found ourselves unhoused, and scattered among the filth of the street; dreadful situation to me who had not known such vicissitudes of fortune! Here might I in the bloom of youth, have languished out a miserable existence, had not a quick sighted street gazer been attracted by my brilliancy and beauty to the place where I lay. He instantly picked me up,

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and lodged me secure, in his purse, and was happily not incumbered with any of my mean adventurers, who remained in their congenial habitation. I began now to feel the troubles and afflictions attending a circulating life; though joy at my present deliverance made me insensible for a while to the injury I sustained. I soon found that some sand had got into my eye, and that my nose had not escaped a severe contusion; that the time of my birth had been effaced, and as the record of my years had been gone, there was a danger of my being recalled as an antiquated traveller:---however under these inconveniences I picked up resolution, and again began to look about me.

In my new place of residence I had an opportunity of observing the character of my master; and it was not without the most painful sensation that I perceived the time of my emancipation afar-off. He was one of those gentlemen to whom our value is well known; and who deal us out with a sparing hand. In a tone of declamation, he used to enlarge upon the levity and prodigality of the age as the most infallible road to every species of calamity. He used to adduce examples from history where states arrived at the highest pitch of elegance and refinement were levelled to the ground by the introduction of luxury and corruption. I did not wish to question the gentleman's veracity, or the justice of his observation; but the truth of the matter is, that among the circle of my former fashionable acquaintances, the mention of history never escaped their mouths, and consequently historical references were

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a new thing to me. But I must not forget remark-
ing, that he possessed a quality, which, of all others,
most surprised me,—the exercise of a faculty of the
mind which he called *thinking*;—a circumstance I
looked upon entirely as a phenomenon in the human
mind, as in my former sphere of circulation I had
never an opportunity of observing it.

Here a lucky turn of fate removed me from my
breadbare mansion; and, as the poet says,

Libertas quæ sera tamen respexit,
Respexit tamen, et longo post tempore venit.

It was now about the time of the Christmas holi-
days; a period in my present master's family marked
with unusual joy and festivity, when his rigid sys-
tem of economy was relaxed, and he was to enjoy the
pleasure of a social board. Immediately I was put
into the hands of the landlady to procure delicacies
for the guests; for it was found that I was endow-
ed with a very serviceable nature on these occasi-
ons.

My new mistress seemed to be insensible of my
beauty, and regardless of my worth; for she held me
fast between her teeth, and would often rap me a-
gainst the stones to prove my genuine purity. I
knew the poor woman from her proceedings was a
total stranger to my species; but her ignorance was
like to have hurried my speedy dissolution. When I
was found to stand the test of her rude and barbarous
experiments, I was instantly committed to the care
of the kitchen maid. Here I could not avoid the re-
flection—What a degradation of majesty, thus to be
presed between the fingers of a greasy wench. Lucki-

ly my olfactory sense was none of the most acute, otherwise I must have been suffocated by a complication of odours not the most agreeable. I was scarcely released when I found myself in a baker's shop, surrounded with bustle and confusion. Old moping melancholy began now to beset, and the spleen entirely to harass me, which made me insensible to every thing that passed around me, except the continual vibrations of "*left weight*," on the tympanum of my ear. I was hardly out of my confinement when the load of gloom that overwhelmed me began to dissipate, and was succeeded by a placid serenity, by being introduced to a good old man, who viewed this life only as it was conducive to a better: who in the warmth of friendship bewailed the follies of unsuspecting youth, and by the marked sorrow of his brow seemed to deplore the exit of a relation. One evening lying secure in a corner of his pocket, I overheard him delineating the principal features of his deceased relation's character, to a friend who had just come to visit him, in the following words:

"My dear sir, poor Jack now lies a pitiable monument of the levity and folly that too frequently attend the flowery period of youth.

"As he was left early to my care, I thought myself bound by the affectionate office of friendship which passed between his father and me, to supply the place of a parent; and in the duties of such a department I have not myself to blame. I early initiated him in the mysteries of religion, and rudiments of science; but could easily perceive the restraint of the one was bondage to his mind, and the drudgery of the other

his decided aversion. Scarcely had he passed his boyish years, when the violence of his passions began to appear, and his listlessness and idleness betrayed his unsettled disposition.

"In more advanced youth his money was preyed upon by numberless harpies, whose deceitful mouths poured their flattering potions into his misguided soul; and when they perceived that poverty was stalking too close behind him, they avoided his steps with insidious scorn. In short his youth was one continued scene of dissipation; and his mind unceasingly surrounded with a thousand delusive ideas. You will doubtless be surprised how he could find means for supporting his extravagance; but in this you will be presently satisfied—an institution, which disgraces our insular clime, was the source of all the folly which eventually brought him to "the house appointed for all living,"—a lottery institution I mean, in which the gay and voluptuous fancy they see an inexhaustible treasure for perpetuating their pleasures,—the merchant for extending his field of speculation, and the farmer for cultivating the barren spot. In this game of chance, alas! he was but too successful: the intoxicating thousands flowed in upon him and whetted every sensual appetite which no sooner rose than it was gratified. Thus his shattered frame wore gradually to decay; and his dissipated course ceased not till his strength forsook him."

I presume Mr Editor I have extended my adventures too far for the limits of your miscellany: therefore I shall take my leave of you as I did of many an *honest* man. I am sir your most obedient,

A SHILLING.

POETRY.

ON THE DEATH OF THE QUEEN OF FRANCE.

For the Bee.

'Tis done: at length we see the curtain close,
On the sad scene of all Maria's woes.
Ah! little did she think in beauty's pride,
When led to grace an youthful monarch's side,
A storm should e'er her brilliant sky o'erspread,
Or burst so dreadful on her fated head.
For then, she rode before the friendly gale,
With gilded prow, and wide expanded sail,
Nor saw the cloud before her spread it's gloom,
Threat'ning the terrors of an hasty tomb:
Admiring thousands of th' enraptur'd throng,
Chanted her graces in extatic song,
And look'd with adoration to the shrine
Of charms, of wit, and dignity divine:
The vaulted roofs with flow'ry garlands bound,
Receiv'd their mistress and withdrew their ray,
Before the bright effulgence of her day:
Pleasure around her spreads its silken wing,
And youth and joy their gayest treasures bring.
But ah! how fleeting sublunary joy,
How soon dehas'd by misery's alloy;
Or who could think, that she who erst was seen,
Ador'd by millions as their matchless queen,
Should from her towering splend' height be hurl'd,
And move the pity of a wond'ring world;
Should, lost to pleasure, and to freedom's bliss,
To husband's converse, and to children's kiss,
Be fated in a dungeon's humid gloom,
To mourn unpitied, and unheard her doom.
Unpitied by the causers of her woe,
Unheard by any, but the cruel foe;
For if at distance pity could assuage
Her pangs of sorrow, or the traitor's rage;
If other's lives, could rescue her's from woe,
Thousands had bid their purest blood to flow.
But ah! to exile doom'd in vain they mourn,
In vain their breasts with generous ardor burn,
Whilst France, to fill the measure of her crimes,
And stigmatize her name to future times,
Has caus'd her queen, once magnet of the eye,
Deep-worn with persecuting cares, to die.

But mourn not ye, who lov'd the fair distress,
 Who long knew only anguish in her breast,
 That she's escap'd the vale of human woe,
 And rais'd to bliss by one befriending blow.
 For her the sun no more with joy could rise,
 Nor cloudless azure spread the vaulted skies;
 For her in vain the warbling birds would sing;
 For her no flowers a single sweet could bring.
 Her pangs alas! held too extensive range,
 For nature's gayest ornaments to change;
 She mourn'd not loss of health or beauty's bloom,
 But friend's precipitated to the tomb;
 She mourn'd a husband torn from her embrace,
 And ills impending o'er her infant race:
 She mourn'd for freedom lost; her sacred name
 Insulted by the blast of noisy fame:
 Without a friend whose generous approach,
 Could still its voice, or guard her from reproach.
 All, all were fled, or vilely doom'd to bleed;
 Fruitless their ardor in the godlike deed.
 She stood alone amid the spoils of death,
 And drew a gloomy agonizing breath:
 So 'mong the herds that in gay Tempe feed,
 Design'd by hands of cruelty to bleed,
 The tender dam beholds the sportive train,
 Her long companions in the verdant plain;
 Her dearest mate, who, with delighted love,
 Had sought her pasture in the shady grove,
 Slain in her sight—her lamb with sprouting horn,
 By fellest tygers from her presence torn,
 Herself reserv'd against some future feast,
 To glut the hunger of an hydra guest.
 But firm she stood, as some majestic oak,
 Escap'd a-while the sturdy feller's stroke,
 Midst an uprooted grove with dauntless form,
 Waits yet a-while the fury of the storm.

D. HOPKINS.

REVIEW.

A LETTER addressed to Sir John Sinclair Bart. President of the board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement, respecting the important discovery lately made in Sweden, of a method of extinguishing fire, with an account of the process adopted for that purpose; and hints of means for preserving timber used either in houses, or in ship building from that destructive element. By Mr William Knox merchant in Gothenburg. Creech, Hill, one shilling.

ONE of the benefits that result from patriotic exertions in any one man is, that it serves, as it were, as a centre of attraction towards which information from all quarters is directed, by which means many useful discoveries are made known to the public, which would otherwise have been overlooked and lost. The present publication is a striking proof of this fact. Most persons will recollect, that some time ago, the newspapers mentioned that a gentleman in Sweden had discovered a successful method of extinguishing fires; but what that was they were not informed: and it would probably have soon been buried in oblivion, had it not been for Mr Knox, who, sensible that no useful discovery would be lost to this country if transmitted to Sir John Sinclair, has been at the trouble to procure the necessary information, and to translate it into the English language for the benefit of his countrymen. Mr Knox himself had the misfortune to suffer deeply by the fire which last year laid a great part of Gothenburg in ashes. We all recollect that during the present year many of the inhabitants of Archangel have been reduced to misery by the wasting fury of the flame; and no year elapses without some accident of the same sort happening in some corner of Europe. It was this

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consideration which prompted the individuals in Sweden to make the spirital experiments here recorded, for preventing these misfortunes from being so general as they have been; and we are happy in being able to say that the facts here stated, which are well authenticated, give great reason to hope, that when the knowledge of them shall become general, there will be no longer room to fear that mankind in civilized nations will be in danger of suffering from fire in the cruel manner they often have done.

This pamphlet contains the result of three experiments for extinguishing fires, all of which proved entirely successful. The first was made at Stockholm by a Mr Von Aken on the 27th of October, 1792, in presence of the king of Sweden, the Duke of Sudermania, Regent, and many other statesmen and principal inhabitants of Stockholm. The experiment was as follows:

A boat 24 feet long, 7 feet broad, and 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep, was raised upon supporters as in a building yard when on the stocks; 100 tar barrels were placed around this boat in three rows, one above another; over the boat was a cover composed of 6 dozen of deals; and the area of the building was about 1800 square feet. This building was also payed, or covered over with four barrels of tar, 10 lb. of turpentine, and three quarts of the oil of turpentine. The bottom of the tar barrels were taken out, and these were filled with birch bark and straw. A pot, too, placed in the boat was filled with twenty-four quarts of pitch.

Things being thus prepared, all these combustible materials were set on fire, and were allowed to burn for the space of five minutes; and were then extinguished in the space of four minutes by three persons only. The fire engine was so small, that a child could almost draw it. The quantity of the fire extinguishing solution expended was 22 Swedish kans, [N. B. 90 kans are equal to a por-

ter hoghead, so that it wasted only about three-fourths of a hoghead]

A very elegant print giving a view of this conflagration is given with the pamphlet. In execution it is better than the Swedish print from whence it was copied; and which sells by itself in Sweden for 3 s. 6 d.

Mr Von Aken not having thought proper to communicate to the public the secret of the composition of his solution; Mr Nils Nystrom, apothecary in a place called Norrkoping, was induced, in consequence of observing the destruction occasioned by some fires in Sweden, to make some experiments with a view to discover the nature of this solution, and to communicate it to the public. Having satisfied himself by several private trials, of the efficacy of various compositions for extinguishing fire, he resolved to subject these compositions to the test of public experiment. For this purpose,

“ A house was built a little without the gate of Norrkoping; and on the 30th of Sept. 1793, being properly surveyed and examined, was found to be of the following description. This house was built of old and well dried timber,—the size ten feet square; and was covered in with a roof of dry deals: two doors and windows on each side of this building were so placed that the air had free access. It was well tarred both within and without. It was filled up to the roof with dry faggots, tar barrels, and rosin; and was even inclosed with bunches of faggots set up on all sides. The fire was kindled at all the four openings at once; and in a few minutes the whole building was completely on fire, and it evidently appeared the flames had reached their greatest height.

“ The process for extinguishing this fire was begun with a small fire engine, similar to that used by Mr Von Aken; and the extinction of this fire was fully effected in the

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space of six minutes, if we except some inconsiderable fire which appeared remaining in the crevices and corners of the building, as well as amongst the faggots, which was afterwards quenched with water. About 28 kans [less than half a hoghead] of the fire extinguishing ingredients were used for this experiment.

“Afterwards another trial was made with six tar barrels which were set in full blaze; and this fire was extinguished with such alertness, by two other particular mixtures, that no sooner did the solutions reach these tar barrels than the extinction of the fire was at once completely effected.

“These facts are attested by A. P. IGGELSTROM, JEREMIA MOBERG *preses of the corporation of merchants*, ANDERS BILLSTON *preses of the corporation of tradesmen and handicrafts.*”

Again, Mr Nystrom having advertised in the newspapers that he was to make another experiment of the same sort on the 16th Oct. 1793, the following preparations were previously made.

“A house 16 feet square was raised of well seasoned and dry timber; the height of the walls under the roof was ten feet; the elevation of the roof five feet perpendicular, and the doors and windows of this building, were so placed, one opposite to another, that the air had free access. It was tarred all over, both inside and out, and filled with faggots and tar barrels: moreover, the outside of this house was covered with bunches of tarred faggots. The building thus erected was set on fire under a violent storm of wind, by which means the power of the flames was doubled, and had acquired much additional force. When it was in full blaze, the extinction of the fire was begun with a small engine, whose leather pipe was only one fourth of an inch diameter, which ne-

vertheless produced such an effect, that the fire extinguishing solution no sooner reached the house than the force of the fire was immediately diminished. The engine during the operation broke, and had to be repaired, which occasioned a delay of four minutes; for which reason the complete extinction of the fire was not effected till the expiry of fourteen minutes: but if we deduct the four minutes lost, the time taken in extinguishing this fire was really no more than ten minutes.

"The composition used on this occasion consisted of 15 kans herring pickle; 15 kans red ochre, or the residuum of aqua-fortis, to which were added $7\frac{1}{2}$ kans of water. Of this composition 60 kans [two thirds of a hoghead] were expended.

"Afterwards fire was set to 18 barrels, tarred both without and within, which, in the same way as the house, burned with the greatest violence; notwithstanding which the extinction thereof was carried into execution with a composition consisting of 1 part herring pickle to $1\frac{1}{2}$ part gray lime, without the addition of any water. And this composition appeared so powerful that the fire of the 18 tarred barrels was extinguished in the space of about half a minute of time. That all these transactions as above recited, really and truly passed in our presence we hereby certify.

(Signed) { C. A. WACHTMEISTER, Lieutenant Col. Marshal,
 I. G. STRONFELD, Governor of the province.
 N. F. JERNFELTZ, Lt. Col. in his maj. service"

Norrköping 16 Oct. 1793.

Facts so well authenticated as the above seem to admit of no doubt.

With regard to the compositions that may be employed for this purpose, the patriotic Nyström gives a long detailed list of them, which our limits prevent us from enu-

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merating, and for which and other particulars we refer to the pamphlet itself. The general result of the whole of his experiments is, that all saline solutions may be considered as nearly of equal power; and that of course the cheapest that can be got in every place is the best. In Sweden, herring pickle, or a saturated solution of common salt are, he thinks, the cheapest that can be there found. In Scotland, especially in Edinburgh, we should suppose that the cheapest saline solution that can be obtained is that which in the manufacture of common salt is called bittern, or a solution of magnesia glaubers salt; which is often thrown away as of no value.

But the power of all these saline impregnations in extinguishing fire he finds is greatly augmented by mixing them with any sort of earthy substance that admits of being reduced to a fine state, and easily suspended in the watery solution, so as to bring the whole to a thickish consistence: and it will readily occur, that of all earthy matters, clay is the easiest to be found, and consequently the best for this purpose. Care must be taken that this clay be freed from all stones and other heterogeneous matter that might tend to clog up the pipes. As to the other qualities of the clay, whether brown, grey, or white, these are of no sort of consequence.

This is certainly a discovery of so much importance as to deserve to have the power of these very simple and cheap ingredients for extinguishing fire, very thoroughly ascertained by actual experiments in this very country. With this view, it is hereby suggested whether it would not be proper for the different insurance offices in this place to join and make one fair experiment at their joint expence. After which they would each of them be enabled to judge how far it was for their interest to have always in readines a quantity of this composition rightly prepared and fit for use on a moments warning. At the

present time, when the wood of old houses now taking down in this place can be bought at a trifling price, this experiment might be made at a very small expence; and if it shall be found to succeed, it is farther submitted whether it might not be becoming in them to make some proper present to the translator of this work, who had the misfortune to lose the greatest part of his property by the fire that so lately destroyed such a great part of Gothenburg. "I hope, says he in his address to Sir John Sinclair, this method of extinguishing fire, may, by God's blessing, be the means of saving the lives and properties of mankind: a circumstance which will afford the translator infinite satisfaction, though he claims no other merit, than being perhaps the first, who has given a particular account of so useful a discovery, to his countrymen."

On the whole this seems to be a discovery of much utility to mankind, and deserves to be particularly noted to by the public in general, and by the insurers against losses from fire in particular. It is also of much importance to sea-faring men; not only because it may enable them to extinguish accidental fires on ship board, with much greater certainty than heretofore; but also because it appears from some experiments we have not room to particularize, that wood soaked in these saline solutions becomes much less susceptible of being inflamed than if left in its natural state.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

The observations of *Alexis* are deserving a place;—but perhaps many persons would deem them rather complimentary; and, being on a subject that many readers are at present rather tired of, they will fall to be deferred for some time.

The Lady's wish is rather in imperfect measure to bear the public eye in its present dress.

Hitherto the Editor has withheld his own observations on innumerable occasions, to make room for those of others; but, in compliance with the request of this, and many other correspondents, he shall insert a few papers in the succeeding parts of this volume,—though partly promised to the public.

THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 18. 1793.

ON THE BEST METHOD OF HEATING DWELLING
HOUSES.

Continued from p. 200.

IT is commonly remarked, that cold air is healthy, refreshing, and invigorating. This is undoubtedly true of a degree of cold that does not produce chillness, but the mode of expression commonly used on this occasion, leads to very wrong conclusions, by attributing to cold what is due to a proper temperature produced by exercise. And in this way may be explained the increase of appetite, which many people enjoy in cold weather, and which they attribute to the power of cold, though it is evidently dependant on circumstances connected with this state of the atmosphere. To judge of this matter properly, it would be necessary to compare their feelings in spring and autumn; and not to attend only to what passes in the warm summer months, in which they are generally too inactive to take exer-

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cise necessary to cool their bodies. There seems no impropriety here in introducing a vulgar observation, viz. that a sickly person is said to be out of danger as soon as he gets his foot on the gowan; which evidently proves that the salutary influence of the spring is universally observed. In confirmation of what has been said, I shall quote an observation made by the late Dr Cullen, who was well known to be a judicious observer. He used to remark that the Fife farmers who are in general very early risers, very seldom live long. This he attributed to the cold damp air, as being inimical to our bodies.

It may be imagined that while I thus reprobate the opinion of those that think cold is useful in preserving health, I reckon heat subservient to this purpose; but this is by no means the case. I am very sensible that heat is productive of many inconveniencies, and that heated rooms render those men sickly that remain for the most part inactive in them. I must confess however, and I think experience confirms my opinion, that heat is far less liable to produce disease than cold. Heat is principally considered as hurtful on three accounts: as disposing the body to be more easily affected by cold: as conjoined in general with an impure state of the air which is productive of what are called putrid diseases; and, as simply by its own influence disposing the body to putrescency. To judge of these matters we must have recourse to facts; and these facts are not to be collected from what is observed at home only, but are to be drawn from the consideration of

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the effects of heat in regions where it is unremittingly applied, and in countries where it is the general practice to live in houses not only warm but hot.

As it is very allowable to conclude that the health of men is in proportion to the purity, by which I mean that purity that is necessary to health, of the air they breathe, the truth of the first supposition will be best determined by considering the relative health of those who use heated air. In countries situated between the tropics, it is well known that the inhabitants are sometimes affected epidemically with fevers of various kinds, and of a dangerous nature; but as these fevers are not constantly present, while heat is unremitting, it follows that the cause of these complaints cannot be attributed to heat alone. Heat therefore is in no ways incompatible with health; nor, I may add with old age, as is sufficiently proved by the numerous instances of longevity in warm climates. This much can be said of natural heat.

In regard to artificial heat, the case seems different; as we know its production evolves a very active matter inimical to life, and therefore seems to contaminate the air in this manner warmed. This may lead us to suppose that artificial and elementary heat are different substances: but I think it very improbable that heat simply considered is different in whatever manner it may be produced, whether we reckon it material or only a modification of matter. We have reason to believe that the active pernicious matter that is evolved in deflagration is not connected with heat, as it only attends certain modes of producing heat; and that by a certain

process of nature it is so changed as to be rendered innocuous soon after its formation.

There is a very curious fact respecting the vapours arising from charcoal, which as it fell under my own observation repeatedly, I can communicate with the greater confidence. The mode of heating houses in a country where I spent several years, consists in burning wood till it is converted into charcoal, and as soon as this ceases to flame, the vent is stopped closely; by which means the oven in which the wood is burned is heated, and the fumes of the charcoal are diffused over the whole room. I often observed that the vapour from the charcoal produced a violent head-ach, and in other cases though the quantity of vapour was by no means less, yet it did not produce this effect; nay I have been in rooms heated in this manner to such a degree as to produce on every part of the naked body that glowing sensation that in this country is felt on the face when sitting by a brisk fire, and which often arises almost to a height that may be called scorching, without feeling my head in the least degree affected, or any of the effects that are commonly attributed to the vapour of charcoal. My own observation aided by the experience of the natives soon led me to discover the circumstances with which this seeming variety in the action of these vapours is connected. If a room has not been heated for some time and its walls are consequently cold, the bad effects of charcoal vapours are constantly felt, till the house has been by frequent and thorough heating, dried and brought to the proper temperature. If the cold is very great, although the house has been daily heated, when the artificial

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heat is not sufficiently intense to counteract this degree of cold, the bad effects of charcoal are felt; and when from washing the floors, or from a great quantity of moisture having been frozen to the inside of the windows, in those houses that are not provided with double windows, there is in the room a great deal of water convertible into vapour: as soon as by the artificial heat, this water begins to be converted into vapour, the people exposed to it are sure to be affected with a head-ach.

It might perhaps be going too far to allege that the bad effects of the vapours of charcoal are entirely dependent on the circumstance of their being joined to cold and moisture; but these facts go near to prove it. We have however strong facts to prove that in warm dry air, the vapour arising from burning charcoal, is either innoxious, or that it is by some process of nature rendered so immediately on its production. This is the situation of a great part of the inhabitants of the north of Europe, who are unremittingly exposed to the fumes of charcoal in closely caulked up rooms, for a long winter; and who, provided they avoid the inconveniences above mentioned, never feel any bad consequences from this mode of practice: nor is it at all credible that any circumstance in their mode of living, in which they may differ from us, would ever be able to counteract the bad effects of the vapour of charcoal, were this vapour necessarily as pernicious as we find it in the circumstances in which it is applied to our bodies.

Heat is reckoned hurtful as disposing the body to be more easily affected by cold. Experience con-

firm this, as we have innumerable instances of people having caught cold after coming out of warm rooms, and of the inability of bearing cold that people who live constantly in warm rooms are subjected to. We ought always to make a distinction between an overheated room and a warm one, between the body overheated and in a due degree of temperature. Attend to this fact before you pronounce judgement: in cold weather if a person warms his body before he sets out, is he not better able to endure the cold? If a person reeking from the vapour bath, which I have often seen, rolls his naked body in snow without injury, without any other precaution but that of returning again into the bath to warm it; If a person heated with wine, catches no cold till his body begins to cool, ought we not to conclude, that the bad effects of cold on bodies heated in warm rooms, is not owing to the heat simply, but to some other circumstances accidentally connected with it? The fact however remains true, and when the circumstances that render the body subject to cold after coming out of a crowded room cannot be avoided, we ought to be very cautious in guarding ourselves against exposure. In regard to the other fact, nothing is to be drawn from it but this, that people who have addicted themselves to stay at home, have by inaction so much enfeebled their constitutions, that heat becomes absolutely necessary to preserve their existence; and that their inability to resist cold is not to be attributed to the only cause that saves their bodies from dissolution.

To be concluded in our next.

ON THE EFFECT OF CLIMATE IN ALTERING THE QUALITY OF WOOL.

*Continued from p. 122.*2. *Of heat as producing a permanent variation of fleece of the individual sheep.*

CONSIDERING the animal skin in reference to the production of animal filaments, as nearly analogous to soil in respect to vegetable productions, we can easily form an idea of the possibility of rendering the one more fertile and productive, as we know with certainty can be done with regard to the other by care and good management; we know that this animal soil, if the phrase will be admitted, *naturally* loses its productive quality in certain cases, and either ceases to yield any crop at all, or affords only a very scanty crop. This is obviously the case with the human head as age advances; and baldness is the necessary consequence. To remove this sterility, and restore the same productive quality to it as at an earlier period, would be a desirable thing. The profits that would accrue from the possession of such a secret are so obvious, and at the same time it seems from analogy to be a thing so attainable, that many have been tempted to pretend that they had discovered the secret of rendering thin hairs thicker, by means of certain unguents and pomatums that they sell at a high price, as infallible cures for this disease; yet baldness still prevails among aged persons in the rich, as well as the poorer

classes, which gives room to suspect that these preparations are either altogether inefficacious, or nearly so.

We can conceive also that climate may have such an effect upon this kind of animal soil, as to dispose it to produce a greater or a smaller crop, or to make the same skin be disposed to produce filaments of altogether a different nature in one case from those it would yield in another. In consequence of this idea an opinion very generally prevails, that if wool bearing animals, are carried from a cold, to a warm climate, the constitution of the creature is so much altered, as to dispose the body to produce there fewer filaments than it did before, and these also of a much coarser texture: In short to yield a fleece not only much thinner in the pile, but also much more of the nature of hair than wool. This opinion has been so often asserted with confidence by various persons, that I, myself for a great many years believed there was no room to doubt the fact. I have since, however, found reason to suspect there is room here for hesitation and doubt; so that farther than the *temporary* effect of heat upon the filament above explained, I am now inclined to suspend my judgement till facts are farther elucidated.

The first circumstance that induced me to reflect seriously upon the subject, was a hint from Dr Wright of this place, a gentleman well known for his useful botanical researches, who lived many years in Jamaica, and who is a much more attentive observer of things of this nature, than the generality of the inhabitants of those islands. He assured me

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that this was a mere vulgar opinion that had no foundation in experience for its support. He says that in the West India islands, it is true, there is to be found a breed of sheep, the origin of which he has not been able to trace, that carry very thin fleeces of a coarse shaggy kind of wool; which circumstance he thinks, may naturally have given rise to the report. But he never observed a sheep that had been brought from England that ever carried wool of the same sort with these native sheep: on the contrary, though he has known them live there several years, these English sheep carried the same kind of close burly fleece that is common in England; and, in as far as he could observe it was equally free from hairs.

But what still more effectually confirmed him in the opinion that it was not the heat of the climate which occasioned the thin hairy fleeces of these native sheep, was, that he observed the same thinness of fleece and coarseness of pile among these native sheep, in the flocks that live among the hills there, in many parts of which, the climate is even perhaps colder than the summer heat in England, as it was among those individuals who inhabit the burning plains nearer the shore; he therefore attributes this peculiarity to the influence of breed rather than of climate.

In extending our view from Jamaica, we find this opinion of Dr Wright; supported by innumerable facts, that occur occasionally in the course of reading. Of this nature is the fact quoted by Dr Pallas on the authority of Demanet, Bee, vol. xvi. p. 131 that

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there are two kinds of sheep in guinea, one of which carries wool, and the other a thin coat of hair only, resembling goat's hair. We also know that the finest wool produced by any sheep hitherto known is that of Persia and Cashimere. And though there be mountains in Persia, that are of a cold temperature, yet there is no evidence, that these fine woolled sheep, never descend into the plains; or that they do not indeed at all times inhabit those parts of the country where pasture can be found for them, even though very hot. In India, it is known there are two breeds of sheep, one of them of the fat rumped sort,—large animals and which are generally supposed to carry thin fleeces and hairy wool; but there is also another breed of very small sheep more generally diffused over the whole of that country, which carries a close pile of wool; though I have not been able to learn, whether it be fine or not; the quality of the wool being very little adverted to in that country. I myself, have seen some sheep from the Cape of Good Hope, with broad fat tails, which carried a close fleece of wool, of a *fine* pile, but so much intermixed with stichel hair—the same as is to be found among some of the Shetland sheep and particular breeds in England, as to render it of no use in manufactures. We now also know, in this country, that Spanish sheep carry the very closest fleece of any breed that ever has been seen here. There are sheep, natives of this country, which will be allowed to be a colder climate than Spain, whose fleeces are so thin that I will venture to say ten times the number of filaments could be found in the same extent of surface of Spanish sheep as on them.

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From these considerations I am inclined to doubt the fact, and rather believe the notion has originated in inaccurate observation, and theories of a delusive nature.

From the influence of such theories, mankind have been in general also inclined to believe that the fleece of sheep, as well as the fur of other animals, is not only invariably thinner in warm climates than in colder regions, but that it is thinner in summer than in winter; even in this country; without being at the trouble of satisfying themselves experimentally on this head, which might easily be done. Nature, say they, is so beneficent to all her creatures, that she renders the fur closer in winter than in summer, in order to enable the animal to resist the rigorous cold of that climate; and because the idea is beautiful, the fact is admitted without proof. Nature, it is indeed true, has provided, with that beneficence so truly conspicuous in all her works, a much warmer covering for fur-bearing animals in winter than in summer; but not by the means of *thickening* the fleece at that period but of lengthening it only, which answers precisely the same purpose*. The sheep, if left to itself, drops its old fleece in the beginning of June, when the warm weather

* We are too apt to judge of other animals by ourselves, without adverting to the infinite power of nature to produce the same effects by means extremely diversified. Some animals are endowed with a power of resisting cold to an astonishing degree without any covering. The naked toes and legs of birds are a strong illustration of this. Were a man to grasp with his naked fingers a frozen branch for some hours, as they do, the fingers would be entirely lost, though of a size an hundred times larger than the bird's toes.

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approaches; and, like a man who throws off his thick winter coat and assumes a light summer jacket, the animal appears at that season almost naked. Other fur-bearing animals experience a similar change at that season of the year, and thus are universally clothed with a lighter coat in summer than in winter, without having any change produced on the *thickness* of the fleece at that season.

From the experiments before narrated, it appears that the case must indeed be the reverse of what has been alleged; and that, in consequence of the greater thickness of every filament of wool in summer than the same filament bears in winter, the fleece must be actually closer in the first than in the last season, unless it shall appear that there are a greater *number* of fibres at the bottom of the fleece than at its top. That this is not the case, unless where accidental causes have produced it, is well known to every person who is in use to handle wool; and indeed any person can satisfy himself of this fact with the greatest ease, by examining a lock of wool taken from any unbroken fleece that falls in his way; for he will at once perceive that the filaments are in general all of nearly an equal length, and that there are few or no loose fibres starting out towards the root when stretched between the hands, which must unavoidably happen, had the hypothesis been well founded. From all these considerations it seems reasonable to believe, that warmth of climate operates not upon the constitution of the sheep in such a way as to dispose the skin to produce either more or fewer filaments of wool from the same extent of

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surface than it would have yielded in a colder re-
gion, nor to alter the nature of that filament farther
than the *temporary* effect upon the wool already taken
notice of, which ceases to operate upon the wool
the moment the degree of heat abates; so that by
transporting the same sheep which had had a part
of its wool rendered coarse by the heat of a warm
climate into a cool region, the parts of the very same
filament that shall be afterwards produced, will be e-
qually fine as it would have been had the animal ne-
ver experienced the heat at all. The general opini-
on that prevails on this head therefore I conceive to
be an error that ought to be corrected.

3. *Of heat, as affecting the progeny of such sheep
as have been subjected to its powerful influence.*

If we have had reason to doubt if any perman-
ent change is produced in the animal itself by a
change of climate, we will have much less reason
for believing it can have any permanent effect on
its descendants, so as to lay the foundation of a
new breed. I shall not therefore waste words on
this subject.

But it is not difficult to perceive how the proge-
ny of sheep brought from Europe to the West In-
dies should gradually degenerate, till they at last
came not to be distinguishable from the West India
breed, and how of course it should be believed that
this change had been produced by the climate; for
these stranger sheep, blending with the native breed
by procreation, must have the quality of their descen-
dants debased; and by successive intermixtures the

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discendants would gradually approach to the nature
of the native sheep, so as not to be distinguishable
from them after a few generations. Thus, though
the fact be certain, that the descendants of European
sheep in the West Indies do become in time *appa-
rently* the same with the native flock, the infe-
rence, that this effect is produced entirely by the
influence of the climate is erroneous.

Another opinion, probably ingrafted upon the for-
mer, is also very common, viz. that cold climates
only produce fine furs of any sort; and that there-
fore cold is universally requisite for the production
of fine animal filaments. The ermine and the
sable, &c. are found in Siberia; and Siberia they
think is a cold country. But a great part of Sibe-
ria is very hot in summer; and many of these crea-
tures are there found. The fact is, they are found
in every desert region that abounds with wood,
which by furnishing nuts and seeds on which mice
are fed in abundance, the rapacious vermin of the
weasel genus are there collected together in search
of their prey. A cold region is in fact so little sus-
ceptible of converting all kinds of fur into fine fi-
laments, that these regions produce many animals
that afford hairs only of the very coarsest sort. The
wild boar is a native of cold regions; whose hair is
bristles; and few kinds of hair are equal in
hardness to that of the white bear, which inhabits
the icy sea. There seems indeed to be no con-
nection whatever between the fineness of the
fur of the native animals of any country, and the
temperature of its climate. The cattle of Louisia-

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na, which is a region far warmer than almost any parts of Europe, produce a kind of hair soft like silk; whereas the hair of our cattle is stiff and rigid: The beaver, which carries the closest fur, and among the finest yet known, is a native of the same regions;—and the camel, which can only live in tropical regions, and among burning sands, produces hair that is soft and elastic as wool. The porcupine, on the other hand, which produces quilts instead of hair, is a native of the same regions with the beaver; and the hedge-hog, covered with pointed spines, inhabits the same countries with the sable and the ermine.

Every kind of animal produces the filamentous covering peculiar to itself, some of them fine and others coarse, but always of the same nature wherever that animal can be made to live. And as we find animals that produce both fine and coarse furs in almost every region of the globe, there seems to be no reason to believe that climate alone affects the fur of any animals farther than what has been above remarked of the wool of sheep alone.

Natural causes may however, in certain circumstances, determine animals of a certain class to inhabit certain regions in preference to others, and these accidentally concurring with preconceived ideas respecting climate, may tend to cherish these notions; for wherever the favourite food of one class of animals is found in abundance, there it also will abound.

By attending to the facts brought forward by Dr Pallas, and the elucidations, which these have produced, it will be easy also to perceive how it may

naturally be expected that fine wool should be produced in temperate climates, rather than in those which are subjected to the extremes of heat and cold; without ascribing any part of that effect to the influence of Climate. In warm regions, wool is an object of much less importance to the inhabitants; than in those that are colder; for there, it is less fitted for clothing to the natives than other productions of those climates; the natives therefore, inattentive to the fleece of their sheep will as readily propagate those which produce thin fleeces or coarse wool, as those which afford the finest wool, and closest fleeces. But in cold climates where the fleece becomes an object of great importance to the rearer; this will not be the case. The wool-grower will therefore banish from his flock those that have thin fleeces, and propagate in their stead such only as have close fleeces, if in other respects they are suited to his views; and this care continued for a course of ages we have already seen, must produce a very great change upon the general quality of the whole race. Close fleeces may thus be expected to abound much more in cold than in warm regions.

But *fine* fleeces, and those affording wool without hairs, may be, for another reason, expected to be met with more frequent in temperate than in very cold regions. It happens, that in the temperate regions of Europe, the inhabitants in general are more civilized, and carry on manufactures in wool to a much greater extent than in the colder frigid regions of the north. But a man who carries his wool to the manufacturer, quickly perceives that coarse wool, or such

fleeces as abound in hairs, however fine the wool itself may be in other respects, are rejected by the manufacturer, and bring a much smaller price than those which have no hairs among the wool. He will therefore in the same manner try to get rid of such sheep as produce coarse wool, or wool that is intermixed with hairs; and thus these kinds of sheep will gradually disappear in those regions. But in colder climates where the unmanufactured wool, unseparated from the skin, is made use of by the natives for clothing, fine clean wool will not be so valuable in many cases such as is coarser or more hairy. To them it is the *quantity* and strength rather than the *fineness* of the wool that constitutes its value. Accordingly we find that among the Russians and Finns they prefer to all others such sheep as produce coarse shaggy wool resembling the hair of goats; as being warm, and more durable than they are. The natives therefore rear these coarse-wool-bearing sheep rather than any others.

Thus it happens that from the operation of *moral* causes alone, and not in the least from the physical effect of climate, coarse hairy wool may be expected to be found alike in the regions that are exposed to the extremes of heat, and of cold; though from the same causes, we can only expect to find sheep that carry very thin fleeces in the warmer parts of the globe.

The substances treated of in this essay, which spring from animal bodies, and which agree with vegetables
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in their gradual growth, in their want of animal sensation, and in their reproduction after they have been cut over, may be reducible to the following classes.

Horns, hoofs, nails or claws, &c. bristles, hair, wool, feathers, down, quills, like those of the porcupine and hedge-hog. Of a doubtful nature, as being uncertain whether they possess animal sensation or not, though they doubtless vegetate, are tusks of the elephant, walrus, &c. scales of some land animals, and most fishes, fins and shells both of land animals and fishes. These last have somewhat the appearance of being excrementous concretions. Of a nature certainly possessing animal sensation, though they in peculiar circumstances advance in size, as vegetables are, spurs, like those of the cock and some other animals, the combs of cocks, and several other fowls, wattles, spines of the sea urchin, sea egg, and many others, &c. It would be desirable to have the distinguishing characteristics of each of these accurately described, and their peculiar qualities ascertained.

An attempt has been made in this essay to discriminate wool from hair, and to distinguish several kinds of hairs from each other, which may serve as a slight commencement of these disquisitions.

ON THE DELAYS INCIDENT TO THE COURT
OF SESSION.

Continued from p. 181.

To the Lord President of the Court of Session.

LETTER XI.

MY LORD,

BESIDES excluding suspensions on *uninstructed* counter-claims, other two points would be gained by the alterations proposed in my last. No time would be lost in finding caution.* And no *second* or *third* bills of suspension would be presented, either to gain time for reclaiming, or on new allegations in point of fact.

An exception would no doubt fall to be made as to second bills of suspension in some particular cases.— For example I may be charged for a debt that was due by my *ancestor* or *author*, and may present a bill of suspension, on *grounds of law*, and after my bill has been refused, I may discover that the debt has been paid, and may even find a discharge of it. In such a case it ought surely to be competent to present a second bill of suspension, and to produce the discharge along with it.

I made mention to your Lordship of a difficulty about fixing a time for lodging answers to a bill of

* I have known a year consumed, before the caution was either received or a certificate issued that no caution was paid.

suspension. When a sist is intimated to the charger, from thence forward, he may lay his account with lying out of his money probably for years. He cannot therefore be so very solicitous to put in his answers without a moment's delay. On the other hand the suspender has no desire to push forward the matter, as his sist is deemed valid until his bill be refused.

I have even known it happen, that the suspender never thought of intimating his sist at all, but kept it about him to protect his person and property, while the charger was balancing in his own mind whether to proceed to ultimate diligence against him or not.

Matters often ly over so long, sometimes after a sist, and sometimes when a bill is past and no caution found, that the creditor rather than take the trouble of tracing the former proceedings, follows the illegal mode of giving a new charge, so as to bring forward his debtor with a new bill of suspension.

There is nothing in effect to compel a suspender to intimate his sist within any given time; or indeed to intimate it at all, if his own situation can admit of the contrary;* and consequently no time is laid down, within which, the charger must put in his answers.

If the sist were once intimated, a charger in any part of the kingdom, could lodge his answers within a month after the intimation, failing of which, the

* Although the *deliverance* upon a bill of suspension appoints intimation to be made, yet that, as explained by practice, means only that the bill shall not be *passed* without being intimated.

clerk might be ordained to get the bill passed, and have the caution received *in absense*.

The principal bills and sist are, by act of sederunt; kept under the power of the clerk to the bills, it being only a certified copy that is sent to the country for intimation. An injunction to the clerk would be punctually followed, as the contrary might affect his character and might induce an injured party to seek redress by an action against *him*.

He might also be ordained to have the bill refused in case no execution of intimation be reported to him, *and no copy bespoke*, within one month from the date of the sist. But if a copy is bespoke or answers lodged, that ought, as at present, to be held equal to an intimation. And the date of *marking for a copy*, ought to be distinctly kept by the clerk, so as the time allowed for lodging answers, may run from that date.

When a bill of suspension is thus refused the clerk ought to be strictly prohibited from receiving a new bill against the same charge, or rather against any charge, for the same debt. And thus the suspender would very justly be left to *pay under protest*, and betake himself to the remedy of an action of repetition.

A useful regulation might I think, be made for compelling a suspender to *expede, execute, call*, and *inroll his letters*, each within a reasonable space, and a similar regulation to expedite the executing calling and inrolling of summonses, under pain that the *instance* shall perish. Whereas these matters are left at present with the pursuer of the suspension or

summons, or with the opposite party, and between them the matter sometimes lies over for an almost incredible length of time.

The pursuer of a suspension seldom or never inclines to go on further, after his letters are expedited. And the forms of court are such that the pursuer of a summons, may allow it to ly over for *a year* without executing, and for *another year* without calling it after it is executed.

Being once called, either a suspension or a summons, remains in force for 40 years, and does not even require a summons of *wakening*, if moved in once a year. After an action too is enrolled and even called before the judge, great delay may ensue. Procefs may be *sisted* until a relative action be raised and brought into court; or *avisandum* may be made and the procefs not be *transmitted*; or any other measure of delay may be adopted, that happens to be suggested either by ingenuity and art in the one party or by want of vigour and exertion in the other; in place of the cause being pleaded and forwarded in the manner it ought.

These are bad forms, my Lord, in a court of law where both parties may be, and often are equally prone to delay. If the forms were better, the judges would have less drudgery, and we should have less cause to complain of their slowness in advising their causes. I am &c.

LENTULUS.

CHARACTER OF A PROFESSOR IN A CELEBRATED UNIVERSITY, BY A FOREIGN LADY ON A VISIT TO SCOTLAND

Translated from the French by ARCTICUS.

AS you seem so highly pleased with the extract I sent you last autumn, from the correspondence of a foreign lady on a visit to Scotland, I shall endeavour to translate the character she drew at that time, of a particular friend of her husband, as I think with you that the *fair sex* have a manner peculiar to themselves, of seeing and describing objects, and that with a delicacy of thought and stile, which we masculine mortals never can come up to.

Edinburgh June the 20th, 1786.

You possibly may think, my good lord and master, in all your masculine pride, that we pretty triflers, as you are arrogantly pleased to call us, are incapable of appreciating the lords of the creation (another poetic licence you are pleased to take when talking of your precious selves;) but to show how much you are mistaken I will paint your own friend in such true colours, and give such a likeness of him that you shall be forced to call out with Pilate

Behold the man.

His first appearance is rather a little stately, which a stranger might take for pride, especially as it is accompanied with rather a cold manner; but that apparent coldness which I have so often bantered him upon; is but the effect of the little desire he has to

shine ; for I verily believe he never in his life, laid a plan either to shine or captivate, although he does both every day of it. It is only the impresson made on him by others, that beams in his eyes, and animates his modest figure. You must therefore interest and rouse his attention, if you wish to enjoy all the amiability of his character, for till you have vanquished that natural indolence of disposition, or as I have named it above, that little desire to shine, he is rather a spectator, than an actor in mixed company. But your trouble is well recompens'd when you have gained that point, as it is then that his countenance expresses every sentiment that passes in his mind ; and surely never were the *expressions* of the heart, more true, or more touching, than in your friend, during these moments ; although you must keep *them* alive, for if an instant left to himself he falls back again into that state of seeming apathy, which must impress a stranger, as it did me at first, with the idea of indifference, although in fact, no man means less to show neglect to those he converses with, as he is really a compound of sensibility and philanthropy, insomuch that I am convinced the misfortunes of his friends must be calamities to himself.

I never saw him witty merely for the sake of being so : it would seem on the contrary, as if all his ideas took origin from the objects which present in the moment, for he has none of those flashes of *artificial fire*, depending on a play of words, and smartness of expression, which we too often confound with *wit* ; his is of the genuine kind, arising from bril-

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liancy of ideas, and expressed in a natural language just calculated to convey them; nay, it is evidently the production of genius, joined to an intuitive manner of extracting Attic salt, from whatever is under discussion; so that we neither perceive in the instantaneous operation, the efforts of reason or art.— Like the giant of romance he feels not his own strength, being never obliged to make an exertion, or put it to trial. All the virtues of this worthy man have the same stamp, so that he excels by dint of merit, whilst claiming none.

It is not in the great world, nor in a large circle he discovers all the riches of his mind, but in a small company of friends and intimates; except unfortunately a stranger should intrude, when he shrinks back like the snail into his shell, and leaves such a vacuum as is not easily filled up.

It is admirable to see such a man leave his profound speculations and studies, to enter into all the *ludinage* of youth, as he often does in his own family, or where he is very intimate; indeed he has neither the pedantry nor pretensions of the learned of certain countries which I have visited in my travels; and I must pay you a compliment on the manners of those of yours in general, who assume nothing, and are not to be distinguished in society from other well bred gentlemen, either by *starch* or *learned jargon*.

But to finish the picture of your friend, as I know my painting amuses you, no one obliges with more nobleness and generosity; as every thing he does proceeds from *la plus belle ame que fut jamais*.

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The beauty of this last phrase I do not pretend to be able to equal in our language, so have left it in the original; we might say, *from the noblest soul ever man possessed*, but that wants in my opinion the charming simplicity and delicacy of the French sentence. However, possibly you may be more fortunate in a synonyme than your correspondent,

ARCTICUS.

ALLADIN THE PERSIAN, AN EASTERN TALE.

Continued from p. 218.

CHAPTER VIII.

The travels of Alladin.

ALLADIN had yielded to the advice of his friends, and had set out with the Calender. They had travelled through many provinces, made themselves acquainted with their different productions, and their commerce; and also examined with attention the manners of the inhabitants, and the conduct of the governors, the greater part of whom appeared to him made up of vanity and indolence, eager to grasp at power, in order to delegate it to subalterns: contented to have the outward shew of authority, they thought they fulfilled all their duties, by giving grand entertainments to the principal inhabitants of the principal cities, which they passed rapidly through, and where the people were eager to present them with petitions which they never read. He saw that the farther power was extended the more oppressive it became, and that frequently the whole turned on the will or activity of the lowest scribe.

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Alladin,—a tale.

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Alladin made a singular remark on the use and exercise of authority. He met with many governors whom he had seen at court, and who had there the most polite and engaging manners, and whom he had believed good tempered and humane. These same men at a distance from the court, and clothed with power, were jealous to a degree, of their most trifling prerogatives; quarrelsome, and full of pride. They are trifling characters, said the Calender, easily intoxicated. Power is like wine, it reveals the real characters.

Alladin and the Calender in the course of their travels went to a celebrated fair, which was attended by merchants from all parts of the world. They set out mounted on Arabian horses. The day and the country were equally fine; great crowds of people on foot and on horseback were on the road, and the Calender made his observations on the different manners of them: his experience and his habitude of observation pointed out to him the different countries they came from. A man paused near them on an afs. This man, said Alladin, will not arrive quite so soon as us. The travellers in continuing their road, saw on an eminence at no great distance, the ruins of an ancient temple. Alladin anxious to see more of it proposed to the Calender turning out of the road to see it. Their curiosity was satisfied. They found amidst the ruins, some parts more perfect than the rest, which enabled them to judge of the beauty and magnificence of the building when entire. They traced out inscriptions, which the Calender, who was acquainted with many

languages explained ; and conversed with his friend on the events to which these inscriptions related. It was painful to them to quit a spot which retraced to their memory so many great events. The aspect of old monuments inspires reflection, and above all produces it in minds that pant after glory : it awakens also sensibility in presenting the idea of such a multitude of races that have disappeared from the face of the earth since the times when these buildings were inhabited. The examining these ruins had made them lose much time ; but the velocity of their horses took from them any uneasiness of not arriving before the gates were shut. They were shortly after stopped by the cries of a dying man, who had been attacked and cruelly treated by robbers. Alladin hastened to assist him,—tore off his turban to bind up his wounds ; and when informed of his residence, the two friends placed him on a horse, and led him to a neighbouring village. The poor man collected strength enough to thank them : You are more charitable, (said he,) than one of my neighbours who has just passed before you on an ass ; he was afraid of being too late, and would not stop. The travellers, happy in having done a good act, continued their road, and came to a wood of orange and pomgranate trees, shaded by palm trees of great size : a small and clear rivulet ran through it ; the beauty of the place, added to the want of food, induced them to stop, and order their provisions to be laid out on the turf. After they had dined, Alladin and the Calender made many reflections on the ruins they had seen, and on the inscriptions, which contained an enumeration of the troops

of the empire, of the tributes, and added that the library of the monarch consisted of 200,000 volumes. "How happy should I have been, said Alladin, to have lived in such times; don't you believe the time will come when knowledge will be universally spread, and all mankind will be informed?" The Calender shook his head, and lifted up his hand, in sign of disapprobation. Alladin went on, "when mankind shall have excited the strength of their minds, the number of good books will be immense." "It is the number of writings, said the Calender,—it is the facility of scribbling which will check the energy of genius. In considering that crowd of writers of the times you speak of, I think I see a multitude of dwarfs mounted on the shoulders of each other, and congratulating themselves on being got to such a height; whilst the man who by his own force, and with one single effort arrives there, will despise a glory of which each dwarf may claim a part."

Alladin had an ardent thirst after science and knowledge; morality was peculiarly attractive to his ardent and observing mind. In the course of the conversation with the Calender, "Could you, said he, teach me to know mankind?" "It would be like as if you said to me teach me to see; one only knows the road on which he has passed, Alladin." "But is there no general maxim which would prevent from committing errors, if it does not point out the exact truth? Men are they good, are they wicked?" "Both one and the other, replied the Calender; the most part are neither one nor other. One of the greatest causes of deception is acting with them as if they

were steady and consequential. Man is so subject to change that one is often mistaken in thinking he is not affected by any event, because he appears calm and indifferent: it is like arguing that it has not rained an hour ago, because the sky is serene at the moment. We are variable beings, and we are to form our opinions of such. Sometimes we believe others have changed, when it is we ourselves that have altered our minds. We are, like passengers in a boat, who as the boat leaves the shore, fancy the shore is going from us. We love, we hate, we despise;—how is it possible to form a clear judgement across so many obstacles raised by different passions? “But those devoid of feelings, said Alladin” . . . ‘do not judge better. There must be a certain connection of sentiments and situations to enable one to form a true judgement. He who has never felt the power of love, can give no better idea of it than the jealous man who sees it where it never existed.’ Alladin still added, “I have heard a philosopher deny such a thing to exist as friendship; and my heart that suffers from such a calumny contradicts it: don’t you believe my dear Calender that friendship does exist?” ‘I believe in it as in beauty and genius. These supreme advantages are scarce, but they certainly exist. All men are not capable of feeling and enjoying of friendship, as all are not endowed with organs to feel fine harmony; but, if you will make a few exceptions, it always pleases.’ “Do you believe, said Alladin, that there is a country where mankind is happy?” ‘Yes, that where the climate is the most beautiful, and wants easiest supplied.’ The two friends loved each other: their minds were united

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and they enjoyed each other's conversation in the fullest confidence. Time slid on apace;—the setting sun advertised them to continue their road. By leaping this ditch, said the Calender, we shall shorten it, and avoid a long circuit: the horses which had been fed, leaped lightly over; and they saved at least half a league: by quickening their pace they came to the town a quarter of an hour before the gates were shut. As they entered a caravansera, they saw on the steps the man whom they had passed mounted on an afs, who by his appearance seemed to have refreshed himself, and to have been arrived some time. "I think I see your cousin Salem, said the Calender." "What connection is there between that man and my cousin," said Alladin? "The most perfect. Your cousin is mounted on an afs, that keeps going on with an uniform pace: your horse is full of fire and vigour; but the eagerness of your mind after knowledge, makes you feel a thousand wants, which turn you from the road to fortune: your sensibility has detained you to assist a poor dying man; the pleasures of friendship and society have made you lose your time in the grove of orange trees. The man on the afs has arrived here before you, and Salem also will be before hand with you." "What then, said Alladin, is a fine horse good for?" "If the Sultan had business of the greatest importance to be executed, and which required dispatch, the afs of your cousin, said the Calender, would be distanced and you will have completed the business before he has got a league of the way; but there are not often need of racers; aises in general are sufficient.

to be continued.

POETRY.

ON RETIREMENT.

For the Bee.

BE gone! ye noxious pleasures of the town,
Where *riot, vice, and dissipation* stalk
With giant stride: ye, gladly, I'd forgo,
For joys, *unmix'd with guilt*; for rural groves,
Where *health and innocence*, triumphant, reign.

Hark! in the windings of yon shady copse,
What charming concert lives! The juyous birds,
In lofty accents, carol forth their lays,
And deal a vocal harmony around!
Their thousand various notes (melodious more
Than am'rous strains of midnight serenade,
With which Italian youths their fair one greet)
Surcharge the breeze and echo o'er the plain.
Loud, and more loud, their tuneful airs prevail,
And mount into the sky! Ye happy tribes!
No racking cares afflict your tender breasts,
Or from your eyes extract the frequent tear:
But, undisturb'd, you rove from hill to dale,
'Till silent night begins her cheerless reign,
And spreads her sable mantle o'er the world;
Then, to some unrequented glade retir'd,
Far distant from the waik of dreaded man,
Or savage school boy's ever-hated haunt,
You lull yourselves to rest. When smiling morn,
Array'd in brightness and majestic pomp,
Dispels the dreary gloom, you all again,
In happy strains, resume your wonted song.
O CONTEMPLATION come! light up my soul!
And whilst I wander o'er the flow'ry dale,
Or bend my course along the forest's glade,
Oh, let me not forget to muse on Him,
The great, th' eternal Sovereign of the skies;
Who form'd the azure canopy above,
And gave creation birth! Who made us man,
In image *nearest to his sacred self*!
Can I behold this variegated mead,
Yon boundless sky, that veils imperial Heav'n;
Yon flaming sun, who wheels his rapid course
Along the wide immensity of space,
And yet, forget the God, whose potent word,
From *Chaos* rude, and infinite opaque,

Confirm'd them what they are? It cannot be!
Reason condemns absurdity so gross;
 Nor will admit, that man, *distinguish'd* man,
 Can be so far embruted, as to fall
 In lasting wonder, and unceasing praise.
 Deign, mighty God, to fill my humble soul
 With *adoration, gratitude, and awe!*
 And help me, henceforth ever to extol
 Thy sacred wisdom and thy boundless love!

Abstracted from the world, blest *HEALTH* secures,
RETIREMENT: mid thy shades, and native groves,
 Her constant reign. No sickly steams exhale
 Around thy happy plains; no fetid scents
 Of noisome stews, thy air, salubrious, taint.
 Seldom, destructive *pestilence* is known
 To sweep thy humble cottagers away,
 Or stalk within thy reach: it most delights
 To spread its havoc in the crowded town,
 And city's swarm, where to its direful rage
 (As hapless London can too well declare *)
 Thousands on thousands oft, lamented fall.
 Thou, too, oh heav'n-born *INNOCENCE!* abhor'st
 The city's guileful joys; and tak'st thy stand
 Amid *RETIREMENT's* walks; where no fell scenes
 Of lewd intrigue, or foul debauch, employ
 Nocturnal hours, but where the peasant calm
 As summer seas, when not a breath of air
 Their surface skims, hies early to his couch,
 And rises, cheerfully, at dawn of day.
RELIGION, too, fair offspring of the skies,
 Is in *RETIREMENT* found: 'Tis there she keeps
 Her happy court, untainted by the world,
 Whose gilded pleasures (fraught with bitter woe!)
 Intrude not to molest her sacred sway:
 'Tis there, a thoughtful mind, in every scene,
 May meditate at large; there undisturb'd,
 And fearless of th' opprobrious sneer of man,
 Break forth in raptures on almighty *LOVE*:
 There 'tis that blest philosophy is gain'd,
 Which, in the trying awful hour of death,
 (When earth and all its vanities will prove
 No more of moment than a grain of dust)
 Will stand our sole support, and safely wing
 Our souls immortal to the realms of bliss.

* Alluding to the ever memorable plague in London.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON THE CORN RETURNS.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

THE public are certainly much obliged to you for directing their attention occasionally, in the course of your publication, to objects of great importance. In that class I reckon the letter to Mr Calderwood, published in last week's *Bee*, to hold a conspicuous rank. In addition to what you have there said I beg leave to state a few supplementary facts, which I request the favour of you to insert as early as possible.

At this moment there is in Leith harbour, a vessel with a considerable cargo of wheat bought by a merchant here from another in England. It chanced that the merchant from whom the wheat was ordered lives on the banks of a small navigable river which divides two counties, and he purchased so much of the cargo on one side the river, and so much of it on the other side of it. Both were sent together to Leith, without the merchant here having known any thing of this circumstance. But it has since been discovered here, that exportation was allowable from the county where the merchant lives, though not from the other. The wheat that came from the first is therefore allowed to be landed; but that which came from the last must be returned.

Another case. A large vessel belonging to another merchant is now also in Leith harbour with a cargo of wheat; which having come from a county whose *nominal* prices were higher than here, though the *real* selling price was lower, it cannot here be landed at all, and must be returned.

A third vessel is under contract to fetch wheat from Lynn in Norfolk. It was taken up more than a fortnight ago with orders to sail directly, so as to be here before the 15th of the month; as nobody can tell how the prices may stand after that period. The contrary winds prevented the vessel from sailing; and the merchant finds it prudent rather to give the captain of the vessel a considerable sum to free him from the contract than allow him to proceed *now* on that voyage.

While all these things are going on, the bakers are experiencing a very great hardship for want of wheat. There are at present, to my knowledge, at least twenty-one bakers in Edinburgh who have not a single boll of old wheat in their possession, and who would purchase it at almost any price; but it cannot be had. And there is not in Leith, or the lofts belonging to the bakers, as much wheat as can supply the consumption of Leith and Edinburgh for a fortnight.

I myself know something of the trade in corn; and I know, that under the operation of the present law, no merchant who gives an order can be *certain* that he can be supplied with the quantity ordered, without being liable to immense losses which he cannot foresee or guard against, which renders him timid and insecure, and greatly enhances the prices to the public.

It is easy to foresee many cases in which this law may be the source of grievous calamities to the country; I shall put one that may naturally enough happen. Suppose that in a particular district a very rainy harvest were to happen, as in 1744, so that the corn in general was sprung, and of a very bad quality, so as not to be worth, perhaps more than half the price of *good grain well got*: the consequence must be that the *real* selling price of that kind of corn in that district must be

very low in comparison of that in the places where the corn is good; and the returns, if fair, must be so also. In consequence of these returns, exportation may be allowable in the first district, while it is forbid in the last; though the *real* selling price of good grain be much higher in the first than in the last. What must be the consequence? No grain can be imported from abroad; none can be transported to it coastwise; so that the inhabitants must be starved, if they cannot bring it by land; and be reduced to live upon their own unwholesome corn, till the price of that very bad stuff shall rise to equal the *good* corn of other districts, before they can be permitted to have a single peck of good wholesome corn. This very case nearly took place with regard to *pease* in this county last year.

Leith 13 Dec. 1793.

MERCATOR.

TRAVELLING MEMORANDUMS

Continued from p. 110.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I WROTE to you from Tyrole, and gave you some cursory hints, concerning the magnificence and grotesque appearance of the Alpine mountains; Perhaps some account of their texture and component parts may be amusing to you. The Alpine mountains of Tyrole are chiefly composed of fine white stratified limestone, disposed in an horizontal position; and to me, who am accustomed to view nature in her great works and magnificent forms, this immense accumulation of lime is astonishing. Regular continued strata of limestone, began to appear by the road side, about two miles south of Heildesburg; and it continued with me in my way by Augsburg, Inspruck, Trent, Verona, &c. as far as I saw stone in my road to Venice,

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with very little interruption for about six or seven hundred miles, of which about 400 was through lofty Alpine mountains. In this great length of road, and variety of country, more than nine parts of ten, were exceeding fine, and remarkably white limestone, which mounted up the highest crags, and loftiest pinnacles of these mountains.

Any other rocks that appeared as a variation, were here and there thick beds of hard red granite; and in one place about ten miles south of Inspruck, a strong micaceous mountain rock, of a striated texture, or longitudinal grain, like timber, appeared by the road side for a mile or two, and then it was again succeeded by the prevailing limestone; and when I saw rock any where in the road all the way to Venice, it was always limestone of a fine light colour: however, it must be observed, that in some hills of a moderate height, situated north of the road from Verona to Padua, there are besides the limestone, considerable rocks of a friable blackish basalts alternately with the lime, with some pit coal, and several argillaceous strata of several colours; but without any freestone, as I have yet seen.

This immense quantity of limestone in one country, is a curious phenomenon in the history of the mineral kingdom. Much of this stone is nearly as white as chalk, and it is so fine and pure, that the lime made with it is as white as snow. I had often heard much about the great height of the Alps; but till I went through them, I had no idea of their being so very high as they really are. The road to Italy by Inspruck is undoubtedly the best passage through them. When I first entered among these stupendous piles of mountains, I expected to have much to ascend in the northern parts of them, and as much to descend again farther south; but to my great surprise, the

first hundred miles of road was much upon a level, and though we now and then went a little up and down, in general, I thought we descended more than we ascended, till we came within two posts of Inspruct in Tyrole; and there I observed the post boy carried materials with him for locking a wheel; and he soon made use of it. We descended rapidly several miles down what might be called a great declivity, and I imagined we should soon have the tedious painful task of ascending as much and more; but to my great surprise and amazement, instead of climbing a hill, we were suddenly precipitated into a narrow steep road cut in the solid rock. The driver was a clever, stout young fellow. He had a pair of fine young horses, which he fearlessly drove with amazing velocity down this precipice. At first I was amused by the novelty of the scene; and being surrounded with woods, I had no apprehension of danger: but after several zig zag turnings, and the wood growing thinner, to my great astonishment I discovered a valley at such an immense distance below me, that the eye could discern nothing distinct in it, though almost perpendicularly under me.

We continued to descend with still increasing velocity. The valley seemed to sink to a more profound depth as we descended down towards it; but when the tall wood was vanished, and prodigious precipices appeared below me, with only a narrow road, cut out of the naked perpendicular rock, and the valley still at an immense distance below, though not timorous, the imagination and the mind were shocked to such a degree that I was incapable of minding any thing, but the awfulness and danger of the scene. If any the least article about the horses or carriage had broken, good night to all. Men and horses must have tumbled down a precipice many thousand yards, and be dashed to ten thousand atoms before

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1793.

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we reached the bottom. None should ride down here. At last the driver was obliged to stop in a siding (cut in the rock for the purpose) to let a waggon pass that was going up. I gladly embraced the opportunity to go out, and then I could look about, and contemplate the several objects around me. The valley now appeared nearer; and it was beautiful indeed, and adorned with numerous villages, and rich in the various productions of a warm and salubrious climate; but the principal object of my attention was the amazing height from which I had descended. When I came to the bottom, and was at a due distance from the foot of the rocks, the hills I came down from were of vast altitude,—as I then judged, more than a mile and an half of perpendicular height above the valley. This appeared to me at first highly problematical; however, I was at last obliged to have recourse to the true explanation of the mystery, which is this. I had without knowing it, been gradually ascending all the way through Flanders, Brabant, Leige, and Germany; and when I thought myself low in the plains of Augsburg, which continued nearly on a level far into the Alps, I was then on an elevated plain, about two miles of perpendicular height above the level of the sea. I was afterwards confirmed in this idea, when I considered that the Danube has more than two thousand miles to run from Augsburg to the Black sea. When I left the fine valley of Inspruck, we ascended gradually three posts, which I judged not half the perpendicular of what we descended from the north, and here we began to descend rapidly towards the south, along with the source of the river Adige, which at first was scarce big enough to water a horse; however by the addition of collateral streams, it soon became a large river, and our road continued parallel to it, to our great annoyance, as it roared and foamed below us in its

precipitous course, above 100 miles, till we reached Egna, in the Italian Tyrole, and there I was confident of being near a mile lower than at Inspruck; but I thought from the placid appearance of the river here, that I was now nearly as low as the plains of Italy. In some excursions from Egna, I was about two miles of perpendicular height above the valley and river Adige, and from thence I saw high mountains westward, towards the Grizon's country, entirely covered with snow in October, when there was very little on the highest mountains of Tyrole. When I left Egna, to my great surprise, the Adige soon began to assume its former rapidity; and it continued to fall with precipitation all the way to Verona, above 100 miles, and even there its stream is still rapid. I had no means of finding the real altitude of the Alpine mountains, but from all these circumstances I judge, that the highest I saw near the Grizons are about five miles of perpendicular height above the sea.

EXPLORATOR.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE Editor has once more to express his most grateful acknowledgements to his much esteemed correspondent *Arcticus* for some farther valuable communications just received, to which he wishes it may be in his power, to do that justice they deserve.

The hints from a respectable and reverend subscriber respecting the poor laws, are gratefully received, and would have been more fully noticed here, if the room had permitted.

Acknowledgements to several other correspondents deferred from the same cause.

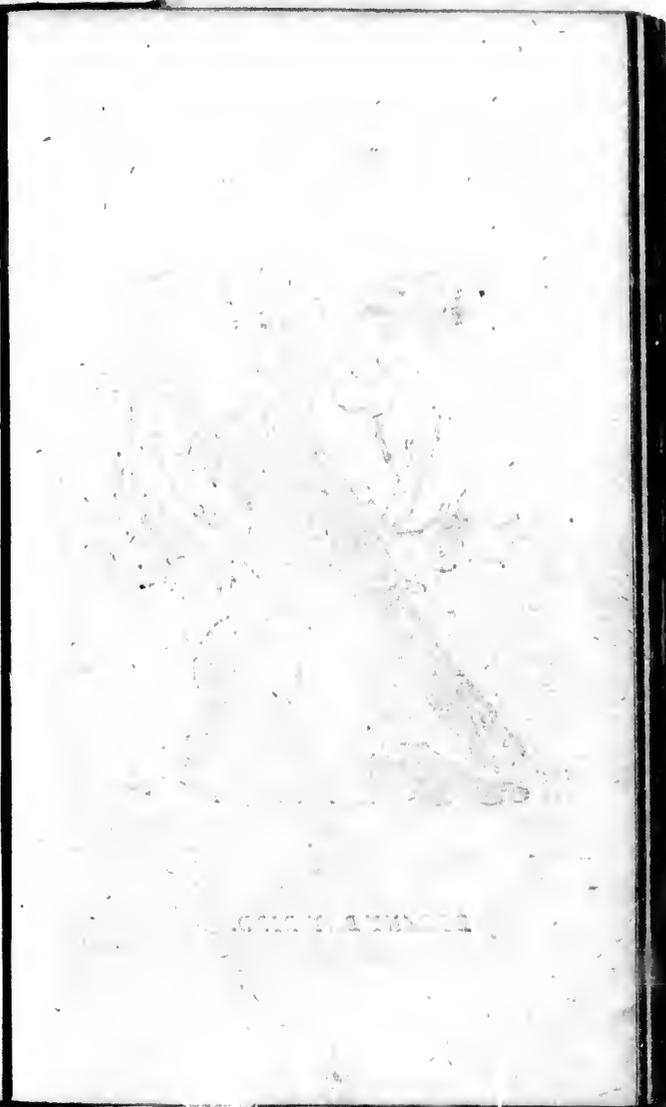
* * * The Editor is sorry to find that during his absence several typographical errors have been allowed to escape in some late numbers, which he hopes his readers will excuse; they will be noticed in the errata at the end of the volume.

Dec. 18.

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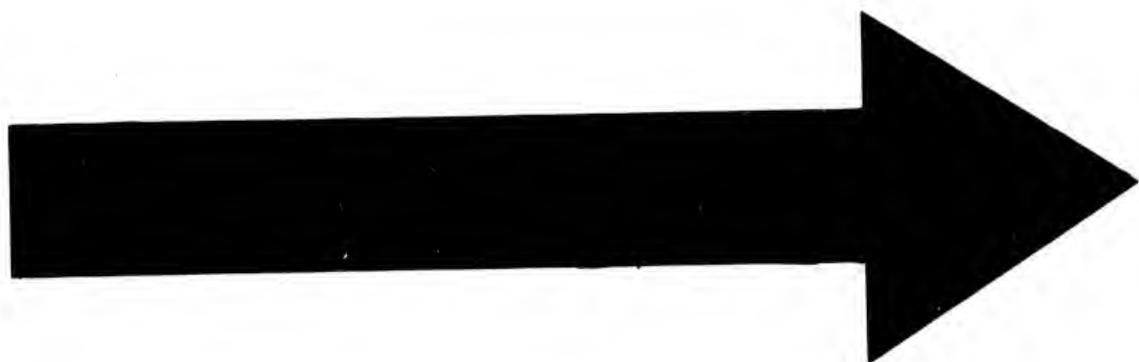
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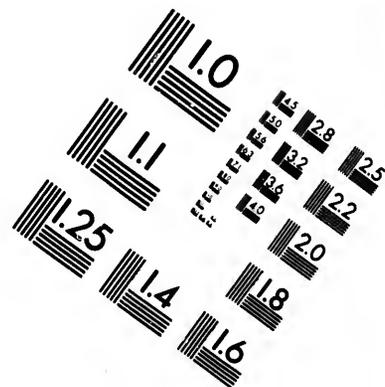
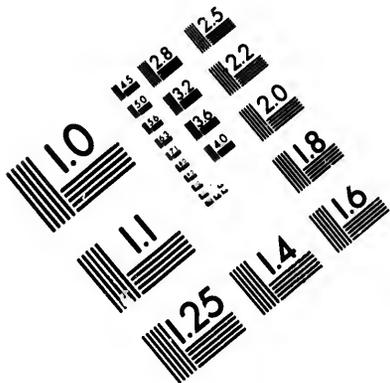
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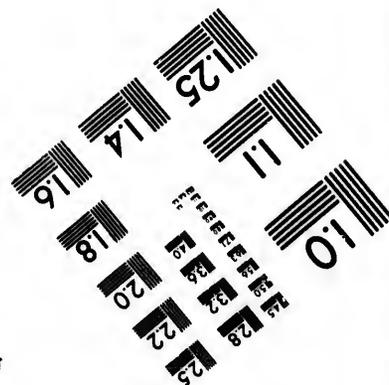
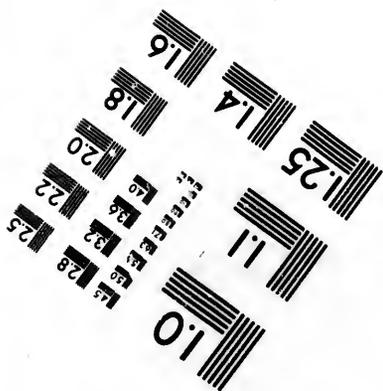
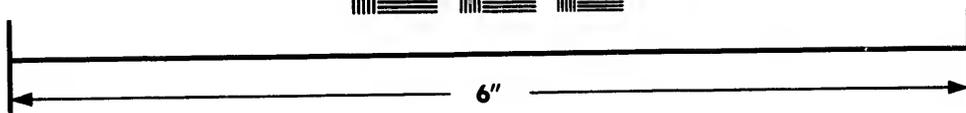
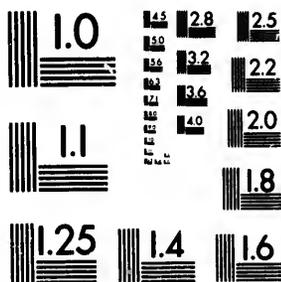


BOTANY BAY BIRD.





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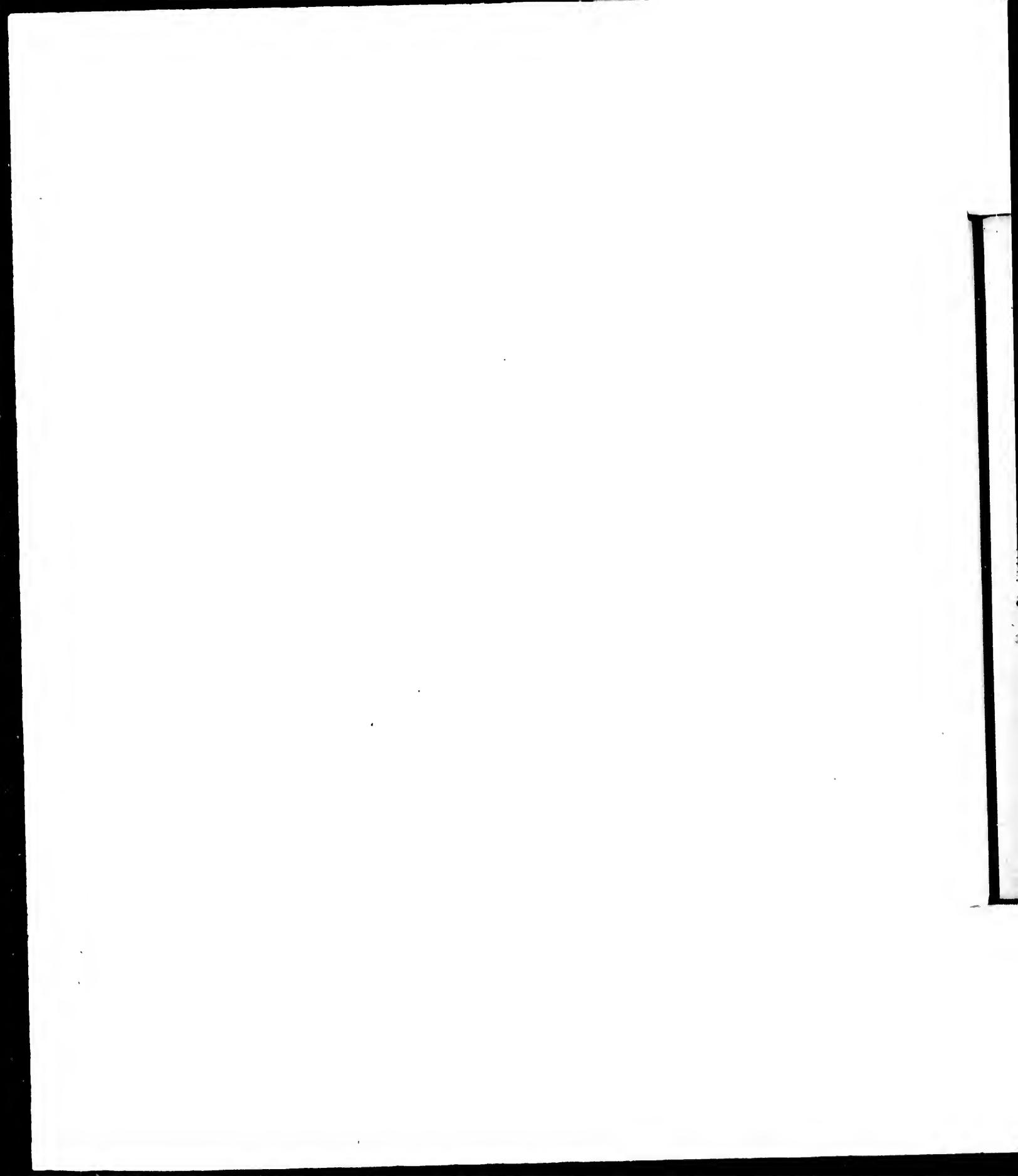
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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, DECEMBER 25. 1793.

BOTANY-BAY BIRD.

With a figure.

THIS beautiful bird, which is evidently of the parrot tribe, though in its elegance of figure it nearly resembles the pheasant, was shot in New South Wales, and forms one of a numerous collection of drawings now in the possession of the Editor.

Its head, breast, the triangular spot on its rump, and thighs, are of a bright scarlet colour. Its neck is of the same scarlet, spotted with black. The back is black edged with the same scarlet, forming a shell-like appearance. Its tail and rump beneath the scollops are of a dark blue, as are also the long wing feathers; but the upper coverts of the wings are of a beautiful purple colour. A small streak of blue also appears on the throat immediately below the bill, which is of a slaty grey. The whole of the colours are very brilliant, and it is one of the most beautiful birds of this class.

VOL. xviii.

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This bird bears some resemblance to the *PSITTA-
cus gloriosus* of Shaw, the Pennantian parrot of La-
tham, but it differs in several particulars: we do
not however pretend to say whether it is a varie-
ty of it, or a distinct species.

It measures eight inches and an half in length.

ON THE BEST METHOD OF HEATING DWELLING
HOUSES.

Continued from p. 238.

AFTER premising these observations, I have to
recur to the more irmediate object of this letter,
which is earnestly to sollicit that some more effec-
tual mode may be devised for the equable and tem-
perate heating of houses; or, if such modes are
really practised by the more opulent members of
the community, that means may be found out for
diffusing like improvements among the lower or-
ders, who suffer often severely from the scarcity of
fuel and severity of the weather.

It seems almost needless to point out the incon-
veniences under which we labour at present in this
respect, as they are rendered sufficiently obvious by
our senses: yet many, habituated by long custom,
to bear an evil, which they think it impossible to
remove, do not attend to the intimations of these
faithful monitors; and on that account it may not
be improper to mention a few. If we attend to the
operation of an open fire in warming a room, we shall
find that its continued effect is to produce a current

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1793. *method of heating houses.* 275

of air, which running along the floor necessarily renders the feet cold, even while sitting by the fire-side, while the superior parts are too much heated. This circumstance prevents in a great measure the air in the room from being generally heated; as it is continually changed, and the heated portion uniformly carried up the chimney. Thus the quantity of fuel necessary to warm a room is inconceivably great; and as the warm air is constantly carried off, it requires a great fire to extend its influence to the distant parts of the apartment, which are therefore in general cold, while the heat near the fire is unbearable.

I am sensible that this very circumstance I have mentioned, *viz.* that an open fire produces a current of air, is what has been held forth as a strong argument in favour of our mode of heating our houses. This is founded on very plausible grounds; that is, on a supposition that by the operation of fire the air in the rooms is continually changed, and by that means kept always in a state of purity. To form a proper opinion on this subject, it would be necessary to inquire into the sources of contamination, as well as to guess at the process used by nature in the purification of defiled air; and by the bye, this is most probably connected with the very structure of that fluid itself, and therefore, as not depending on external circumstances, may take place in a room as well as else where. But as considerations of that kind would perhaps carry me out of my depth and put you out of patience, I shall be contented with pointing out some obvious

facts, which serve to determine us with sufficient certainty in this matter. And,

1. It is undoubtedly true that air loaded with the fumes of burning charcoal; or, if this cannot be admitted, as a decomposition may take place of this pernicious fluid immediately on its production, that air in certain conditions heated by means of burning charcoal in close rooms, does not by any means either extinguish life, or prove detrimental to health. That dry and temperate air, by whatever means procured, is agreeable to our senses, and exhilarates our spirits: and, that the atmospheric air in winter is productive of innumerable diseases. These facts seem incontrovertible; and militate strongly against the notion of those who suppose that a constant current of fresh winter air is either useful or expedient. We hear also of stagnation of air, and of its effects in producing a state in that fluid hurtful to health; but I would ask whether this can take place in a house inhabited. The motion of the bodies of the inhabitants,—their voices,—the opening and shutting of doors, &c. must keep the air in continual agitation. Nay the heating of our houses, in whatever way it is managed, while combustion is made the means of producing warmth, must necessarily change the air every time it is put in practice.

Another inconveniency attending the use of open fires, is, that our houses are not only unequally heated in respect of place, but also in respect of time. We experience ourselves often overheated at night in consequence of a constant fire through the day, but

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our morning hours, which are generally spent in pursuits that can scarce be called active, and which therefore ought principally to be supplied with artificial heat, are cold and uncomfortable: and our rooms only begin to become agreeable at a time when our various avocations call us abroad to use exercise, which renders artificial heat unnecessary. The useless expenditure of fuel is also an inconveniency of the first magnitude. It is not only so on account of the expence; but this expence which is not easily supported by people in ordinary circumstances, obliges us to expend so much on our parlours, dining-rooms, and even *drawing-rooms*, that our passages and bed-rooms remain unheated, for the most part, during the whole winter. On this account, even at home, we are liable to the very danger so loudly exclaimed against, viz. exposing our bodies to the cold air after coming out of heated rooms. This is particularly the case on going into a cold bed-chamber, undressing ourselves in an air which can be little different from the atmospheric air at the same time, and must partake of all its bad qualities. But even allowing the salutary effects of cold air, and that the external air is more pure than that which is artificially warmed; I would ask whether we really enjoy these advantages by sleeping in cold rooms. If the weather is cold we uniformly load ourselves with a heap of bed-clothes, which by accumulating our native heat enable us to resist the atmospheric cold, or in other words deprive us of the advantages supposed to be derived from its application to our bodies. It is on-

ly applied to our face and lungs, and casually to such parts of the body as may be exposed in sleep; but of the danger of this let medical people judge, who unanimously maintain, that a partial application of cold to a heated body, is a most fruitful source of disease. But luckily our senses teach us to avoid this as much as possible, and prompt us to draw our curtains; when, loaded with bed-clothes, and pent up in the narrow limits of a bed, we sleep completely immersed in the most destructive of all fluids, our own effluvia. On the contrary, when we sleep in a temperate room, we have no need of covering more warm than what we wear in the day: our curtains may be safely left open, and the hurtful effects of our effluvia are corrected by being diffused in a more extensive atmosphere.

Health, sir, undoubtedly is the reward of labour, and labour is the only sure means of procuring it: but labour is not all that is necessary to attain it. The labourer will never be healthy unless he is well supplied with food, and protected against certain severities of weather, which even labour cannot enable his body to resist. It seems then an object of the last consequence to devise some means of protecting not only the bodies of the comparatively idle part of the community, but even of labourers, against cold, at a small expence. The only means that my intelligence or experience points out to me to obtain this end, is to communicate heat during the conflagration of fuel, to a body capable of retaining it for some time, and placing this body in such a manner as to communicate the heat it parts with in the process of cool-

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ing, to the atmosphere of the room. This is done in all countries where they use stoves; but there, on account of the severity of the climate, the room is not only heated by the stove itself, but by the charcoal left burning in it. As our weather is never so severe, I imagine that the heat of the stove would be sufficient, and there would be no need of burning charcoal; which though I am well convinced, is perfectly innocent, may to many appear of a dubious nature. I would propose then that the opening in our walls left for the fire-place, should be continued to the ceiling, and this space be built up with bricks, and constructed in such a manner that the heated smoke should be led through them by a tortuous vent, and detained among them as long as possible. By this means they would be heated; which having been done, the cinders or remains of the fire should be removed, and the vent stopped at top. By this means the heat of the bricks would be gradually diffused through the room, and occasion an equable but temperate warmth. As a contrivance of this kind if well executed, so as to detain the greatest possible quantity of the heat produced by a given quantity of fuel, would be a great saving of this article; we should be able to heat our houses in every part more effectually and at less expence, than we can a few rooms in the present mode, by open fires.

I know attempts have been made to introduce the use of stoves even in this country; but these are universally made of cast iron; and by the disagreeable smell they produce, will always be inexpedient. On the contrary, stoves that are constructed of bricks,

or of any of those mixtures which are used in certain species of earthen ware, when heated produce no smell, and can be arranged in such a manner as not only to be not ugly, but even to be made a most elegant ornament to an apartment.

I have to solicit your excuse for entering transiently into subjects that to do justice to them would require greater qualifications than I possess and more room than you can spare; and at the same time to express how sincerely I am, sir, your humble servant

Edin. 13. Dec. 1793.

REDUX.

OBSERVATIONS ON NATURAL HISTORY.

Continued from p. 64.

COLYMBUS Grylle:

Black Guillemot.

THIS bird is described by Linæus thus, "Corpore atro, tectricibus alarum albis." This bird is found in the Frith of Forth, island of St. Kilda, the Faro islands, also in the Shetland islands where they remain all the year, but during the winter it changes its appearance very much, becoming almost perfectly white which controverts the opinion of Mr Hutchins of Hudson Bay in the Arctic zoology, who affirms that the old birds do not vary. The gentleman whom I mentioned before, had a specimen in its winter dress prepared for me, which was unluckily lost; but I hope during the winter, I shall be able to furnish you with a specimen for drawing. They are gregarious during the am-

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morous season, they are then unco nonly active and lively. Their nests are generally collected in the cliffs of a rock, thirty sometimes in one place, and placed so near each other, that the vulgar asert they have their eggs in common, but this is not the case, for each has its own nest. After incubation, the mother is always seen with two young ones. It may be here observed, that most of these sea birds, have three eggs, two of which are always productive, and the third is not, and is called the yaw egg. This bird dives well, but flies with difficulty, always low and never over land.

ELUCIDATIONS RESPECTING THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

WRITTEN BY — EATON ESQ. FORMERLY DUTCH
CONSUL AT BASSORA, WHO LIKEWISE RESIDED SOME
TIME IN CONSTANTINOPLE AND THE CRIMEA.—
COMMUNICATED BY ARCTICUS.

1 On the depopulation of the Turkish empire.

WE know not what was the population of this vast empire formerly. From facts in history, it plainly appears that it was very considerable; at present it is far from being so. Without going farther back than the memory of those now living, it is easy to prove that the depopulation is astonishingly great.

The great causes are doubtless the plague, and those terrible disorders which almost always follow it, (at least in Asia): Epidemic maladies in Asia, which make as dreadful ravages as the plague itself.

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and which visit frequently that part of the empire; Famine, owing to the want of precaution on the government when a crop fails; and to the avarice and villany of the Pachas, who generally profit by this dreadful calamity. And lastly the sicknesses which always follow a famine, and make great havock.

The plague is more mortal in proportion as it visits a country seldomer. It is at Constantinople often a great number of years together. In winter it is scarcely perceived; and frequently ships go away with clean bills of health to different parts of Europe, though it is lurking in infected clothes, and in distant parts of the city little frequented by Europeans: in spring it breaks out again. No calculation can be formed of the number that die of it in the capital, for their want is never perceived; the provinces fill up the void: but it is certain, the number of people who come from the different parts of the empire to Constantinople constantly is very considerable. Some years the mortality is not considerable, and sometimes they have what they call a *great plague*, which carries off an astonishing number. The consumption of provisions is often reduced one-fourth at Constantinople. It visits most parts of Asia every ten or twelve years, and carries off an eighth or tenth of the inhabitants. There have been plagues which have carried off one-fourth of the inhabitants. The farther east you go, the less frequent it is—every 20th, 40th, and even at Basora every 90th year; but then this scourge is most dreadful. The last plague at Basora, which had not visited the

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city for 95 years, carried off more than nine-tenths of the inhabitants. Farther east it does not go.

The plague, like the small pox, is a disorder never bred, but always produced by contagion : it comes doubtless from Egypt ; though in Egypt, they frequently receive it back from Constantinople. When Constantinople has been really free of it, it always is brought thither from Egypt direct, or after passing by the way of Smyrna. Not attending to this circumstance has misled many people. The air of Constantinople is exceedingly pure and healthy. But no infected air will produce the true plague ; though it may contagious fever much resembling it, and as contagious and mortal. The true plague is never in the air, *perhaps* (I say *perhaps*.) not in the breath of a pestifer person ; at least the breath cannot convey it above a few feet distance. Much may be said on this head, but it is foreign to my present purpose.

Another reason is the tyranny of the Pachas in some parts of Asia, which so impoverish the people, that they prevent marriages being so frequent as they would be—and this gives rise to another abominable vice which when once a man has so degraded himself as to become used to it, prevents his ever thinking of marriage. It is very doubtful whether polygamy is favourable to population.

Depopulation is first perceived in the country. The cities are filled up with new recruits of inhabitants, from the country ; but when the cities get desert (not one particular city by a branch of commerce leaving it, or a manufacture or any similar cause, but) for want of people to emigrate from the country,

things are in the worst stage of depopulation; and cities too, where manufactures exist, where there is bread for those who will seek an employment, and where the country is also desert, villages uninhabited, and lands and gardens or orchards lying waste.

Let us now take a view of the state of some considerable cities of Asia.

ALEPPO, Haleb. Dr Rufsel (natural history of Aleppo,) calculated the number of inhabitants at about 230 thousand; at present there are not above 40 or 50 thousand inhabitants. This depopulation has chiefly taken place since 1770. Aleppo is built of stone of a kind of marble, and vaulted: it is the finest city in Asia. Whole streets are uninhabited, and bazars abandoned. Fifty years ago were counted forty large villages in the neighbourhood built of stone, arched. Their ruins are now remaining; but not a single inhabitant in them.

The whole coast of Syria, which a few years ago was very populous, is almost a desert. Tripoly, Sidon, Latakia, are insignificant places, and the country almost abandoned.

DIARBEKIR was the most populous city in the Turkish empire. In 1756 there were 400 thousand inhabitants—at present they amount only to 50 thousand. In 1757 swarms of locusts devoured all the vegetation of the country; an epidemic sickness followed which carried off 300 thousand souls in Diarbekir, besides the country.

At **MERDIN** there are but about 5000 souls—the sickness of 1757 was fatal also to this city. The

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streets and bazars uninhabited make more than half the town.

BAGDAD contained from 125 to 150 thousand inhabitants; at present there are scarcely 20 thousand. The plague of 1773 carried off two thirds of the inhabitants. Here likewise are seen whole streets and bazars desolate.

BASSORA contained 20 years ago near 100,000 inhabitants; now, I hear, 7 or 8,000 only.

These examples taken from the best authority, and corroborated by the letters of the Romish missionaries in these parts, and my own observations, may suffice.

Between Angora and Constantinople, old people who have gone with caravans their whole lifetime remember 40 to 50 villages in the road, no vestige of which now are left (in these parts the buldings are not solid;) and a merchant I know whose trade and whose father's trade was between Angora and Constantinople and Smyrna, had a list of all the places formerly on this road; about this number (40 to 50) of them are unknown to the present conductors of caravans, who never heard of them.

Let the people multiply in Turkey as much as it is possible for the human species to do, (which is however very far from being the case,) can this multiplication keep pace with the mortality occasioned by all these calamities?

If still the numbers are considerable, what must not have been the population of these countries some few centuries ago?

But the numbers are not considerable, if we consider the immense tract of country they are spread over, and this I can affirm from my own observation.

I once made a calculation, allowing the human species to multiply as much as it is possible, and deducted at every period the mortality occasioned by the plague &c; the result was, a population some centuries ago infinitely greater than it is possible to have been: and if I took for a data the greatest probable number 4 centuries ago, they would now be reduced to almost nothing. I therefore conclude, depopulation could not have formerly made such a rapid progress as at present.

It would be useless to give this calculation. You may form one in your own way for curiosity's sake; but the truth is not thus to be discovered.

Smyrna is the only city in Turkey where depopulation does not appear: but how often are not its inhabitants renewed? It is the only place of considerable trade in Turkey; and, from the resort of foreign ships, and being the port of the export and imports, must flourish long.

Of European Turkey, of Greece, and Egypt, we shall take a separate and more particular view, and find there also great traces of the devastation the ills this empire groans under have made.

2 On the state of rebellion or Independence of several provinces of the Turkish empire.

The great Pachalick of Bagdad has been in reality independent (except at very short intervals,) ever

1793. since Achmet Pacha, who defended it against Nadir Shah. The Sultan only confirms the Pacha they themselves have appointed, though he sends a firman naming him to the post as if he had given it him.

In Armenia major and all the neighbouring countries, there are whole nations or tribes of independent people, the Crimea &c. The three Arabias do not at all acknowledge his authority. The Pachas of Trebisond, Ahiska &c. care very little for the Porte; and the famous Haggi-Ali-Yenikti Pacha, who was the sovereign of that country, and who could bring a large army into the field, and bid the Porte defiance. In Europe, the Morea, Albania, and Scutari, are always more or less in a state of rebellion; Bosnia, Croatia &c. obey the Porte only as long as it suits them; and he reaps little benefit from them. Their troops are good, but they do not choose to go far from home to fight. All the inhabitants of the mountains from Smyrna (where there are Agas independent at the head of armies) quite down to Palestine, never acknowledge the sovereignty of the Porte. She reaps no benefit from Palestine; and the considerable country under the jurisdiction of Sheik Omar il Dekar of Acri, which was subdued by the late captain Pacha, is again independent. * All Egypt is independent. The Pacha the Porte sends to Cairo is only in effect

* On the coast of Syria the Porte has only the ports of Latacha, the city of Antioch, Alexandrette (a miserable village) Tripoli and Sidon. The rest are all independent, but Barut and the country of the Druses, the Metuati who inhabit the country on the back of Tyre (where there are no houses) the port of Jassa and few small places. All Palestine is in a manner independent or useless.

a prisoner during his government, which is only nominal ; the Porte draws no revenue from it.

In short the Porte draws no money and no troops, but a very few volunteer fanatics, in time of war, from all these countries. Were the Sultan to be driven from Europe he would subdue these provinces and be more powerful by land than he now is.

The remainder in our next.

ALLADIN THE PERSIAN, AN EASTERN TALE:

Continued from p. 263.

CHAPTER IX.

Revolt in Georgia,—Effects of Frankness.

ALLADIN had been returned sometime from his travels, when the sultan received the news of the revolt in Georgia: a priest and a lawyer were at the head of it. They had flattered the people with perfect equality, and had persuaded them that they should have no taxes. The vizir at the head of 100,000 men marched in person against the rebels, and signalised himself in the course of his expedition by his cruelties. The authors of the revolt were condemned to the most cruel punishments, and the people to an augmentation of taxes. Such an event did not seem likely to affect Alladin; but the wicked fairy who endowed him with talents, genius, and other great qualities, was well aware of the danger attached to their possession. Among the papers of the lawyer, who had been one of the chiefs of the revolters, was found a copy of Alladin's work on republics. The vizir was eager to inform the sultan of this discovery; and made ma-

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ny notable observations on the dangers of writing and reading, and the necessity of keeping mankind in perfect ignorance. The sublime Alcoran, said he, contains every thing important for us to know in this world, and in the next; every man therefore who writes is impious, as his design alone shows that he thinks he has something to teach to those who know the Alcoran. This reasoning made a deep impression on the divan, and the revolt of the Georgians was attributed to the effect of the writings of Alladin on their minds. He was hated by all those who were envious of his talents; and avarice who was eager to divide his spoils, joined herself to envy to complete his ruin. His death was at one moment determined on; but the remembrance of the services of his father induced the sultan to be more moderate, and he was only condemned to be shut up in a castle on the frontiers of the empire. He was taken there loaded with chains; and the smallest possible air-hole, which admitted a few rays of light, only served to shew the miserable prisoner the horror of his situation. It is thus that he expiated during a whole year the crime of having shewn that he had understanding and learning.

The affliction of the Calender was very great when he heard of the misfortune of his friend; but he did not lose courage. Giving himself up to the means of serving him, he sought to introduce himself among those in power, and the favourite courtiers, in order to make use of them as occasions may serve. He felt that if he made any exertions at the first moment he should only render himself suspected, and he

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waited until other events should have made Alladin's misfortunes forgotten. At last after a month's assiduous attendance at court, he got acquainted with the *favourite slave* of the mistress of the chief of the eunuchs. This young girl was passionately beloved by her mistress, who endeavoured with her to deceive the warmth of her passions, and whose unfortunate lot it was to give and receive useless caresses. All three embraced a phantom of pleasure which fled from them perpetually, a melancholy effect of the abuses of power and slavery, which changes into a crime the most delicious of passions. The chief of the eunuchs, had so many things to be pardoned for, that he reckoned it the excess of good nature, if he escaped contempt. After having gained the friendship of the slave by little presents, the Calender one day offered her a large diamond of great value for her mistress, and another for herself, if by their means he could obtain Alladin's liberty. The eunuch made many excuses from interfering in this business; she pouted, repulsed him, and treated him with contempt during a week, he was obliged at last to come to, and employ his credit in favour of Alladin.

He addressed himself to a youth who had great power over the Mufti, and persuaded him by the advice of the Calender, that Alladin was one of the most zealous sectaries of Omar. The Mufti was the secret partizan of this doctrine; and the beauty of the youth, added to his enthusiasm for Omar, determined this head of the church.

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The Calender had thus employed at the same time, the three most powerful agents, and which act the strongest on men. *Love, the spirit of party, and self-interest.* Slave, youth, eunuch, priest, woman, all had been seduced by the good Calender, who only obeyed the impulse of friendship, more powerful with him than all other interests. In spite of the junction of so many means, he was not able to obtain entire liberty for his unfortunate friend; he got permission for him to leave the dungeon, and he had the fortrefs for his prison. The Calender got letters sent to the governor to recommend Alladin to his attention; and such a recommendation coming from the seraglio, could not fail of producing a good effect; besides the governor, from the goodness of his heart, was naturally inclined to help the unfortunate. He loved society, and soon felt the merits of Alladin, and took every opportunity to alleviate his disgrace; he opened his haram to him, and permitted him to live in a familiar manner with an Egyptian slave, that he was doatingly fond of; her name was Zulma, who returned his love with the tenderest caresses: sweetness was in her eyes, and her voice penetrated the soul; ingenuousness and innocence were in all her actions, and by her language, she seemed anxious to find out opportunities of doing good; her eyes were filled with tears, at the mere recital of a generous action. Alladin felt the danger of living with so seducing a person, who forced one to love her by inspiring esteem; he armed himself with all the gratitude he owed to the governor, against so many charms; Zulma reproached him with an in-

difference he was far from feeling, and made him advances, which embarrassed him, but which he attributed to her innocence, and to her frolicsome manner.

One evening as he was crossing an obscure gallery, he heard a woman scolding a slave in a hoarse threatening voice; her passion seemed to increase with the coarse expressions she uttered, and which were followed by blows. Alladin stopped and said to himself, what a difference between the dulcet voice, and tender expressions of Zulma, with the vulgar and coarse language I now hear! He went forward,—the woman turned about,—it was Zulma herself, who directly resumed her enchanting accents.

This facility of changing from the height of passion into a perfect calm, threw Alladin into amazement. Doubts arose in his mind, and he began to think the advances of Zulma were not without design. The governor spoke to him often about his mistress. Alladin, struck with what he had been witness to, listened with more rational coldness to all the fine things he said of her; this reserve did not escape his friend's observation, and Alladin's frankness would not permit him to dissemble his opinion of the character of Zulma. She was not long without being informed of it, and Alladin soon perceived a difference in the manners of the inhabitants of the castle, and the power and hatred of Zulma. His frankness had thus in a few moments lost him the charms of an amiable society, and the heart of his friend, which was entirely subservient to the will of his mistress. Another would have laughed in his

sleeve, at the ease with which Zulma could change her character, and have profited of her kindness; the governor would have been betrayed by his mistress and his friend, and all would have been contented. Such would have been the proceedings of a man of the world, corrupted by experience, which soon informs us how much mankind love to be deceived, and the danger of serving their interests at the expence of their passions; but Alladin held deceit in abhorrence.

One day as he was making on this subject some melancholy reflections, he wandered beyond his knowledge in the governor's gardens. After a long walk he came to a kiosk (summer house) situated near a thick wood; he was just going to enter it, when he saw Zulma come out, leaning on the arm of a young slave, to whom she gave the tenderest caresses before she separated herself from him. She took the road to the castle, the slave ran into the thickest part of the wood, and Alladin quite confounded at what he had seen, returned with pensive steps to his own apartment.

The governor was absent, and was not to return till next day; on his arrival he ran to embrace his mistress, and made Alladin witness of the tender return with which Zulma repaid his caresses. His indignation was roused at such treachery, and he was just going to give vent to it, when the governor desired him to follow him to his own apartment: I forget said he, my dear Alladin, your prejudices against Zulma, which due reflection must have dissipated, and I wish to acquaint you myself with my happiness.

You know I doat on Zulma, and the kind return she makes me; I am unhappy in seeing such an estimable person in the humiliating state of slavery; in three days she will be my wife, my companion ever dear to me; I re-establish her in the rank to which she is entitled by birth, and at the same time that I make amends for the injustice of destiny, I give her the strongest proof of my love. At these words he embraced Alladin, and the transport of his joy prevented him from taking notice of the coldness of his friend. Being come to himself he was struck with the icy look with which he had received so interesting a confidence: "You do not love me my dear Alladin, said he:—but no, I understand you, and can interpret your coldness; you love Zulma and are jealous. Ah! I can easily conceive it, but I am not angry, for your friendship will soon triumph over a hopeless passion." Alladin, hurt at such suspicion, said, "my contempt for Zulma is extreme, and your interest alone, - - - the governor in a passion interrupted him; 'ah! my friend said Alladin, why must I be forced to destroy so sweet an illusion? why must I be reduced to tear your heart by revealing to you the most frightful mystery, or to be a traitor to friendship?' He then related to him all he had seen. Scarce could he finish the recital, for the interruptions of cries of indignation. He attempted to embrace his friend, who spurned him from him, saying, "I know you now for a deceiver, and jealousy alone has made you invent such a collection of horrors, of which however I am not the dupe." He immediately quitted him and rushed into the apartments of

Zulma. Alladin overwhelmed with grief, went into the garden, and walked with hasty steps in one of the darkest alleys: what! said he, must I leave my friend in an error, when his happiness, nay even his life perhaps depend on it? ah! I feel I should act so again in similar circumstances.

He had wandered up and down many hours, occupied by such melancholy ideas, when two men rushed upon, and pierced him with repeated strokes of their poignards. He was just expiring, when a gardener passing accidentally by, ran and brought him assistance. He was carried half dead to the castle, and when he came to himself, he saw the governor and Zulma, at his bed side. She shewed him every mark of kindness and attention; you shall be revenged said she, in a tone that strongly marked the interest she took, of those banditti who wanted to assassinate you: they shall not escape our search, and the door through which they passed being left open, they are now closely pursuing them. The extreme weakness of Alladin, did not allow him to express the horror of his feelings, as he had not a doubt of the quarter from whence the blow came. He was soon quite recovered, and shortly after by the repeated solicitations of the Calender aided by presents, he obtained his pardon, and permission to return to Schiraz.

to be continued.

ON THE POOR LAWS OF SCOTLAND.

LETTER IV.

Chronological enumeration of the statutes on this subject, with excerpts.

THAT the poor laws were not enforced when they were recently enacted admits of the clearest proof by the laws themselves; for the preamble to each act, nearly in the same words, sets forth, that though many *loveable* acts, as they are called, had been enacted by his majesty and his predecessors for support and maintenance of the poor, yet that they had not been carried into effect, from such or such a cause, which is then specified; and some regulation being adopted to remedy this supposed evil, the *hail* laws aforesaid are confirmed, with the particular addition made to them, which is often an alteration directly opposite to the spirit and positive enactments of those very laws that are thereby confirmed. But as every subsequent act proves that the preceding act had been equally neglected as the others, and as we know, from the decisions of the court of session and other means, that another mode of providing for the poor was universally adopted before and after the last act on this subject was made, we are well authorised to say that this act as well as the former was never enforced; so that whatever the legislature might think of the *loveable* nature of these acts, it appears from this statement that they never were in fact deemed *loveable* by the people.

But indeed they could not be deemed so, because they all tended to introduce a system of despotism, which, however agreeable to the *court*, was always held in detestation by the *people* of Scotland. Every one who is in

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the least acquainted with the history of Scotland from the death of James v to the union, knows that it was or continued struggle for power, between the people and the crown. Towards the beginning of that period, some individuals wishing to establish their power at the expence of the crown, took advantage of popular prejudices first to weaken, and at length for a time, to annihilate the royal power. When the sensible part of the nation had time to perceive the ultimate tendency of these measures they cordially united in support of the crown, by which means the restoration was effected, and the factious leaders were reduced to a moderate level. From that period, though the crown did not dare openly to attack that system of internal police which it had sworn to protect, yet it is well known that by unobserved means it contrived to throw the whole legislative power into the hands of the servants of the crown; and that the lords of the privy council had nothing to oppose their will but the secret jealousy with which the people at large viewed the whole of their proceedings, and the reluctance with which many of their decrees were carried into effect. And as the execution of these poor laws, in imitation of those in England, was entrusted in a great measure to public bodies of men among the people, they never seem to have been able to find any description of men who were willing to carry them cordially into effect; so that although they shifted their ground in this respect, by sometimes entrusting the execution of these laws to one description of persons, and sometimes to another, yet it appears they were all equally averse to do the office, so that these laws were uniformly and universally disregarded.

The legislators, in other words, the lords of privy council, finding these laws unacceptable to the nation,
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seem to have tried various expedients with a view to get clear of this unpopularity; but, as in all cases of despotism, instead of applying to sensible men *who live among the people* to find out the real causes of disgust, or the actual unobserved obstructions that opposed the execution of the law, they proceeded, each according to the whim of the moment, to make such enactments as their capricious fancies suggested. These new enactments were again disregarded; and as the laws were thus never so much as attempted to be enforced, so as to have their glaring absurdities and contradictions discovered and corrected, as must have happened if they had been actually carried into effect, they were suffered to remain upon the statute book a dead letter, uncorrected, so as to form a *rudes indigestaque moles*, which are a disgrace to a civilized nation and which never could have so existed except for the circumstances just hinted at above. Who could believe that ever an attempt would be made in these enlightened times, to revive, after such a long and deadly sleep, such a disgraceful system of laws? But the attempt has been made; and, from want of consideration, particular practices grounded on some of these obsolete laws have been *voluntarily* submitted to as law in several parishes in Scotland.

After this plain statement of the manner in which these laws were made, and the way in which they were received by the people, I can here afford room only to give a very brief specification of the particulars of those enactments, which however will prove sufficiently illustrative of the reasoning above.

One principle seems to have been invariably adopted in all these laws, and universally assented to by the people, so as to form the basis of the whole; viz. *that every parish ought to support its own poor*. This, all mankind

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agree in thinking is right and proper. On this as an axiom, has been engrafted another maxim not less equitable in itself, viz. *that all the inhabitants ought to contribute for the support of these poor in proportion to their means.* But, in attempting to carry this last principle into effect so as that every man shall be compelled to contribute for this purpose according to his means, it is soon discovered that an inquisitorial power must necessarily be vested somewhere, which unavoidably leads to despotism and oppression. Hence it has happened, that among a thinking people, every one has been willing to guard himself from the effects of this inquisitorial power, and therefore every class of men, willing to throw the load off their own shoulders, have endeavoured to prevent the execution of those regulations that affected themselves; and by their secret influence these regulations have been successively shifted from time to time, and never cordially relished.

Before the reformation, the few statutes that were enacted respecting the poor, chiefly have an eye to the suppression of sturdy beggars, and their punishment. For this purpose, by the statute 1424, Jas. 1. c. 25, none are allowed to beg or thigg, "without being seene by the councelles of townes, or of the lande; from whom they shall have a certaine taiken." And of the same year, c. 42. "The chalmerlaine sall inquire in his aire zeitlie, gif the aldermen and baillies hes kepted this act."

1425. Jas. 1. c. 66 "Ilke sherriffe in the realme within his bailliarie," is charged to prevent idle men from begging.

1427. Jas. 1. c. 104; aldermen and baillies who have not kepted these statutes to be fined in forty shilling to the king. By the statute 1579. Jas. vi. c. 74. These acts are all confirmed: it prescribes also the particular manner of punishing sturdy beggars, and describes them particularly. Statutes farther, "That the provests and baillies of ilke burgh and toune

and the justice constitute be the king's commission in every parochin to landwart, sall, betwixt and the first day of January next-to-cum, take inquisitione of all aged pure, and sall make a register buike, containing their names and surnames, to remain with the provests and baillies within burgh, and with the justice in every parochin landwart. (Here follows a very particular specification of those who should be registered); and thereupon, according to their number, to consider what their needfull sustentation will extend to every oulk; and then, be the gude discretions of the saids provests, baillies and judges in the Parochins to landwart, and sik as they sall call to them to that effect, to tax and stent the haill inhabitants within the Parochins, according to the estimation of their substance without exception of persones, to sik ouklie charge and contribution as sall be thought expedient and sufficient to sustaine the saides pure peopill: - "And at their discretion they appoynt overseers and collectors in every burgh town, and parochin for the haill zeir, for collecting and receiving of the said ouklie portion." "And at the end of the zeir that the taxation and stent-roll be always maid of new, for the alterations that may be throw death, or he ineres or diminution of mennes guddes and substance." - - - "And gif the persones chosen collectours, refuse the office, or having accepted the same beis found negligent therein, or refuses to make their comptes every half zeir anes at the least, to the provests and baillies in burrowes, and to the saides judges in landwart, and to deliver the superplus of that quhilk restis in their handes, at the end of the zeir or half zeir, to sic as sall be chosen collectours of new: then ilk ane of the collectours so offending sall incur the paine of twentie pundis, to the use of the pure of the parochin, and imprisonment of their persones during the kinges will." - - - "and gif ony persones being abill to further this charaitable woorke, will obstenatilie refuse to contribute to the relief of the pure, - - - the obstenate or wilful person being called before the saides provests and baillies within burgh, or judges in the parochins to landwart, and convict thereof be ane asize, or sufficient tes-

" timonie of twa honest and famous witnesses his neigh-
 " bours, upon the supplication of the saides provost baillies
 " and judges, to the kinges majestie and his privie
 " councill, the obstinate and wilful person or persones,
 " sall be commanded to waired in sic pairt as his highness,
 " and his councill sall appoynt, and there remain quhill
 " he be content with the ordour of his said paroch, and
 " perform the same indeede."—" And gif any beg-
 " gars bairne, being abo the age of five zeires, and
 " within fourteen, male or o female, sall be liked of be
 " ony subject of the realme of honest estait: the said
 " person sall have the bairne, be ordoure and direction
 " of the saides provests and baillies within burgh, or
 " judge in every parochin to landwart. Gif he be a
 " man-child to the age of xxiv zeires, and gif she be a
 " woman-child to the age of xvii zeires."—" And qu-
 " hair collecting of money may not be had, and that it is
 " over great ane burding to the collectours to gadder
 " victuals, meat and drink, or uther things for the re-
 " lief of the pure in sum parochins; that the provests
 " and baillies, in burrows, and the saides judges, in the
 " parochins to landwart, be advice of certaine of the
 " maist honest parochiners; give licence under their hand-
 " writes to sic, and sa many of the saides pure peopill,
 " or sic uthers of them as they sall think gude, to alke and
 " gadder the charitable almes of the arisheners at their
 " awin houses." Sa as alwayes it be speedily appoynted
 " and agreed, how the pure of the parochin sall be sus-
 " tained within the same, and not be chargeable to uthers,
 " nor troublesome to strangers."

As this was the first law that was made in Scotland for
 authorising an involuntary poor's rate, which served as the
 ground work of all that follow, I have been as full in this
 abstract as our limits will permit. It is evidently bor-
 rowed from the practice introduced into England by the
 act 43 Elizabeth. But if it be compared with that act its
 comparative imperfections will appear wonderfully strik-
 ing. In the English act we discover a system that had
 been carefully digested, and every case separately provi-
 ded for with as great a degree of care and forecast as any
 human prudence could foresee. In this act, though the in-

attention be obvious, the provisions are so vague and inaccurate, and so many possible cases are so totally overlooked, that it could evidently never be carried into effect. The magistrates of burghs, and the judges in landward parishes are installed in a very troublesome office, without emolument; and are invested with power to stent all persons in the respective parishes according to their substance; but by what mode this is to be done is not said, so that their power must have been arbitrary and of course would be opposed by all the people. They are authorised to appoint collectors and overseers, who are also to be invested with a very burdensome and disagreeable office; but they are not authorised to give them any salary, though these collectors and overseers when so appointed, are obliged to accept the office under heavy penalties. This must therefore have proved equally disagreeable to all the people. They are authorised to take up beggar's bairns without even the consent of themselves or their parents, and put them into a temporary slavery; but where is the man that would accept of children in these circumstances, or the person who would interpose his authority to that effect? On all these, and many other accounts, it could not be expected that these parts of this statute could ever be enforced. And as, by the latter clause of the act, the magistrates and judges were permitted to authorise begging in their respective parishes, this, as the easiest alternative, would not doubt be universally adopted*. Accordingly having been found inadequate, in 1592. Jas. vi. c. 147 the power of enforcing this law is put into the hands of the *shirreffs of each county*. "Or gif the saides schireffes, or otheris judges ordinar. beis found remisse or negligent: gives and grantes full power charge and authoritie, to the ministers, elders and deacons within the boundes of every parochin, or so many parochines as will concur to gidder, to nominate and elect, ane, twa, three or

* We here find the rudiments of a distinction laid between such poor as were able to work, and those who, from age and infirmities, were incapable of earning a sustenance for themselves, and a different mode of providing for them hinted at. We shall see this digested afterwards into a kind of system.

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on the poor laws.

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"maa persones of the best habitie, zeal and discretion
"within the same parochin or boundes, whom his Ma-
"jesty (the king) makes and constitutes *justices and com-
"missioners in that part*, to the effect under written."
That is to carry the foresaid act into execution in all its
branches, with heavy penalties in case of failzie.

This expedient having also failed, by the act 1597
James VI c. 268. "In place of the commissions in Land-
"wart to be granted be the king for execution of the said
"act, ordains that the power thereof be granted to the
"particular *session of the kirk*"—and that the service of
bairns, "be prorogate *induring their life times*."

Ibid. c. 275 "It is statute and ordained &c.—that
"all sic as hes their residence and dwelling within the
"saides burrowes be their families: and may spend ane
"hundredth pounds, of zeirly rent within the same, or
"stanted be the discreet neichtbours, to be worth
"twa thousand marks of free guddes, sall be sub-
"ject to be burdened with the rest of the inhabitants"
—That is, not only to pay for the sustenance of the poof,
but also all other taxes; and to keep watch and waird.

These acts having proved still inefficacious and been al-
lowed to sleep; by act 1600 James VI parl. 16, c. 19:
These different acts are revived, particularly that of 1597,
but for remed of their deficiencies it specifies that where-
by [the act 1597] "The execution of the acts of par-
"liament is committed to the particular sessions of the
"kirk, it is statute and ordained &c. that the saidis *ses-
"sions of the kirk*, where need is, shall be assisted by ane
"or twa of the *preibiteries*; and that they shall put the
"saides acts to full and due execution."

Still however the acts were not executed, and there-
fore anno

1617 James VI parl. 22 c. 10 relates entirely to the
binding the children of poor persons. These are ap-
pointed to be taken up by the *provosts, bailies, and kirk
sessions*, and delivered over to any discreet person who
is willing to receive them, but with the consent of their
parents, if they have any, if under 14 years of age; or
with their own consent if above that age, and their ser-
vice is adjudged till they be 30 years of age, with penal-
ties and provisions. By the act

1661. Car. II. Cap. 38 respecting the power of justices of the peace, it is enacted that "the saides justices shall, twice in the year, at the first of December and the first of June, take up a list of the number of poor in every paroch within burgh or land." Into which number there shall no person be received who are any way able to gain their own living - - appoint overseers &c. - - And upon consideration had what the necessary maintenance [of such listed poor] will extend to weekly, the saides overseers are to call for the collections of the said paroch, or other sums appointed for the maintenance of the poor." and to distribute the same to the poor; and be accountable to the justices for their intrusions every sixmonths &c. &c.

This act, like all the former, having also fallen into disuse, was enacted in

1663. 2 Car. II. Cap. 16 ratifying and approving the same, "with this addition, that it shall be leisom to all persons or societies, who have, or shall set up any manufactures within this kingdom, to seize upon, and apprehend the persons of any vagabonds who shall be found begging, or who, being masterless and out of service, have not wherewith to maintain themselves by their own means or work, and to employ them for their service as they shall see fit, the same being done with the advice of the respective magistrates of the place where they shall be seized upon; and ordains the paroches where such vagabonds or idle persons as shall be found begging, were born [or have had their principal residence for the last three years] who thereby are relieved of the burden of them, to make payment to the persons or societies that shall happen to employ them, of two shillings Scots money per diem, for the first year after they be apprehended, and one shilling Scots per diem for the next three years thereafter; the one half thereof to be paid by the HERITORS of the several paroches respective, and the other half thereof to be paid by the POSSESSORS AND INHABITANTS dwelling upon the ground of each heritor respective."—The heritors themselves to make up a stent roll for this purpose, "either

Dec. 25.
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" conform to the old extent of their lands within the pa-
" roch, or conform to the valuation by which they last
" paid afelement, or otherwise as the major part of the
" heritors so meeting shall agree - - - And the o-
" ther half thereof to be laid upon the tenants and pos-
" sessors according to their means and substance."

It deserves to be specially remarked that all these en-
actments have reference only to the sturdy beggars, va-
gabonds, &c. so taken up, and to the payment of the mo-
ney to be given with them, and has no reference to the
providing for any other poor whatever; with regard to
whom the provisions in the former acts were ratified and
approved; so that two rent rolls, and two afelements
might have fallen due for the poor in any one parish,
stented by different persons, and apporportioned by a different
rule, had the former laws been enforced. Careless rea-
ders will be apt to overlook this circumstance, and to
consider this as a general law, which was enacted for a
particular case only.

But the above act also having been neglected, as all the
others had been, it was again enacted 1672. 2 Car. II.
Cap. 18 that seeing the masters of public works had ne-
glected to take up the vagabonds and idle persons accord-
ing to the tenor of the last act; the magistrates of the
burghs before recited. (See Bee, vol. xviii p. 205,) were
commanded to build correction houses, for the reception of
such idle persons, and the keeping them to work there.
" And for the better enabling of the saids burghs, to
" bear the charges and expences of the saids correction
" houses. His majestic &c. ordains that the contributi-
" ons and allowances for maintaining of the poor appoin-
" ted by the 15th. act of third sersion of his majesties 1st
" parliament (1663 above. quoted) be applied for the use
" of the saids correction houses, whereby they shall have
" two shillings Scots for ilk poor person PER DIEM that shall be
" sent to them, and entertained and bred by them, for the first
" year and twelve pennies Scots per diem for the space of
" three years thereafter, during which they shall enter-
" tain and educate them, together with the profit arising
" from the labour and work of the saids poor persons seven
" years thereafter; which contributions are to be paid
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“ by the parishes relieved of the said poor, in manner contained in the said act.” Thus far therefore the whole of this act refers solely to sturdy beggars and idle vagabonds who are able to work for their bread, for whose sustenance only the heritors are authorised to stent themselves &c. as above specified. But neither this act nor the former, gives the smallest countenance to the imposition of an involuntary stent for the maintenance of the really indigent poor: so far from this, the act proceeds to point out how these last shall be provided for as under.

“ And to the effect it may be known, what poor persons are to be sent to the said correction-houses and who are to be kept and entertained by the contributions of the paroch kirks for the poor, (observe particularly this marked distinction) *the ministers of ilk paro b. with som of the elders*, and in case of vacancy of the kirks, three or moe of the elders, are hereby ordered to take up an exact list of all the poor persons within their parishes, by name and sir name, condescending upon their age and condition, if they be able or unable to work. by reason of age, infirmity, or disease, and where they were born, and in what parishes they have most haunted during the last three years preceeding the uptaking of these lists, intimation being always made to the whole heritors of the paroch to be present, and to see the lists right taken up; and that the heritors who, and the possessors of their land are to bear the burden of the maintenance of the poor persons of each paroch, or any of them who shall meet with the saids minister and elders, *shall condescend upon such as through age and infirmity, ARE NOT ABLE TO WORK, and appoint them places wherein to abide, that they may be supplied BY THE CONTRIBUTION AT THE PARISH KIRK:* And if the same be not sufficient to entertain them, that they give them a badge or ticket to ask alms at the dwelling houses of the inhabitants of their own paroch only, without the bounds whereof they are not to beg.”

Here the system hinted at in the act 1579 is fully developed.

There is therefore no authority whatever given by this act to levy any involuntary tax for support of the in-

indigent poor, who are to be supported wholly by *the contributions of the parish kirk, and voluntary alms*. It proceeds to specify distinctly what is to be made of the other class as follows. "And likewise, that such of the saids poor persons as are of age and capacity to work, be first offered to the heritors or inhabitants of each paroch, that if they will accept any of them to become their apprentices or servants, they may receive them upon their obligation to entertain, and set to work the said poor persons, and to relieve the paroch of them; for which cause they shall have the benefit of their work untill they attain the age of thirty years."—"And hat the rest of the saids poor persons be sent to the correction houses; for whose entertainment, the saids heritors shall cause collect contributions, and appoint a quarters allowance to be sent along with them, with clothes upon them to cover their nakednesse, and the said allowance to be paid quarterly thereafter, by way of advance."

Never was there a statute more distinct than this one, or that more expressly limited the power of levying an involuntary tax to the support of such poor as were able though not willing to work, at the limited rate mentioned of two shillings Scots per diem for the first year, and one shilling Scots for three years more in the correction house, and none others; yet with that inattention which is too common in matters of this sort, the power of taxing the parish, conferred on certain persons *solely for this purpose*, has been very usually considered as investing them, with a power to tax for the support of the *whole poor of the parish* at pleasure.

By a subsequent clause in the act, the owners of salt works and collieries are authorised to seize vagabonds and confine them to work the same as in correction houses.

The remaining acts on this subject, with observations on the whole, will be comprehended in another letter, which will conclude this subject

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ON THE DELAYS INCIDENT TO THE COURT
OF SESSION.

Continued from p. 181.

To the Lord President of the Court of Session.

LETTER XII.

MY LORD,

I AM happy to think it would be so easy to accomplish the very material objects mentioned in the concluding part of my last letter. Not only could a pursuer be thereby compelled to execute, call, and inroll his summons, and to plead his cause, by causing the *instance* to perish if he did not *. But it might also, by means of the other regulations formerly proposed, be put out of the power of either or both of the parties to delay the cause improperly after it had once come into court. And the judge himself could only delay it by allowing the process to lie by him too long unadvised, a thing that does not appear to admit of an easy remedy. I once thought of allowing the process to pass to a new ordinary if not advised within a fortnight of the transmission. But that plan I now fear might lead to confusion. Besides it does not occur that there will be much cause to complain of delay on that head, if the forms were once shortened in other respects, because by shortening the

* The *second diet* of a summons, should be allowed to run in vacation time as well as the *first diet*, that is, it ought not to be required, that the first day of appearance should fall upon a session day. This would save above a week and sometimes a fortnight of session time, which is valuable.

Dec. 25

THE COURT

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1773. on delays in the court of Session. 309
forms, and by referring a defender to his counter action,
or action of repetition the door would be shut against the
lumber of the cause, and it would no longer be burthen-
some to the Lord Ordinary to advise it.

In spite of any little delay in advising, I am persuaded,
if these alterations had once taken place, that in the
general case, a cause might be finally determined even
in the *inner house*, in the course of two sessions from
its commencement, when no proof by witnesses is required.
And even when this last is necessary, another sessi-
on, or at most two, would bring it to a period. Where-
as, I may appeal to your Lordship's experience, if there
are many petitions presented to the inner-house at pre-
sent, that do not recite proceedings *two, three, four, five*
and even *six years* back.

The present mode of adducing evidence by witnesses,
is not only the occasion of great delay, but the proof when
so adduced, often gives a very different impression of the
fact from what the judges would have received if the wit-
nesses had been examined in their presence: Inasmuch that
on some occasions, the proof brought excites great doubt
and difficulty as to facts that would otherwise be plain;
and on others, by a strange perversion, goes the length
of carrying the cause the opposite way from what it ought
to have gone.

I cannot do better than to quote to your Lordships the
words of Sir William Blackstone upon this head.

"This open examination of witnesses *viva voce*, in the
presence of all mankind, is much more conducive to the
clearing up of truth*, than the private and secret ex-
amination taken down in writing before an officer, or his
clerk, in the ecclesiastical courts, and all others that have

* Hales Hist; c. L. 252, 5, 6.

borrowed their practice from the civil law: where a witness may frequently depose that in private, which he will be ashamed to testify in a public and solemn tribunal: There, an artful or careless scribe may make a witness speak what he never meant, by dressing up his deposition in his own forms and language; but he is here at liberty to correct and explain his meaning, if misunderstood, which he can never do after a written deposition is once taken. Besides, the occasional questions of the judge the jury, and the counsel, pronounced to the witnesses on a sudden, will sift out the truth much better than a formal set of interrogatories previously penned and settled; and the confronting of adverse witnesses is also another opportunity of obtaining a clear discovery, which can never be had upon any other method of trial. Nor is the presence of the judge, during the examination, a matter of small importance: for, besides the respect and awe with which his presence will naturally inspire the witness, he is able by use and experience, to keep the evidence from wandering from the point in issue. In short by this method of examination, and this only, the persons who are to decide upon the evidence have an opportunity of observing the quality, age, education, understanding, behaviour and inclinations of the witness; in which points all persons, must appear alike, when their depositions are reduced to writing, and read to the judge, in the absence of those who made them; and yet as much may be frequently collected from the manner, in which the evidence is delivered, as from the matter of it." I am &c. Lentulus.

 OBITUARY OF THE LEARNED.

Right Honourable Robert Lord Romney.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

ROBERT LORD ROMNEY, President of the Society instituted at London, for the encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, died at his seat of the Mote near Maidstone in Kent, on Saturday the 16th of November in the 83d. year of his age.

Of all the institutions that dignified and adorned the reign of the good George the second, none in my opinion is entitled to so much praise as the Society over which Lord Romney worthily presided.

This Society, Sir, was not indebted to any vain or ostentatious patronage of men of fortune and fashion, but to the humble, though zealous and successful endeavours of a very private gentleman, Mr William Shipley of Maidstone in Kent, with the countenance of the good Lord Romney.

It is not enough that Mr Shipley, and Lord Romney, should have been put in the fore ground of Mr Barry's picture in the Hall of the Adelphi, or that the gold medal, which the Society presented to Mr Shipley in the year 1758, should be engraved and recorded to perpetuate the remembrance of that public spirit, and energy in the private walk of life, which gave being to that useful establishment. It is right and reasonable that every respectable journal should make an entry of the public benefits that have accrued from private virtue, united to public

spirit, and to show them forth as belonging to the promoters of this institution.

I have had the honour, for near thirty years past to be a member of it, and I warmly seize this opportunity of recommending to those who may doubt of the efficacy of private societies in promoting eminent advantage to the public, to trace in the History of British Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, the effects of a thousand men of substance and ingenuity, coming together with an annual and regular subscription to encourage the advancement of national prosperity in Agriculture, Arts, Commerce and Manufactures.

With respect to Lord Romney, and to conclude, I will add that that venerable old man, just lived to see from the top of his Pisgah, a new National Board of Agriculture, rising at a distance from the elements of *his Society*, which will be fortunate if it is accompanied by the same perennial energy that made the other flourish and succeed.

Finally, I cannot stop without recording, that when a slave on lord Romney's plantations in the West Indies, was asked by one who met him, in the field if he was a slave of lord Romney's. 'No Malsah,' replied he, 'Lord Romney, de good lord Romney have no slaves, I be his child and servant. lord Romney be de father of his people.' I am your wellwisher. B.

** Acknowledgements to correspondents deferred for want of room.

Dec. 23.

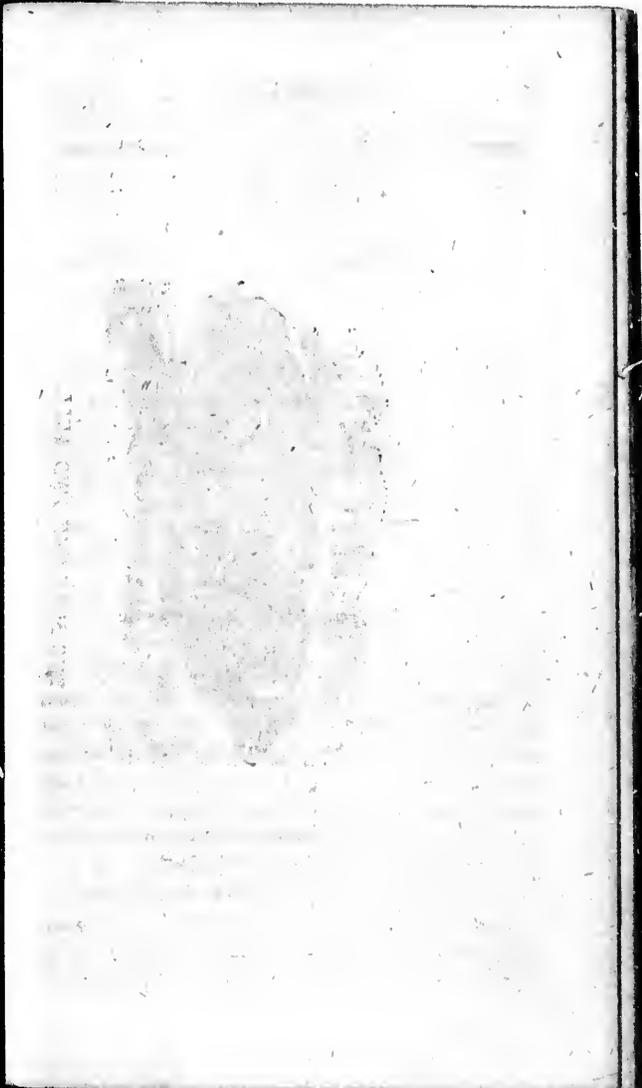
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THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

FOR

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 1. 1794.

CATALOGUE OF FUR BEARING ANIMALS

That are, or may be domesticated, which are not yet sufficiently known in Britain, though suited to the nature of its climate, and which it would be of importance to have there, in order to ascertain their value by comparative trials.

Sheep.

1. **THE** *Tscherkestian* breed. These are of a large size, and afford good wool free from hairs. The lamb-skins of this breed are accounted a beautiful fur, which sells at a high price in Russia. They are of various colours: The pure white are most esteemed: and next to these the pure black. These are of the round long tailed breed.

2. The *Boucharian* sheep, which are said to afford wool still finer than the above, and equally free from hairs. The lamb-skins of this sort are deemed still more beautiful fur than the former;

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and they sell at very high prices in Rufsia and China. Besides pure white, and black, shining and waved, having the appearance of flowered satten at a little distance, there are some among them of the colour there called *blue*, which is a glossy mahogany colour with a slight bluish tinge. This is the broad tailed kind of sheep.

N. B. It will be a matter of considerable difficulty to get these sheep into this country; for although I have the means at present of corresponding with some of the governors of the southern provinces of Siberia that border with the Kirguise country, who will be disposed to lend every assistance in their power, yet the nearest part of it being at least two thousand miles from Petersburg, the cattle that are sent from thence thither taking about two years to travel it, passing through the hands of several owners by the way, any sheep that might be sent along with them would have a great chance of being lost in their passage. Boucharia is at least a thousand miles farther than the Kirguise country in the same route, so that it will be a very difficult matter to get them from thence. The natives of Boucharia, however are an active trading people, who often pass through the whole of the Kirguise country to bring both cattle and goods to the Siberian market; and might possibly be brought to do any thing from the prospect of gain.

3. The *argali*, especially of the white sort, from Kamschatka and the Kuril islands. This is an animal of a large size. The fleece is represented as consisting of long hair covering a fine downy wool.

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It never has been properly domesticated; nor are its qualities well known. In many places this animal is found of a fawn colour.

4. The *Crimca sheep*: of these we have little knowledge as yet farther than that the furs made from their lambs are much esteemed in Russia; though less than those of the first and second sorts; many of these are of a grey colour. We know not to what race of sheep this belongs.

5. Persian sheep; the wool of these has been long known in Europe, and has always sold at a higher price than any other kind of sheeps wool. It is of two sorts; one white, which sells always higher than that of the finest pile of Spain. The other has a reddish tinge.

6. Commonly sold by the name of *Laine rouge de Caramanie*, and, sells at a higher price. I have not been able to learn any particulars of the animal that carries this very fine wool; but it is surely of importance it should be known.

N. B. The best channel for information on this head seems to be through Aleppo, or Buchire in the Persian gulf, where fine Persian lambs skins are sold as a valuable kind of fur, and is a considerable article of traffic.

7. The Tarentine flocks of old were much prized for their fine wool; and it is said they are still remarkable for the same peculiarity. It were worth while to try and get some of the wool of these to ascertain their precise value.

8. Strabo celebrates, the sheep on the coast of Barbary as being very fine; and attributes the ori-

ginal improvement of the Spanish breed to the introduction of rams from thence. They are still a strong bodied beautiful sheep; carrying an abundant fleece. Their qualities are not known in Europe. The writer of this article, once was to have got a ram of this breed from Portugal which had been in a present by the Dey of Algiers to the Portuguese ambassador there, but when it was brought to the ships side the captain refused to take it on board, as it was then the winter season. This shews that this kind of sheep is much esteemed. These, with the Spanish, are all the breeds of sheep that appear to promise to be of much use to the island that have hitherto come to my knowledge.

Goats.

9. It is now sufficiently known that the animal which produces the fine shawl wool of Thibet is not a sheep, but a goat. The wool appears to be a fine down at the bottom of the long hair with which the animal is covered. The common goat affords the same down; several Thibet goats have been brought into this country, so that we may soon hope to see their qualities thoroughly ascertained.

10. The Angora goat. This animal affords a hair so soft and silky as to admit of being worked up into fine manufactures, so that it is the *hair*, not the *wool* of it that is prized. It is known to prosper and to preserve its peculiarities in France and in Sweden. It promises to be of great utility to the agriculture and manufactures of this country were it introduced here. But I have not heard that ever the attempt has been fairly made. It could be obtained by the way of Smyrna.

Other wool bearing animals.

11. The vicuna, this is an animal of the camel tribe of a size nearly the same with a deer, and produces the valuable wool sold under the name of *Vigonia wool*, the highest priced article of this kind known in Europe; the animal can scarcely be said to be yet domesticated in its native regions, but easily might be so. It is of a fawn colour darkest on the back and lighter on the belly, where some part of its wool is nearly white. This creature has been preserved at Aranjuez in Spain, one of the coldest places in that country, where it breeds; so that there is no doubt that it could be domesticated in Britain. All the wool of this animal is intermixed with short hairs exactly like those that debase the wool of some sheep, which greatly enhances its price. Were the animal domesticated here, it is probable that by care this evil might in time be removed; it would then be an article of vast importance for manufactures of a fine quality: I have not heard whether the flesh of this creature be reckoned more or less delicate than mutton.

12. There comes from South America also another kind of wool, precisely of the same colour and softness with the vigonia wool, but much longer in the staple and stronger in the pile. The finest of this is pure white, and entirely free from hairs. It comes over in fleeces which have been evidently shorn, and of a considerable size. It is sold in London under the name of *Peruvian wool*. What the animal is that produces it I know not; but from the nature of the filament I am inclined to think it is not

a sheep. It is a valuable article of commerce for manufacture, and therefore the animal which produces it is a proper object for experiment. Probably it may be another variety of the camel tribe; four of which are said by Mr Pennant to afford wool that is employed in manufacture.

13. The *Buffaloe*, as it is commonly called of Louisiana, though it be properly a *Bison*, has never yet been domesticated, and is very different in several respects from the animal known by the same name in many other parts of the world. Its whole body is covered over with a thick coat of hair about two inches long, which is remarkably soft, so as to admit of being easily spun. The skin, with the wool upon it, when properly dressed is one of the warmest kinds of fur yet known, though too weighty to admit of being employed as clothing. It is employed in Canada and the Northern American states for a covering to persons when travelling in calashes in winter; and would no doubt be a valuable article for the same purposes in Russia and other northern European countries, and would be particularly valuable for boots, in cold climates, with the wool inwards. It is surprising that no attempts should have been made by the people of Britain to domesticate this animal, as there is reason to believe it might not be less valuable as an article of food than the kinds of cattle here reared; and its fur would sell, at least at three times the price of a hide of an ox of the same size. The hump, on the shoulder of this creature is reckoned a great delicacy, and would sell at a high price among our European Epicures.

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14. The musk bull of Hudsons Bay is another animal belonging to the same genus, that promises to be of great value, which never has been domesticated. With respect to its fleece and appearance, this animal more nearly resembles a sheep than an ox. It is in stature not much taller than the largest breed of sheep; and is every where covered with a thick and deep coat of hair, the root of which is a close fur, remarkably fine, and soft, and silky. The hair is so long as nearly to trail upon the ground. The fur of this animal is evidently capable of being applied to many desirable uses in cold climates; and if any means could be contrived to separate the hair from the soft wool, it would be of great use in manufactures: Stockings have been made of it, which in softness and lustre are said to rival silk. Its tail affords a strong kind of hair, which is employed for various uses by the native Esquimaux; its flesh is reckoned very good.

N. B. It would probably be a matter of considerable difficulty to domesticate these two last named animals, as it can only be done by stealing the calves when very young; and this is an enterprize that may be attended with danger: but it certainly is *possible* to be accomplished: and if a tempting price were offered for some young ones, the natives would probably fall upon some method of effecting it. The calves, when thus obtained, might be nursed by a domestic cow; and could be driven along with their dams to some sea port town.

15. The *Sarluc* or grunting ox is another animal of the same genus, which is also covered with a thick
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coat of very long hair that hangs down below its knees like that of the musk ox. This animal is a native of the southren parts of Tartary, and Thibet, where it has in part been domesticated; a variety of it has been also domesticated in the higher parts of Indostan under the appellation of *Chittigong cows*. It is all over black except the mane and tail, and a ridge down the back, which are white. The hairs of the tail are very beautiful, and much prized over all India for fly-flaps; for which purpose they are mostly fitted to silver handles. In China, the hairs of the mane are dyed of a red colour, with which the natives form an ornamental tuft on the crown of their bonnets, so that it would be an article of value in our commerce with China and India.

This might be obtained from Calcutta.

In the above list I mention not the camel, which affords a wool and hair useful in several arts, because it cannot be made to thrive in our climate: nor the Spanish sheep, because these have been already partly tried in this island, and are found to thrive equally well as our native breed, and afford wool in every respect as good as in their native country; so that we have only to obtain some of the best of this breed, to perpetuate the kind here. Nor do I mention the beaver, the otter, and several other fine fur bearing animals, which never yet have been thought capable of being domesticated. I have confined myself to such animals as may with certainty admit of being tamed and reared in our own climate. The list might be considerably augmented, but it is best to confine ourselves at first to a moderate number, not to startle the imagination of those who have no great spirit for enterprize.

CONSIDERATIONS ON THE IMPORTANCE OF RECIPROCAL
FRIENDSHIP AND CONNECTION BETWEEN THE OLD
AND THE NEW WORLD.

By the Earl of Buchan.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

EVERY thing conspires to convince the rational and dispassionate mind, that this world, and the universe, is governed by an intelligent power.

Without having recourse to the Jewish scriptures, if we examine candidly the annals of more than thirty centuries that have reached our times, we shall be able to trace in all of them an *epic design* not to be observed so manifestly in the structure of inanimate nature, though there also it certainly does exist, though it cannot be proved by the power of human reason.

This conviction, *with a good education*, is matured by the business of life, or what is commonly called the knowledge of the world; and in virtuous and well employed solitude, it is resolved and confirmed.

This consists with my own experience. It is my intention in the following lines to show, that a new situation has occurred in the arrangement of human affairs; and how it may be improved, in coincidence with superintending providence.

The traces of astronomical observation in India, are said to agree with a period of fifty two centuries; and with the Newtonian and received theory of gravitation, and consequent diminution of the inclination of the planetary Axis to the plane of their orbits.

Concerning this, whether a real fact, or an accidental coincidence, I shall assert nothing. I search only for what

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can be indisputably ascertained, and leads to fair, rational
and beneficial induction.

Human society, and beneficial refinement, has undoubtedly, within the scope of authentic history, had a progressive and visible improvement; and is still verging towards a goal of perfection, or towards a crisis that is unknown.

The wilds of America, and the remote islands of the South Sea, not to speak of the internal regions of Africa, furnish the contemplator of human society with abundant proof of the tardy progress of the arts of life, and of government among men who are not uniformly forced to associate for common safety and defence, and are not drawn into large communities in cities for social intercourse, security, deliberation and traffic.

When my eye glides over the mazy volume of history, it is arrested by the splendid appearance of empires in the east that have fallen under their own weight, or yielded, as they have done in all ages, the hardy invaders of the north, or to the superior activity, skill, and discipline, of the European nations.

But in none of these do I perceive any combination of the elements of social permanence, leading to the renovation of private or public order after they have been overturned by the successful invasion of a foreign power, or by the tyranny of their magistrates. Nor can I discover in any of them, the dissemination of useful knowledge, or of virtuous refinement among the middling classes of the people; or any application of the principles of internal order and government, that was fitted to prevent the successful incursions of barbarous nations.

I see however, myriads of the northern Asiatics pushed from their native seats, in ages too remote for chronology to determine, and planting Europe, then full of lakes and marshes, and peopled with wandering men, yet more sa-

vage and unsettled than themselves, whom they either exterminated or forced to take refuge in fastnesses, or in countries too inhospitable and barren, to excite either the fears or the jealousy of the invaders.

In less than a thousand years, I see the posterity of these oriental barbarians excelling in all the splendid arts of life, first in Greece, and afterwards in Italy; yet always continuing deficient in that social art which is necessary to preserve and secure a regular government, and to prevent the dissolution of empire.

Neither do I find in Greece or in Italy during the times most celebrated by our poets and historians, any of that diffusion of social science, or elegant and virtuous refinement, which indicates a heaven that is able to mature and perfect the great mass of the people, and to fit them for regular and good government, and for internal and pervasive police.

It is not a Hesiod, a Homer, a Pindar, an Aristotle, an Hippocrates, an Epaminondas, a Zeuxis, a Praxitiles or an Apelles, that can so dazzle a wise and good man, as to prevent him from discerning that in the midst of all their splendid productions; these ancients were outnumbered in happy individuals by the Swiss cantons of our days, and by the infant states of North America.

Let any man of learning who is stunned with these observations read the *Cassina* of Plautus. He will there see what wretched ribaldry and obscenity was received with applause on the Roman theatre at the time of the second Punic war, when Rome is held up as in the zenith of virtue and of glory, by the admirers of the ancient republic.

If I were asked how it has come to pass, that except in relation to China, the formation of great nations has been like the formation of mathematical diagrams on the

sand of the sea-shore, I would answer that men have unluckily chosen sand and not brass for the demonstration of their political problems; but that wherever they have been accidentally inscribed upon brass they have been preserved.

The colonists from Great Britain settling in America, have furnished an example of what constitutes the cement for erecting the true and lasting edifice of government, *knowledge mixt with virtue building upon the platform of real property and agricultural industry and simplicity of manners.*

With that country, it seems to me, to be of the highest consequence to Europe, to cultivate uniform peace and amity, and unshackled correspondence and interchange of inhabitants. For it is there that the mirror of true national grandeur and happiness is likely to be held out for ages to adjust the ornaments of European policy.

It is there that agriculture and internal trade is likely to furnish for ages the materials for unpretending, peaceable, and industrious communities; and for a market to friendly and favoured European nations, that can hardly be exhausted till Europe shall have learned the great lesson of peace and of industry, of moderation and of virtue, leading to the perfection of society on the basis of agriculture and domestic affections.

Impressed with the view of the advantages likely to ensue from the wise administration of the Infant States of America, and reflecting on the great part which it has pleased the Almighty Governor of the Universe to enable Mr Washington to perform in the new world, I was desirous of contributing my mite to the exaltation of his character, as a medium of legitimate power founded in the opinion of the people. I sent to him a letter expressive of my esteem, and of my wishes for the prosperity of the

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States, which I enclosed in a box made of the oak that
afforded shelter to our great Wallace after the battle of
Falkirk; and I afterwards expressed my hope that the
States would cultivate peace, friendship, and correspon-
dence with my country, and shun every occasion of min-
gling in the unhappy contentions of Europe.

In return to these marks of my regard for our res-
pective nations, and for his personal character, he was
pleased to transmit to me two letters, which are of a nature
so public, and so full of the best tendency to the welfare
of both sides of the Atlantic, that I cannot think of with-
holding it any longer from the eye of the public.

LETTER FIRST.

MY LORD. *Philadelphia May 1. 1792.*

"I should have had the honour of acknowledging sooner
the receipt of your letter of the 28th of June last, had I not
concluded to defer doing it till I could announce to you
the transmission of my portrait, which has been just finish-
ed by Mr Robinson (of Newyork) who has also under-
taken to forward it. The manner of the execution of it
does no discredit, I am told, to the artist; of whose skill,
favourable mention had been made to me. I was further
induced to entrust the execution to Mr Robinson, from
his having informed me that he had drawn others for
your lordship, and knew the size which would best suit
your collection.

"I accept with sensibility, and with satisfaction the sig-
nificant present of the box which accompanied your lord-
ship's letter.

"In yielding the tribute due from every lover of man-
kind, to the patriotic and heroic virtues of which it is
commemorative, I estimate as I ought the additional va-
lue which it derives from the hand that sent it; and my
obligation for the sentiments that induced the transfer.

"I will however ask that you will exempt me from compliance with the request relating to its eventual destination."

"In an attempt to execute your wish in this particular, I should feel embarrassment from a just comparison of relative pretensions, and should fear to risque injustice by so marked a preference. With sentiments of the truest esteem and consideration, I remain your lordship's most obedient servant

G. WASHINGTON."

EARL OF BUCHAN.

LETTER SECOND.

MY LORD.

Philadelphia April 22 1793.

"The favourable wishes which your lordship has expressed for the prosperity of this young and rising country, cannot but be gratefully received by all its citizens, and every lover of it. One mean to the contribution of which, and its happiness, is very judiciously pourtrayed in the following words of your letter "to be little heard of in the great world of politics." These words I can assure your lordship are expressive of my sentiments on this head; and I believe it is the sincere wish of united America to have nothing to do with the political intrigues, or the squabbles of European nations; but on the contrary, to exchange commodities, and live in peace and amity with all the inhabitants of the earth: and this, I am persuaded they will do, if rightfully it can be done. To administer justice to, and receive it from every power they are connected with, will, I hope, be always found the most prominent feature in the administration of this country; and I flatter myself that nothing short of imperious necessity, can occasion a breach with any of them. Under such a system, if we are allowed to pursue it, the agriculture and mechanical arts;—the wealth and population of these states, will increase with that degree of

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rapidity as to baffle all calculation, and must surpass any
idea your lordship can, hitherto, have entertained on the
occasion. To evince that our views (whether realised
or not) are expanded, I take the liberty of sending you
the plan of a new city, situated about the centre of the
union of these states, which is designed for the permanent
seat of the government: and we are at this moment
deeply engaged, and far advanced in extending the in-
land navigation of the river (Potomac) on which it
stands, and the branches thereof, through a tract of as
rich country for hundreds of miles as any in the world.
Nor is this a solitary instance of attempts of the kind,
although it is the only one which is near completion and
in partial use. Several other very important ones are
commenced, and little doubt is entertained that in ten
years if left undisturbed we shall open a communication by
water with all the lakes northward and westward of us
with which we have territorial connections; and an in-
land in a few years more, from Rhode-island to Georgia
inclusively, partly by cuts between the great bays and
sounds, and partly between the islands and sand banks,
and the main, from Albemarle sound to the river St Ma-
ry's. To these may also be added the erection of brid-
ges, over considerable rivers: and the commencement of
turnpike roads, as further indications of the improvement
in hand."

Having exhibited this specimen of the worthy and
illustrious President of the United States of America, and
fully expressed my sentiments on the importance of a
friendly communication between Europe and America,
I shall conclude this paper with an extract from the speech
of Mr Washington to the Senate and House of repre-
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representatives in Congress assembled when the last hand was put to the formation of the federal constitution.

In the end of this awful year, and looking forward to another, I give it as a christmas offering to the world, and am not afraid of its being ill received by any rational and well intentioned man under the canopy of Heaven.

" I trust that no separate view, nor *party animosities*, will misdirect the comprehensive and equal eye which ought to watch over the great assemblage of communities and interests; and that the foundations of our national policy *will be laid in the pure and immutable principles of private morality*; and the pre-eminence of free government, be exemplified by all the attributes which can win the affections of its citizens, and command the respect of the world. I dwell on this prospect with every satisfaction which an ardent love for my country can inspire. Since there is no truth more thoroughly established than that there exists in the economy and course of nature an indissoluble union between virtue and happiness; between duty and happiness; between duty and advantage; between the genuine maxims of an honest and magnanimous people, and the solid rewards of public prosperity and felicity. Since we ought to be no less persuaded that the propitious smiles of heaven can never be expected on a nation that disregards the eternal rules of order and right which heaven itself has ordained, and since the preservation of the sacred fire of liberty and the destiny of the republican model of government are justly considered as deeply, perhaps as finally stated, on the experiment entrusted to the hand of the American people."

May the Almighty Ruler of the Universe, who has raised the Americans to independence, guide them in their conduct and make them the instruments of promoting the

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peace of the world and the progressive increase of human
happiness.

The Editor heartily begs leave to unite his good wishes with those of the noble writer of the above, for the happy completion of the agreeable prospect that opens to his views. Happy would it be, if mankind could, in all cases unite virtuous dispositions of mind with affluence, moderation, with prosperity and a due submission to the laws with the fullest share of political freedom. Hitherto it has been found, in the history of past times to be impossible to unite all these blessings in the same community. Whether America shall prove to be a happy exception to this general rule, time alone can discover. In the mean while it is certainly the wish of every good man, that not only America, but every other nation, may be enabled to attain as great a portion of these blessings as is compatible with the imperfect state of existence in which we are destined to act our part, for a few years in this universe. That peace and universal good will should extend over the whole globe, must however, it is feared, be rather the wish of the philanthropist than the hope of the philosopher. What gloomy ideas does the present state of France excite in the minds of many men, who a few months ago exulted with the hope of innumerable blessings that were to spring from a system of government which has involved the people subjected to it in a depth of distress that has no parallel in the history of past ages! Government is a practical art; and nothing but experience can decide upon the merits of any system of that kind which shall be devised by man.

ALLADIN THE PERSIAN, AN EASTERN TALE.

Continued from p. 295.

CHAPTER X.

The charms of gallantry.

DISGUSTED with the world, by the injustice he had suffered, Alladin on his arrival returned to the same mode of life he had led before the death of his father. As the empire was at peace, he could not signalize himself by his courage; and the independency of his character rendered him unfit to occupy a place at court: he resolved therefore to divide his time between his studies and his pleasures, and pressed the Calender to come and live with him. The Calender notwithstanding his great friendship for Alladin did not think proper to comply with his wishes; but promised never to let a day pass without seeing him. Alladin's former friends returned to him in crowds; they celebrated his generosity, his magnificence, and his taste. His easiness of character was well known; he could refuse nothing, and his good friends profited by it; many of them borrowing of him large sums.

In the midst of his pleasures Alladin perceived a void, which at times made him melancholy, and inclined him to indifference. He saw with the same eye all the women of his harem: he was indifferent to all. His friends praised him, and his women cursed him, but to no purpose; for he felt there was another mode of being happy, tho' he could not make it out in his own mind. One day he consulted the Calender; "Do you think I am happy?" said he "Less so than the meanest of your slaves." "What shall I do to be so?" "Just what you are about: you will come to it." "What a contradiction," said Alla-

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din, " when every day I am more miserable." ' Patience replied the Calender. Alladin, who had read romances, and had heard much sentimental conversation with women, resolved to give up his harem, and to live in society. It is not among slaves, said he, who can refuse me nothing, that I must expect to find the pleasures of love. He fancied himself in love ten times, and made declarations that were accepted directly ; but he only met with women whose indifference prompted them to make professions without any feeling : others that only took him for the moment ; and who changed their lovers perpetually for the mere sake of variety. The greater part accepted a lover, not having any thing, do to but to write a billet in the morning for a rendezvous in the evening. These women, when *tese a tese* talked of nothing but the different intrigues of the court, or the dresses worn in the last Gala day. They gave themselves up as it were through absence of thought—pretended to prodigious sensibilities, re-adjusted their head dress, looked at their watch, and hastened to the public spectacles. He perceived that gallantry was in general reduced to a rule, that a woman knew before hand the day that she was to yield, the uneasiness and doubt she was to give her lover, and that she had fixed in her own mind the hour of the reconciliation, and that of the rupture. He perceived that in this whirlpool where men and women are turned round, there is neither time to feel nor think. Alladin quitted then a society where so little variety is found in language and opinions, but so much variableness in sentiments — Returning again to his harem, he enjoyed tranquillity and liberty, and rejoiced to think he had no more *billets doux* to write.

ON BANKS

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

BY your note on my scheme for Charter Banks *you must have mistaken me greatly; for of what use are banks to the merchants, if they do not discount bills. I always understood that to be the chief business of the Charter banks, at present; and that they circulate their notes mostly in that way: and if what is called cash accounts, were left entirely to the private bankers, or money brokers, which you please to call them, perhaps it would be equally for the advantage both of the banks and the merchants. But you seem to confound bills of accomodation, with wind bills properly so called. A bill of accomodation is an honest transaction, because there is no circumstance concealed from the discounter which had he known he would not have consented to the transaction. But wind bills are a method of swindling that has got considerable footing by the circumstance of several bank offices being in the same town; an example might be given in each, but as the difference is so well known to traders, I avoid lengthening this letter with them. But if you never have seen a good reason assigned for the Charter banks, not discounting bills at present as freely as usual, I shall endeavour to give one.

Many of the private bankers, had pushed their circulation far beyond what was adequate for their capitals; this is what I call the fictitious stock the nation was trading upon. Now had the bank of England, and all the other Charter banks, continued to discount as usual, after so great a number of the private banks had been obliged to give it over, the whole of the paper in circulation would

* See vol. xvii. p. 204.

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on banks.

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soon have been in their hands, which would have raised their circulation far above what was adequate for all their capitals put together, and so made them guilty of the same error, the others had fallen into: And the very design of my scheme was to point out where a capital was to be found large enough to take up all the paper, (that is supposed to be good) now in circulation, without overtrading themselves. But the wantonly stopping the discount of bills in the usual course of business, is such a heliophil project, that it can be compared to nothing but the envious man in the fable, who was content to lose one of his own eyes that his neighbour might be made blind; and those who do impute such a design to the Charter banks do not consider that bills are the goods banks deal in, so that each bill they discount is an addition to their goods on hand. Now if they shall continue to buy in faster than they are taken up again, they must accumulate in their hands to such a degree, as would change the banks from the character of prudent dealers to the wildest speculators.

In my last, I only made some slight hints at speculation in trade, and the disadvantage long credits was to the export trade, I intended afterwards to have stated the distinction between a prudent trader, and a speculator; and also to have pointed out the advantage that would arise to trade, if the credits given by the wholesale dealer were reduced to three months. But as this must necessarily run to some length and would be interesting only to a few of your readers, I will rather make a proposal to such patriotic gentlemen as Sir John Sinclair how the improvement of wool might be greatly promoted; and at the same time such advantages be derived from it as I have not yet seen taken notice of. I am, Sir, your most humble servant

CRITICUS.

ANECDOTE OF PETER THE GREAT, AND HIS CONFESSOR
BITKA.

Communicated by Areticus.

For the Bee.

WHILE the great legislator of the North was in France, the Roman church was not idle in all its branches to persuade him to make certain changes in his national religion as preliminary steps to an union with the see of Rome, so much desired by the sovereign Pontif. For this purpose several men of eminence and talents, were sent from Rome under pretext of complimenting the Russian Czar, but secretly to assist the French clergy in this great work.

The Emperour with his usual good sense replied, to repeated attacks on the subject, that when arrived in his dominions he would not fail to refer the affair to the Synod, who were better judges of such matters than himself.

However this wise and prudent answer did not prevent him from being still strongly urged for permission to talk the matter over with his confessor in the mean time, whom they certainly supposed to have as much power over his masters mind, as those of France and Spain had over those of their sovereigns at that period. Peter was thrown into a disagreeable dilemma by this unexpected demand, as whilst he disdained the illiberal appearance of refusing it, he was by no means convinced that Bitka's theology was sufficiently orthodox, to be the champion of the Greek church, who he knew had conversed more with the jovial sons of Russia, than with the anrient fathers of its religion. However, on his communicating the proposal and his doubts to his confessor, the reverend father begged him to have none, as he was assuredly a match for the whole sorbonne in *his own way*, as he was perfect master of a powerful *argument* which he trusted would strike the whole of his antagonists *dumb*; and desired nothing better than to put them to the trial, if Peter would only promise to keep out of the way, and leave the whole business to his own management. These preliminaries being agreed upon, the learned theologists were invited to the conference on a fixed day, and our Russian Pope or Papa as he is called at home, had a splendid repast prepared for the occasion.

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HIS CONFESSOR

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anecdote of Peter the Great.

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Before sitting down to dinner, Bitka presented each guest with a small silver cup of sweet brandy from his own hand, as a provocation to appetite, according to the custom of his country, which the whole company had the complaisance to drink with their host, desirous to show every attention to a man who was to have so great a hand in their favourite work.

During the first course, the reverend Russian father rose with great solemnity from his seat, and after stroaking his well combed beard filled a boukal, [A boukal is a large fine crystal glass, often ornamented with a coat of arms or other bearings, used at great festivals in Kussia to drink the sovereign, the church &c. and holds from a half to a whole bottle. The person who first fills it, commonly some great man, stands up, and with much ceremony presents it to his next neighbour, who must take off the cover, (equivalent to your pledging any one) and hold it till the first has drank off this birth-day bumper, when it is his turn to rise up and do the same: thus it has made the tour of the table] of champaign, to the holy Catholic Church; which of course the Roman clergy could not refuse to pledge him in. After a proper interval, father Bitka rose a second time with equal gravity, to drink a boukal to the holy Greek Church; a toast which the French doctors were too politic to refuse on the present occasion, especially after the Czar's confessor had drank to the Latin.

The second course was ushered in with a third boukal, to the so much desired union of the two churches; which it would have been folly to refuse: and the last dish of it was graced with the health of the pope himself, which it would have been a bold priest in those days who would have refused drinking.

After having so well regaled his guests at dinner, father Bitka told them that they had one duty still to fulfil before proceeding to business; at least it was one that he would never omit, with all his attachment to the two holy churches, viz, drinking his sovereigns health, the Czar of Moscow; and the French clergy were too good courtiers to refuse it in the present moment.

Lastly our confessor after having with much fervour, exclaimed, "render unto Cæsar what appertains unto Cæsar &c." from holy writ rose and drank a last bumper with great solemnity, to the great monarch, the French king; and his clergy made shift to pledge him in it as in-duty bound.

The Russian church militant, thinking himself now a match for Romish theology and eloquence, invited the Sorbonne to the proposed

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conference in the Czar's chamber of state, up one pair of stairs, and led the way himself with a firm pace and stately gait.

On being seated in his master's state chair, lent to him for the occasion, father Bitka expressed much surprise at finding but two of the whole Sorbonne had followed him up, a couple of rosy bishops; to whom, after waiting a proper time for the rest of his antagonists, he addressed a short latin speech in favour of the Greek church, ending it by declaring he was prepared to hear all their learned arguments for the desired union, whilst he was perfectly open to conviction.

The well seasoned Russian champion now found he had kept his word with the Czar, and literally struck his antagonists dumb with the power of his *strong arguments*; for not a word could be articulated on repeated efforts, by either one or other of the bishops, whose truant tongues for once refused the defence of the Roman church; so that after a short pantomimic harangue, they were obliged to leave father Bitka master of the field and dispute, who told them on parting, that he never doubted to see the mother church triumph over all the attacks of her seceding sons.

Peter, on coming home in the evennig, was highly diverted with his confessors victory; and did not fail next day at court to invite the French doctors to a second conference with Bitka, which they politely refused, relying on his former promise to refer the affair to his synod; on his arrival in Russian.

Now Mr Editor I cannot help thinking that this important church dispute ended as quietly, as most of those related in church history; of those days, at least, in the reading of ARCTICUS.

Sir,

To the Editor of the Bee.

THE inclosed is genuine; and I honour the lady who had the merit of putting it in writing. If you think it worthy of a place in the Bee, insert it. If not let me know by a note in your address to correspondents, and I will send for it, or let you know to whom to return it. It is in my opinion the most natural and most humorous description of the consequences of a first debauch that ever was published in any language.

A LOVER OF GOOD NONSENSE.

DANIEL'S DREAM.

Taken from his own mouth by the lady of an Irish lord who built the Grotto alluded to in the introduction.

When the Grotto was finished, My lord invited the men to a dinner, on the lawn before the house. Daniel Rouk only, was amissing the day after, and no where to be found till next morning. When I enquired the reason of his absence,—"Why then I'll tell you" says he, that the good *mait*, and the good drink, I got at the grot-hole did not agree with my *belt* at all at all: I ate so much, that I would never desire to leave off. But what would you have of it; such *sickness* came upon me, that I was not strong to go back to my work; and when I went home, I was not the better of it, so I went to my bed; but never a wink of sleep could I get for dreaming all night; and I wish I may never dream such another."—"What was your dream Daniel."—"Why then, saving your presence, I'll tell you. I was dreaming that I was coming home from Molly Crinigan the fairy-woman where I had been to get a cure for the braked heifer that was bewitched, and as I was coming over stitchford key of Ballanaskeagh, and looking up at the stars, and blessing myself, because it was our ladies day, what did I do but miss my foot and fall into the water. Well, that was all very well. I was swimming away for the bare life o'me, when I swimm'd ashore on a desolate island. Well, I went to my beads, and gave God thanks, and then I sat down and sang. The cause why, I thought for sure, and certain it was to be my burying place. While I was singing, there came a big black eagle to myself. God save you Daniel, says he; you also, says I. What are you doing on this desolate inland says he. Nothing says, I only wish I was safe at Ballanaskeagh again. Come a horseback upon me Daniel, says he, and I'll bring you safe at Ballanaskeagh again. My life for yours Daniel, says he. Mount, says he, faint heart never won fair lady. I thought so myself, and this is fine perswadance, thinks I. Thank you Sir, says I, for the tone of your civility; and I'll take your kind offer. So what will you have of it, I got a horseback upon him, and away he flew with me untill he got up to the moon itself. So then I thought to set him right; the cause is why, I thought for sure and certain he did not know the right road to Ballanaskeagh, and I was resolved to be civil; because he had me in his power you

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GOOD NONSENSE.

know. So says I, please your honour's glory, says I, I think you are not on the right road to Ballanaskeagh.

Hold your tongue Daniel says he, and mind your own business, and don't interfere with the business of other people, Daniel, says he. May be so says I: so I said no more. When we get up to the moon, take off me Daniel? says he, I am tired. Bad enough says I, what will I do. Go upon the moon till I am rested, and then I'll take you up again. No, but I won't, says myself; for if I do I will fall. Never fear Daniel says he, don't you see a reaping hook sticking in the side of the moon; take a grip of it, and you are as safe as a thief in a mill. Well, I did so—but what did himself do, but turned about, and, Good bye to you Daniel, says he. Is that all you brute, says I,—Devil speed the traveller, says I, you ugly-unnatural beast, is this the way you serve me? Well, all that was very well, when out comes the man of the moon to myself, Daniel Rouk says he, what are you doing with my reaping hook. Please your honours glory, I am doing no harm, only holding it least I should fall. Let go the reaping hook, says he; indeed with your honours leave, I will not, says myself. Let go the reaping hook says he. Indeed I will not says myself. Let go your grip, says he, or else you had better, you had. Indeed I will not, says myself; and the more you bid me, the more I wont; is it to fall and be killed and spilt. I'll try that Daniel, says he. What does himself do, but goes in and fetches out a hand hammer, and knocks off the handle of the reaping hook, and down myself falls, falls, falls, like a bird that was flying; when (God speed) there flies y a flock of wild geese: and sure enough they were some of the geese from our bay of Ballanaskeagh, or else how should they know me. Is this Daniel, says one of them. It is so, says I. I think you are falling Daniel, says he. You may see that, says I. Take a grip of myself Daniel, says one of them, and I'll bring you safe to the ground in a way you won't be spilt. Sweet was your heart in a pitcher of honey my Jewel, says I. Immediately I saw a chip below under me; Houla, stop the chip, stop the chip, says I: Why should we stop the ship Daniel, says they; by the reason why we dont know whether you are over the ship or not. Mufha! how shall we know that, says I: Throw something down Daniel says he. God help your head what would you have me to throw down? Ease yourself Daniel, say he, and if it falls in the ship then we will stop the ship. Saving your presence I did so. But what will you have of it. I thought for sure and certain it would fall in the chip. But what did I find but itself under myself in the bed this morning.

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ELUCIDATIONS RESPECTING THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

Concluded from p. 288.

On the population of Constantinople.

Nothing in general is more erroneous than the calculation of the number of inhabitants of great cities; but no calculation has been so exaggerated as that of the population of Constantinople. The cause of this error may have proceeded from the situation of the city on the ascent of a hill, which shewing every house in it, and hiding the voids between them, makes it appear to the greatest advantage. Secondly, the crowd of people in the streets, leading to the custom house, the Port, the great Bazaars or markets, the bagnios, the principal mosques, and scales—without people reflecting that these are all situated almost in one part of the city, and that every one who goes out on any kind of business, or on pleasure, passes through them, without observing that the interior parts of the city seem desolate, so few people are found in them. Thirdly, strangers are misled by the accounts they receive of the number of Janisaries, of Bostangies, of boatmen, of artizans, of shopkeepers, without knowing that one and the same person is generally in two or three capacities; for instance all the boatmen are either Janisaries or Bostangies, (excepting a small number,) and the greatest part of the shopkeepers and artizans are also Janisaries. We must rely on real calculation.

1st Calculation.

In Constantinople and its environs there is consumed from 9 to 11 thousand kilos of corn daily. Experience has proved that one person consumes 9 kilos a year. (One kilo of wheat is twenty-two okes which renders 18 okes of flower, of which they make 27 okes of bread as their bread is very moist, like flat cakes half baked.) In France 1 pound of wheat gives 1 pound of bread exactly. An oke is nearly 3 pounds.

According to this calculation, there would be in Constantinople 466 thousand inhabitants. This calculation misled Sir Joseph Porter, formerly English ambassador at the Porte, as it does all those who have not examined into the matter. It is the policy of the viziers, to keep the price of bread cheap at Constantinople; and it is cheaper there always than in places a few days journey distant. The market Constan-

tinople distribute this corn, not to the city only, as people have concluded, but to all its suburbs, as Pera, Galata, the neighbouring villages, to the city of Scutari, and all along the channel of Constantinople, which is bordered with large villages, to Cuchack Chickmagi, (commonly called Ponte Piccolo) and thence in a line to Ergos and Domsdere on the coast of the black sea, to the Prince's islands, to 9 large villages in Asia behind Scutari, and to all the country thence to the Black-sea. Some years from 14 to 16 thousand kilos have been consumed. A great quantity must be deducted for the consumption of vessels of all denominations that frequent the port. From all this, if half the above mentioned quantity of corn be allowed for the consumption of Constantinople, it is the utmost that can be done with any shadow of reason; and this will make the real number of inhabitants to be about 200,000.

2d calculation.

The Kafsab-Baski (or chief of the butchers) through whose office all cattle for slaughter pass, distributes to Constantinople, Scutari, &c from 2500 to 3000 sheep a week. Observe the Turks eat but little beef; some fish indeed, and fowls, but this is trifling to the mutton they eat. At Paris there is consumed 10400 sheep a week besides beef, and 630 hogs, salt fish &c. and 1 million pounds of bread daily.

The annual consumption of Paris is about 12500 muids of corn (36,864,000 pounds) 77 thousand oxen, 120 thousand calves, 32 thousand barrels of herrings, 540 thousand sheep, 32400 hogs, and a quantity of salt cod fish, salmon, &c.

There are however a few sheep killed by contraband that have not passed through the hands of the Kafsab-Baski and the butchers dependant on him; but their number is small, as it is too dangerous and the profits very inconsiderable.

This calculation of meat produces fewer inhabitants than that of corn; but the one corroborates the other.

3d Calculation.

From before the end of the Russian war till 1777, in the winter, there was no plague at Constantinople, a space of several years. The dead that were carried out at the gates of Constantinople, where a regular register is kept, amounted to only 5000 one year with another: this multiplied by 36, the largest number that can be taken, though Constantinople is very healthy, gives only 180,000 inhabitants. It

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may be objected that some are buried in the city in private burying grounds. This number I believe does not exceed 20.

As to the suburbs of Galata, Pera, &c. they are not very considerable, and consist only of a few very long streets.

4th calculation.

The ground on which the city of Constantinople stands is not so extensive as Paris. Count Choiseul Gouffier, the French Ambassador, had a geometrical plan made of it; and whoever walks across the city in different directions may convince himself of this truth. The streets in Paris are very narrow,—the houses 4 and 6 stories high, inhabited from top to bottom. The streets in Constantinople are also narrow; but the churches, hotels, &c. do not take up near so much ground as do the mosques, places, gardens (of which whole streets on the upper and back parts have one to each house)—the seraglio, houses of the great, shops or bazars where people do not live &c. The houses in Constantinople are spacious (excepting the very crowded quarter by the water side in the port) they are composed of a ground floor where is the kitchen, stables, wa'n house, store rooms &c. and generally a yard in the centre; and an upper story where the family lives. It is a very extraordinary thing that two families live in one house, except it be a father and a son, or two brothers. Therefore in the same space (supposing Constantinople to stand on as much ground as Paris) there cannot be in Constantinople one fourth of the inhabitants there is in Paris.

Conclusion.

The result of these calculations prove beyond a doubt that there are not above 200 or 250 thousand inhabitants in the city of Constantinople; nor that there ever could have been many more in it: but it must be confessed that nothing is more deceiving than the appearance of this city, and the crowded streets leading to the Port, Great Bazars and public places, and which only are generally visited by strangers. The scales or wharfs are the only outlets: few people go out of the gates on the land-side; so that all the crowd is towards the water-side. In the year 1777 there were 5700 boats of all sizes in the port of Constantinople: and in all the villiages on the channel this number is great. But the situation of the city must be considered, and that every one who goes into the country, (the part frequented is across the port, up the channel towards the Black Sea, on both sides) must go in a boat, or as he goes to Galata, &c. where the

European vessels lie. It is the custom of the Turks to go on the water in boats for pleasure, and they make no use of carriages (coaches) In Paris there are 12500 coaches, and fewer go in carriages in Paris than in boats in Constantinople, no one can cross the water without a boat. Every family that can afford it keeps a boat.

The Turks tell you, and believe it perhaps, that there are 72,000 mosques in Constantinople. The Greeks, Armenians, Jews, &c. give you, out of vanity to make their nation appear considerable, exaggerated accounts of their own numbers: but no credit is to be given to them. These calculations founded on facts cannot be disputed. S. S.

RUSSIAN VILLAGE ARTS

AND DISCOVERIES IN THE IRON BRANCH AMONG THE
RUSSIANS.

Communicated by Arcticus.

To the Editor of the Bee.

MR. EDITOR,

IN prosecution of my plan begun in a former volume of the Bee, I shall here give you some more examples of what I have there called, the primitive patriarchal practice of the arts before they became separate professions, as still obtaining amongst the self taught peasants of Russia, in the interior parts of the empire.

I began the subject with the art of dying in its humble infant state, where not only the stuffs to be coloured, but likewise the plants employed in the different operations, are all the productions of the peasant's own labour, and ingenuity, see Bee volume ix. page 281.

Before I begin the new subject, which will make that of this letter, I shall add one article belonging to the former, which escaped my memory, when treating of the village dyes. The colour omitted is a beautiful blue extracted from a species of large mushroom named OSINOVIK or popelar mushroom, very much resembling the *boletus viridus* of Linnæus; but it is much to be regretted that no manner of fixing this handsome village dye, which might otherwise merit the attention of the more learned and improved

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state of the art, has ever yet been discovered, for it changes gradually through a succession of shades, to a bluish green, to the great mortification of the little village coquet whose holiday dress is stained with it.

This mushroom which the peasants use as an article of food with many other kinds, [As mushrooms make so large a part of the peasant's diet whilst condemned to vegetables, during the season when the frozen earth produces none; they are probably the best practical botanists in this plant of any people in the world, and even eat, salted, a great many species thought poisonous in other countries, probably with reason, when fresh, as we know that the famous root *casada* from which the American Indians make their bread when dry, is a violent poison till deprived of its juice. Some of the commonly reputed poisonous mushrooms which they eat, are the *Agaricus campestris*, *Integer*, *Georgii*, *Fragilis*, *Boletus viscidus*, *luteus*, *bovinus*, *pallus*, *esculentus*, &c. and they are by no means disagreeable to even a foreign palate, when eaten with oil and vinegar,] either salted or dressed, during the long fast of the Greek church, is when fresh broken, of a white colour, but in a few seconds, the juice with which it abounds takes a blue tinge, which gradually grows deeper, till it acquires that fine colour, which they communicate to their stuffs.

Another plant which deserves attention, from the quantity of fine purple juice it contains, (especially as it is a native of England, as well as of Russia) is the *Echium italicum* or *bugloss*, with which our village coquets stain their cheeks to augment their beauty; a hint which probably your perfumers may profit by, as they have only in general dry powders to offer for that purpose, and possibly the ladies might prefer the crimson juice of a root.

It is impossible to pass over this custom of painting, which obtains universally amongst even the villagers of Russia, without remarking the decided inclination mankind in general show to this practice, in all the different states of civil society; nay the degree of civilization is in some measure marked by it, as follows. The naked savage for example, paints different parts of his whole body, because the whole is seen, and the practice extends to both sexes: in a middle state of civilization, it is confined to the face, breast, hands and hair, because the rest is covered, and the practice is confined to the female sex: but it obtains equally with the girl in the village and the belle at court: whereas in the highest state of civilisation, it is confined merely to the woman of fashion in Christian countries. The declama-

cions of the clergy against the painted Jezebel of Holy Writ, having probably frightened their more timid and devout hearers, from any resemblance with the execration of the church.

But to return to the humble practice of the arts in the Russian villages, it is really surprising how much man may learn from peasants, who have practised certain customs and arts from one generation to another for centuries.

I expressed my astonishment, fifteen years ago in the sixty-eight volume of the transactions of the Royal Society of London, on finding the new Antiseptic regimen prescribed by philosophy to the British navy, in common use, amongst the peasants of Russia, whose situation, exposed to the scurvy and other septic diseases, had led to the discovery, possibly many ages before an attention to the antiseptic qualities of fixed air had introduced it into Britain: nay I found that the Russian villagers, had even refined on it, and was enabled through their means, to add several efficacious preparations, to the new maritime antiscorbutic bill of fare.

My surprise was by no means less on lately finding another modern discovery, equally known to the Russian peasants who have practised, possibly for ages, what had been so long sought in Britain as a great desideratum in the iron branch; this is no less than the making of bar iron immediately from the ore, without it's passing through the intermediate state of pig or cast iron.

It is made by the peasants of the village of Woolouma, in the district of Vologda, who melt a species of ocreous marsh ore, in small low furnaces, of the figure of an English churn, into masses of from three to five poods, (that is from seventy-two to an hundred and eighty English pounds) in form of a flat oval cake, in the following manner.

The ore, which they find near they surface of the ground all around the village, they put into their little furnaces in contact with charcoal made by themselves, and the liquid matter runs down through it, into an oval hole made in the earth directly under the furnace, from which they draw it out whilst still soft, and cut into longitudinal slices, with a common axe on the edge of an anvil.

These slices are again heated in the fire, and beat out into small bars with hand hammers, for making nails, without undergoing another operation; so that what I asserted on setting out, is literally true that *bar iron* is made by these, self taught artists, from the first found, without ever passing through the intermediate state of *pig iron*,

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1794. *improvements in the harbour of Leith:* 347

It is likewise worthy remark, that they plough through their superficial oreous ore, and plant their corn in it, which thrives well; so that one of your sprightly modern travellers, who say so many pretty things, would tell you, that they are an iron eating, as well as an iron making race.

IMPROVEMENTS OF THE HARBOUR OF LEITH.

The harbour of Leith has been found, for a great while past, to be too small for the trade carried on from that port, insomuch that it frequently happens that vessels are under the necessity of being unloaded across the decks of three, four, or even five vessels, it being impossible to get nearer to the quay. To remove this inconvenience, it has been long in agitation to have the harbour enlarged; and various plans have been given in to the magistrates of Edinburgh for that purpose at different times; but in particular, about four years ago, when several of these plans were engraved and published. On that occasion the town council, under the mayoralty of John Grieve, made choice of one of these plans, (which was unfortunately deemed, by a majority of the mercantile people among the most objectionable that had been offered) and obtained an act of parliament for carrying it into effect. But after proceeding a certain length, difficulties arose which it was found would require a new act to remove. When the magistrates were about to apply for that act; the mercantile and sea-faring people in Leith, being now fully sensible of the great defects of the plan proposed, unanimously prepared themselves to oppose it: As there was not to be found a single dissenting vote on that occasion the magistrates thought it prudent to desist, and nothing more was done in that business; the harbour remaining not better at least, than it was before.

Of late, a gentleman of the name of Logan, in consequence of a more accurate investigation of the natural situation of the place than had formerly been made, more extended views, and a more thorough knowledge of marine architecture than his predecessors, has made out a new plan, that seems to be much preferable to any that had been formerly offered; and which, if carried into effect, bids fair to remove all the evils complained of, and to lay the foundation of a prosperity to the port of Leith, the utmost limits of which it is at present impossible to see. His plan is not less simple than seemingly efficacious; it consists of three principal parts.

First, he proposes to convert the present harbour into a wet dock where vessels never will take the ground, and in which they will not be exposed to sustain any damage from inundations or other inconveniences from the river. This wet dock, merely by widening the present harbour a little, and erecting proper wharfs all around, will afford about four times the accomodation for shipping it has at present, without encroaching upon private property, except in a very small degree. This is to be effected by making an entry for the river into the sea, not through the present harbour, but through the fosse that in old times formed the western defence of the citadel of North Leith, which will require only a very little deepening after clearing out the loose rubbish that has fallen into it; and by putting proper flood gates, (not locks) at the entry into the dock, for keeping the bason always at nearly the same height as the sea flows to at high water.

The second part of his plan consists in forming an outer harbour, by running a new pier in a curved direction from the citadel towards the point of the east pair at present, leaving a sufficient opening for an entry. Along this pier a range of warehouses may be erected, leaving on the inside only a narrow wharf so as to admit of hoisting bulky goods, such as tobacco, sugar, rum, corn &c. that are to be warehoused, into these by means of a crane, directly from the vessel without any expence of carriage, and returning them in the same way; or, for grain, by a spout directly into the hold of the vessel; the advantages of which, in an extensive corn trade especially, are evident: The cart-way to be upon the outer side of the warehouses, with proper openings to the wharfs at convenient distances. This to be a tide harbour, as at present. Within it are to be placed, on the shore of North Leith, three dry docks for repairing vessels, with convenient wood yards for each: and here also is to be formed a proper landing place for the ferry boats to ply at.

The third part of the plan is to convert the mouth of the river which will then be to the westward of the citadel, into a harbour similar to that in use at present, having a quay on each side all along at which vessels might conveniently load and unload, as well as in the present harbour: this would be particularly applicable to the coal vessels and others of small burden, which are not so apt to be strained by taking the ground as those of larger size.

By his plan, these three parts are necessarily connected with one another so as to contribute to the perfection of the whole. By sluices properly contrived for the purpose, he has it in his power to deepen the bar, and keep it free of any accumulation of sand upon it for-

ever, with very little trouble, and scarcely any expence; as also to sweep the harbour at pleasure and keep it at all times sweet and clean. By his plan too a provision is made for convenient building-yards to almost any extent without encroaching almost at all on private property, so that forty or fifty vessels might be built at one time without the smallest inconvenience or difficulty to the parties. By the plan also a provision is made for extending the harbour to any assignable degree that may be afterwards wanted, without encroaching upon private property, or diminishing in any degree the conveniencies to be at present obtained.

But what ought to recommend this plan in a particular manner to all parties concerned, is, that the artist will undertake to prove that it may be carried into effect without laying one penny of additional dues upon the shipping entering this port; or subjecting the magistrates of Edinburgh to the necessity of encroaching upon the funds of that burgh; but that on the contrary it will add considerably to the revenue of the community, and the wealth of the place.

I have seen the plan, and had the particulars explained, and I have no hesitation in saying that there appears not to me any *physical* obstruction which stands in the way of its being carried into full effect; and that if this were done it would form a much more convenient harbour than could be effected by any of the other plans I have seen; It would also less encroach upon private property than most of them. It would be likewise less expensive; and (though this part of the plan was not explained to me) I have no doubt that by a proper arrangement, all the money that could be wanted for this purpose, perhaps more, might be obtained without burdening the shipping, the town of Edinburgh, or any individual in the smallest degree; and there can be no doubt but it would tend greatly to augment the trade of this port, and consequently add to the income that the town derives from it. On these accounts, the plan certainly deserves the serious attention of all the parties concerned; and their unanimous concurrence and warmest support, if, they shall see it in the same light that I do.

N. B. It may be considered that I am at least impartial in this case, seeing I made out a plan myself for improving that harbour, which most persons who saw it judged superior to any of the others. This I did not present to the magistrates, or publish, because I found they had resolved to adopt another. But I have no hesitation in saying that the present plan is greatly superior to it; as it will effect the same purposes at a smaller expence and with less derangement

of private property, and also accomplishes several other objects not included in my plan, that are highly desirable.

HINTS ON DOMESTIC ECONOMY.

FROM AN OLD TRADESMAN TO YOUNG ONES.

LETTER V.

Continued from p. 139. and concluded.

Progress to bankruptcy of a diligent, sober young tradesman, without loss, misfortune, or evil intention.

A YOUNG man of good character, sets up in business with a moderate capital, and a good deal of credit, and soon after, marries a young woman with whom he gets a little ready money, and good expectations on the death of a father, mother, uncle, or aunt. In two or three years he finds that his business increases; but his own health, or his wife's, or his child's, makes it necessary for him to take lodgings in the country. Lodgings are found to be inconvenient; and for a very small additional expence, he might have a snug little box of his own. A snug little box is taken, repaired, new modelled, and furnished. Here he always spends his Sundays; and commonly carries friend or two with him just to eat a bit of mutton, and to see how comfortably he is situated in the country. Visitors of this sort are not wanting. One is invited because he is a customer; another, because he may assist him in his business; a third, because he is a relation of his own or his wife's; a fourth, because he is an old acquaintance; and a fifth, because he is very entertaining; besides many who look in accidentally, and are prevailed on to dine, although they have an engagement somewhere else. He now keeps his horse, for the sake of exercise: but as this is a solitary kind of pleasure which his wife cannot share, and as the expence of a whisky can be but trifling where a horse is already kept, a whisky is purchased, in which he takes out his wife and his child, as often as his time will permit. After all, driving a whisky is but indifferent amusement to sober people; his wife too is timorous, and ever since she heard of Mrs T—'s accident by the stumbling of her horse, will not set her foot in one; besides, the expence of a horse and whisky, with what is occasionally spent in coach hire, falls so little short of what his friend Mr H—s, asks for a job-coach, that it would be ridiculous not to accept of an offer that never might be made him again. The job-coach is agreed for; and the boy in a plain coat with a red cape to it, that used to clean

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hints on domestic economy.

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Knives, wait at table, and look after the house, becomes a smart foot-
man with a handsome livery. The snug little box is now too small
for so large a family. There is a charming house with garden and two
or three acres of land, rather farther from London but delightfully si-
tuated, the unexpired lease of which might be had at a great bargain.
The premises, to be sure are somewhat more extensive than he should
want; but, the house is new, and for a moderate expence might be
put in most excellent repair.

Hither he removes, hires a gardener being fond of Botany, and sup-
plies his own table with every thing in season, for little more than
double the money the same articles would cost if he went to market for
them. Every thing about him now seems comfortable; but his friend
H—s does not treat him so well as he expected. His horses are of-
ten ill matched, and the coachman sometimes even peremptorily re-
fuses to drive a few miles extraordinary, for why, "he's answerable
to master for the poor beasts." His expences, it is true, are as much
as he can afford; but having coach-house and stables of his own, with
two or three acres of good grass, he might certainly keep his own
coach and horses for less money than he pays to Mr H—s. A rich
relation of his wife's too is dying, and has often promised to leave her
something handsome. The jou-coach is discharged; he keeps his
own carriage; and his wife is now able to pay and receive many more
visits than she could before. Yet he finds by experience, that an air-
ing in a carriage is but a bad substitute for a ride on horseback; in
the way of exercise he must have a saddle-horse; and subscribes to a
neighbouring hunt for his own sake, and to the nearest assemblies for
the sake of his wife.

During all this progress, his business has not been neglected; but
his capital, originally small, has never been augmented. His wife's rich
relations die one after another, and remember her only by trifling
legacies. His expences are evidently greater than his income; and in
a few years, with the best intentions in the world, wanting no good
qualities but fore-sight to avoid, or resolution to retrench, expences
which his business cannot support, his country house and equipage,
assisted by the many good friends who almost constantly dine with
him, drive him fairly into the gazette. The country house is let,—the
equipage is sold,—his friends shrug up their shoulders—enquire for how
much he has failed,—wonder it was not for more,—say he was a good
creature, and an honest creature,—but they always thought it would
come to this—pity him from their souls, and hope his creditors will be
favourable to him,—and go to find dinners elsewhere. Tam &c.

SIR,

To the Editor of the Bee.

I OBSERVE your agreeable correspondent Arcticus is at a loss to translate the expression *la plus belle ame qui fut jamais* in the well drawn character he has given you. I remember an expression I met with in Scotland, when I was there, which if it does not exactly suit it, is at least equal in beauty. A lady on a particular occasion, said to me she was not in the least surpris'd at my partiality for another lady of whom I had been speaking with great respect, for she was, "*the sweetest blooded woman in Scotland.*" The expression made then an indelible impression on my mind for a thousand nameless somethings comprehended in it. I am, &c, CAMBRU BRITANNUS.

The Editor is much indebted to this obliging correspondent for bringing forward the beautiful expression above, so well known in this country, but which, like the French phrase perhaps alike admits not of a translation into any other language; but he suspects *Arcticus*, who is a Scotsman, will not admit it to be of the exact same import with the other. The Scotch phrase denotes a beneficent and gentle disposition of mind, conjoined with a meekness of temper, that is the farthest possible removed from irritability, and though it is by no means incompatible with genius, it is not necessarily connected with it. The French phrase, supposes goodness of heart with a tincture of meekness also, but it does not so totally exclude that emotion of mind, which sometimes borders upon warmth. This kind of ardour it supposes to be moderated by the influence of a polished taste and refined understanding: it verges more towards the confines of genius, and farther from the mildness of innocence. The lamb is the true emblem of the Scotch phrase; but if we could conceive an animal possessing a portion of the innocence of the lamb conjoined to the elegance and spirit of the horse, it would be a more proper emblem of the French. Kindness and love, are the sensations the Scottish affection is naturally fitted to excite in the mind of another; but a respect bordering upon admiration, more naturally results from the contemplation of the qualities denoted by the French phrase. They are both beautiful, both elegant, both expressive, though the expression is somewhat different. I am glad to have an opportunity of here recording them together.

*** The obliging favour of *Amicus* came too late, as all the room was filled up before it arrived, which the Editor much regrets. *Loki's* favour is received, but also came too late.

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APPENDIX TO
THE BEE,

OR

LITERARY WEEKLY INTELLIGENCER,

VOL. XVIII.

WEDNESDAY, JANUARY 21. 1794.

LETTER TO SIR JOHN SINCLAIR PRESIDENT OF THE NEW
BOARD OF AGRICULTURE.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

IT must give much pleasure to every sincere well-wisher of Great Britain, to see the honourable list of distinguished characters who adorn the new board of Agriculture; but when we observe that the public spirited and indefatigable author of the great statistical work of Scotland is president, and the writer of the celebrated annals of Agriculture, secretary, we have little reason to be afraid that the new board will want energy, or spend its time in hunting after nick nacks, like too many societies on the Continent, who have promised so much, and done so little to meliorate the cultivation of their respective countries.

On the contrary, we have all reason to suppose, that the board will proceed by the most direct and effective *practicable* methods, to promote the species of Agriculture, which may appear the best calculated for the different provinces that demand its fostering care and support, without spending precious time in idle *theoretic disquisitions*

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which have so long retarded the progress of useful knowledge, and has at last fallen upon government, for the punishment of their sins upon the too prosperous nation.

I make no doubt, but the useful institution will readily lend its aid to any district of the two larger islands that may require it, but I am not equally certain if it will assist the smaller with the same alacrity, whilst any remains of ancient opinions still exist against the possibility of cultivating them. It is surprising how very prevalent these prejudices were even amongst men otherwise well informed, before the appearance of Dr Campbell's political survey of G. Britain; a book that seems to have been designed by the worthy philanthropic author, to direct the exertions and attention of some such powerful patriotic society as the board of agriculture, that might arise one day to profit by his peculiar labour.

Another very sensible and favourable report of these islands, given since by another patriotic countryman engaged to survey them*, I hope has conspired with Dr Campbell's to do away ancient opinions, and to point out the unexpected *capabilities*, to use a modern surveyors phrase, of an appendage to the British crown, which it is not hazarding too much to prognosticate, will become in time, with proper attention, of great and *lasting* advantage to the sovereign island, much less liable to the events of fortune, than the most wealthy foreign possession, or than any species of distant colony, conducted even with the utmost stretch of human wisdom, although certainly these are highly desirable whilst you can retain them, whatever severe moralists may say of the dangerous and destructive effects of such an influx of Indian riches as at present inundates England, and raises the price of land in Scotland to so extraordinary a height.

* The Eutor or the Bee:

There is one prejudice that militates against these unfortunate islands, and which possibly I might contribute to remove in my northern situation, viz *climate*, laid often so much stress upon when the cultivation of the Shetland, Orkney, and Western Islands has been brought upon the carpet; now, if reasoning from analogy may be admitted to prove that even the *utimo ibule* of the ancients is within the *region of corn*, and every thing else that a hardy industrious race of men can reasonably have occasion for, putting luxuries out of the question, which they will probably be happier never to taste, I will endeavour to illustrate the fact by declaring, that after many years residence in the latitude of 60, where vegetation is arrested for six months of the year by a thick coat of ice and snow, which locks up both earth and water for all that time, and where the mean heat of the year is not near *half* so great as that of London, and certainly a third less than the mean heat of any one of the islands in question*. Still I observe that this province, though far from being a rich soil, and certainly its agriculture not the most enlightened, is fully adequate, not only to the support of its present inhabitants, but even a much larger population, as the peasants bring a considerable quantity of grain to market in this city, which of course is the excess of their consumption, whilst we are well supplied with greens and roots of many kinds, such as cabbages, cauliflowers, peas, beans, artichokes, asparagus, brokoli, &c. with great abundance of turnips, carrots, potatoes, beet, radishes; all grown in open air. Now if we add to this cata-

* You will see by a paper in the second volume of the philosophical transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh that the mean heat of the climate of Petersburg is only 2½ degrees of Reaumur's thermometer whilst that of London is 7½ or much more than double.

logue of good things, (many of these you know originally exotics even in England, and obtained from much lower latitudes,) apples, cherries, and a whole host of berries, including goose berries, strawberries, *cranberries* for which we are so famous, as well as the genera of *rubus*, and *ribes*; in which the north excels the rest of the globe; and even combat the scurvy without the aid of the citric acid. I say when all these necessaries (even luxuries, some of them,) are produced in the latitude of 60, it is scarcely fair to urge climate as a reason for not making every attempt to cultivate the less British islands, especially when it is remembered that they are preserved from the extremes of temperature, (an advantage we have not,) by constant exhalations from the surrounding ocean.

Planting has likewise been supposed by some as impossible there—an idea that we smile at in the North, where we see self-planted trees growing from the crevices of bare rocks; and beautiful gardens in the English stile, formed on the most bleak and exposed situations of Ingria, as I have shewn in a former letter in the Bee volume 9th p. 155

Now sir, when we join to this reasoning from analogy of what may be effected a-shore, the immense resource which the surrounding sea offers these islands, not only of food but even wealth, if not blasted by the impolitic fiscal regulations, more dangerous and hurtful to these regions than either the north or east-winds much reasonable expectations may be entertained of their future consequence, if properly attended to, as it was from these very seas that the industrious Dutch principally drew wherewith to support that liberty which gave them a distinguished rank amongst nations, and that rendered them so formidable a naval power.

Permit me sir, to say a few words more, on another source of riches to these islands, which equally falls into my ordinary pursuits, and which I think if made the most of, would greatly facilitate their cultivation and encourage the fishery.

I mean the fossil treasure with which providence has enriched some of them, for I have specimens of marbles in my collection from the island of Tiree, which professor Pallas, and our other professional mineralogists think, with me, equal to any possessed by either ancients or moderns; particularly a *rose* coloured marble spotted with *green* or *black* thorn of singular beauty, and a white that rivals the Parian.

Now let us only suppose, that a taste should arise amongst your affluent British nobility and gentry, to ornament their London residence with these beautiful marbles, a thing not impossible, instead of bestowing all their superfluous wealth upon their country seats, often hid in a manner in the provinces, (a trait of national character which has not escaped the observation of foreigners:) two consequences would be the natural result of such a happy and noble mode of employing a little superfluous riches, that London would become the capital of the modern world for beauty and elegance, as it is already for wealth and commerce, and secondly that the lesser islands would become flourishing and populous in proportion to their extent and natural resources, which is by no means the case at present, whilst I am convinced that the whole expence of working and transporting these marbles by sea, would not exceed the cost of merely cutting the hard granite with which Petersburg is so nobly ornamented, although only an infant city which was a morass in the beginning of the present century.

However sir, in drawing so many inferences of what might be done in the British islands, from what is effected in this very northern climate, I forget that both you and a couple of noble lords whose names I see in the list of the board (as given by the newspapers,) have visited us in person, and are able to appreciate my facts, so that I shall insist no further on analogical reasoning in favour of the too long neglected islands, but assure you with much sincerity that no one will hear of the question being taken up with more satisfaction, than your Russian acquaintance

Imperial Corps of
Noble Cadets in
St Petersburg
October 1. 1793.

Arcticus.

P. S. If any attempts are made to cultivate these islands during my stay in Russia, we shall furnish, with much pleasure, any required information relative to hardy northern grain, plants, trees, &c. that may best suit their climate and soil, if any such knowledge should be wanting to your very able secretary so distinguished for his acquirements in every thing relative to agriculture.

ON THE POOR LAWS IN SCOTLAND.

LETTER. V.

Concluded from p. 307.

Abstract of the remaining laws, and concluding observations

THE remaining statutes concerning the poor in Scotland, consist of the four following proclamations by the lord's of the privy council, and their ratification by the par-

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liament. These are in general more loose and inaccurate in their expressions, and their enactments less perfectly defined than most of the former acts, so as to render it very difficult to perceive, on many occasions in what sense they are to be understood.

The first of these proclamations was issued on the 11th of Aug. 1692. It requires "the heritors, minister, and elders of every parish, to meet on the second Tuesday of September next, at their parish kirk, and there to make lists of all the poor within their parish, and to cast up the quota of what may entertain them according to their respective needs, and to cast the said quota the one half upon the heritors, and the other upon the householders of the parish; and to collect the same in the beginning of every week, month, or quarter, as they shall judge most fit, and to appoint two overseers yearly to collect and distribute the said maintenance to the poor according to their several needs; and likewise to appoint an officer to serve under the said overseers, for inbringing of the maintenance, and for expelling stranger vagabonds from the parish, whose fee is to be stented upon the parish as the rest of the maintenance of the poor is stented." (Observe it is only for the fee of the officer, or as we now commonly call persons who discharge this office, *thief-catcher*, which is to be thus stented on the parish, and not that of the two overseers or collectors.) - - - "And the heritors and elders are hereby appointed to have a second meeting at the saids parish-halls this year, on the second Tuesday of October next, for a more exact settling of this matter: And yearly thereafter the heritors, minister, and elders of every parish are to meet on the first Tuesday of February, and the first Tuesday of August yearly, to consult and determine herein as shall be thought

“ fit, for every ensuing half year, and to appoint overseers, by the year or half year, as they shall conclude.”

The *sheriffs* are required to enforce this law, by subjecting delinquents to high penalties. *Heritors* are authorised to compel such as are able, to work, “ furnishing them always with meat and cloth.” *Heritors*, MINISTER and ELDERS, are to take up children who are found begging under fifteen years of age, and put them to work in terms of the act 1617. Beggars to be apprehended, and sent to the parishes where they were born, under severe penalties: But in this act no mention is made of sending them to the parishes where they have last had their chief residence. And it concludes with requiring correction houses to be built in terms of the act 1672.

On the 29th day of Aug. 1693 another proclamation was issued by the same, requiring that beggars which are taken up, shall be sent “ to the parishes where they have last resided seven years together,” in cases “ where the parish or place of birth is not certain or distinctly known*.” “ And we, with advice foresaid, require and command the magistrates of our burghs-royal, to meet and *steat themselves conform to such order and custom used and wont in laying on stents, annuities, or other public burdens* in the respective burgh, as may be most effectual to reach all the inhabitants. And the *heritors* of the several vacant (landwart) parishes likewise to meet and *steat themselves* for the maintenance of

* Observe, that here the time of residence is extended to seven years in place of three, as in most of the former acts; and that the place where they have resided even for seven years is not obliged to maintain them, if the place of their nativity be certainly known.

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"tors and elders are appointed by our said former pro-
"clamation." The inaccuracy in the wording of this
act is extremely glaring.

The heritors of vacant parishes though above expressed generally could only apply to landward parishes; seeing by the foregoing clause, the magistrates of burghs were required to stent those in town; nor do we find in the former proclamation referred to, that the heritors and elders are authorised to stent themselves for the maintenance of the poor, so that they seem not to have taken the trouble of reading that proclamation before issuing this one. There are in both of them, other striking instances of careless inaccuracies which my limits alone prevent pointing out. But here follows another clause that is very mysterious: "And further, for preventing any question that may arise betwixt the heritors and kirk-session in the several parishes of the kingdom, about the quota of the collections at the church doors, and otherwise, to be made by the said session, to be paid in to the heritors for the end foresaid; we do hereby, with advice foresaid, determine the same to be the half of the said collections; and ordains the said kirk session to pay in the same from time to time to the said heritors, or any to be by them appointed accordingly." What is to be done with the other half of the collections we are not told. Whether we are to understand that the heritors are here to have the charge of providing for the poor only *who are capable of working*, and of paying for their maintenance in part, while the session have the charge of the indigent poor only, in terms of the act 1663 we are left entirely to guess.

Another proclamation was issued on the last day of July 1694, merely stating that due obedience had not been paid to the former proclamations, and commanding all persons concerned to give ready obedience to them; and appointing "A committee of the lords of our privy council to receive any representations from the magistrates respective above named. &c."

The last proclamation on this head bears date the 3d day of March 1698. And as this may be considered as the latest law on this subject, it deserves to be particularly attended to. It ordains the proclamations of 1692, 1693 and 1694, "to be put to full and vigorous execution in all points." It revives the act 1672 for providing correction-houses in the several towns there mentioned; repeating them all *nominatim*. As in (Bee, vol. xviii. p. 205. "And ordains the magistrates of the said burghs, to provide the correction houses, and appoint masters and overseers for the same, by the advice of the presbytery, or such as they shall appoint, who may set these poor persons to work; and that betwixt, and the first day of October next, under the pain of 500 merks quarterly, until correction-houses be provided conform to the said act."

"But in place of the *commissioners of excise* mentioned in the said act, we, with advice foresaid, require and command the *sheriffs of shires, and their deputies*, to put the said act in execution within their respective shires, as to every thing that by the said act was committed to the commissioners of excise: And ordains the said sheriffs, and their deputies, to give account of their diligence herein to the lords of our privy council betwixt and the first day of December next, under the pain every one of them of five hundred merks who shall failze, and neglect to do the samen, to be employed

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“ for the use of the poor of the shire ; and to be liable
“ for one hundred pounds WEEKLY, after the said day, be-
“ fore they return an account of their diligence to our
“ privy council, to be employed for the use foresaid.”

“ And ordains the several parishes, within every shire
“ and district, to send their poor to the magistrates of the
“ towns where the correction-houses are to be provided, a-
“ gainst the first day of November next, that they may be put
“ into the said correction-houses : And in case the said cor-
“ rection-houses be not ready to receive the poor against the
“ said day, ordains the poor to be sent to be maintained by
“ the MAGISTRATES of the burgh, who were to provide
“ the said correction-houses ; and that ay and while the
“ correction houses be provided ; and that by and attour the
“ foresaid penalties imposed by the said act of parliament,
“ in case of falizie of providing the said correction-houses
“ against the said day.”

It then gives power the the “ minister and elders of
“ each parish, with advice of the heritors, or so many of
“ them as shall meet and concur with the minister and
“ elders, upon intimation to be made by the minister from the
“ pulpit upon the SABBATH DAY BEFORE, to decide and de-
“ termine all questions that may arise in the respective
“ parishes, in relation to the ordering and disposing of
“ the poor, in so far as is not determined by the laws,
“ and acts of parliament.”

Thus have I traced with a painful attention, which no-
thing could have induced me to do but a sense of its
great importance to this country, the progress of the dif-
ferent enactments in Scotland respecting an involuntary
poor's rate, for about an hundred and thirty years, giving
a faithful abstract of the different acts as we went along.
By this it appears that during the whole of that period

there had continued an uninterrupted effort, on the part of the legislature, to force upon the nation a system of laws on this subject that were disliked by the people at large, on which account they were in all cases disregarded, and never at all enforced. The evidence of this last fact, as has been already remarked, is clear and direct, from the tenor of the laws themselves; as they, almost without an exception begin by attesting this fact in the strongest terms. The last act anno 1698, on this head runs in the following words. "That whereas the many good and laudable laws made for maintaining the poor, and suppressing of beggars, vagabonds, and idle persons, have *not hitherto taken effect*, partly because there were no houses provided for them to reside in; and partly because *the persons to whom the execution of these laws was committed, have been negligent of their duty*; for remedy whereof &c." This then is an undeniable evidence that prior to the year 1698, all the laws on this subject had been merely a dead letter, and never had been enforced: and that this last act had been equally disregarded with all the former is sufficiently evident from this circumstance, that the correction-houses, the erection of which is commanded by it with so much peremptoriness, and enforced under such heavy penalties, have never yet been heard of.

Again, if this act were in force, the maintenance of the poor in all the country parishes in Scotland would be, to the parishioners of these parishes, a very easy task. For as these correction-houses are certainly not yet built, the parishes included in each district would have nothing else to do but to inroll their poor, and send them to the town where the correction-house for that district ought to have been built, and there the poor, must not only be main-

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tained by the magistrates of the burghs, "but these magistrates are liable besides to be fined in five hundred merks quarterly, until these correction-houses shall be built!! Does any man believe that this law would now be considered as in force; or that under its sanction these penalties could be recovered? How then can it, or the other obsolete laws prior to it, be considered as now binding upon the lieges?

From this very plain mode of reasoning, it appears evident that none of these laws ever were enforced, and that they were, from the very day of their enactment, considered as mere dead letter, and cannot after a deep sleep of about one hundred years be now revived.

This important fact being thus ascertained, it may not prove an uninteresting exercise for the contemplative enquirer into the progress of the human mind, to trace some of the most obvious causes of the marked want of success in the many attempts that have been made to enforce these laws.

It has been already hinted that the whole system of these laws was disrelished by the people at large, because of their despotic tendency. This, and the trouble that attended the execution of them, joined to the little necessity that was felt for having recourse to them, were the manifest causes of their being at first neglected; and the inaccuracies and contradictions that were gradually accumulated by the multiplicity of these crude enactments, came at last to be so numerous and glaring, that no force of penalties could induce any body of men, who were endowed with common sense, even to attempt to carry into execution what evidently exceeded the power of man to accomplish; for the uses that might be of these very inaccuracies were not at that time fully discovered, any more than they are generally adverted to at present.

To explain this matter the more clearly, I must trespass a little further on the readers patience by quoting one statute more, the very last which was enacted on this subject. It bears date September 1. 1691, William and Mary, Par. 1. Sess. 7. chapter 21: It "ratifies and approves all former acts of parliament, and proclamations of council, for relieving of beggars, and maintaining and employing the poor," and, *nominatim*, the acts of 1579, 1592, 1597. 1600, 1617, 1663, 1672; "and all proclamations of the privy council for the ends foresaid." Thus all the acts are allowed to be of equal force; and no person can with impunity countervail any one of these statutes: but the attentive reader cannot fail to have already remarked that these statutes clash with each other in all the most material circumstances. To give examples of this, and to do this with the greater perspicuity I shall consider these laws in regard to the following particulars; viz.

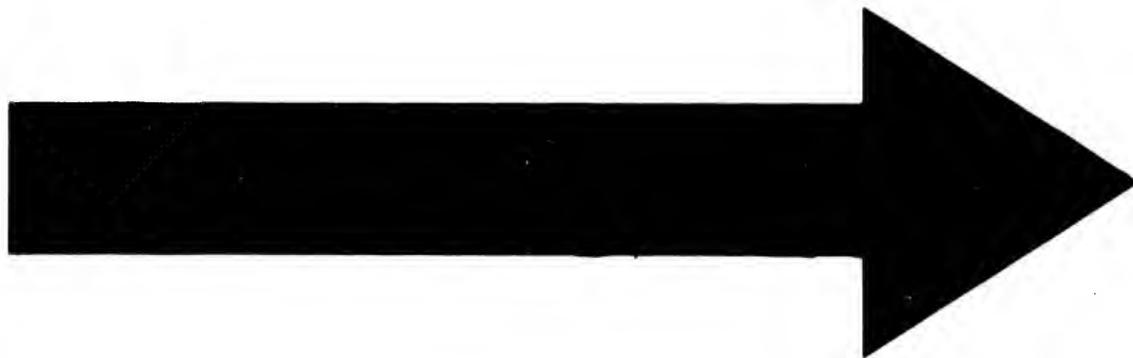
1. The persons appointed to make up the poor's roll. By the act 1579 this duty is entrusted to the provost and baillies within burgh, and the judge constitute, be the kings commission in paroches to landwart. By act 1663, it is the heritors of each parish. By act 1672, it is the ministers and elders of each parish, who are to make up this list. By that of 1692, it is the heritors, minister and elders of every parish. 1693, It is the magistrates of royal burghs, and the heritors of vacant [country parishes;] in both cases without either minister or elders. Among this chaos of contradictions how is it possible to act without transgressing some law!

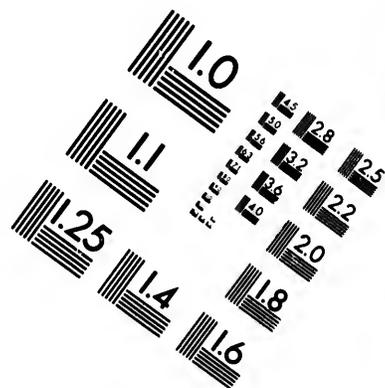
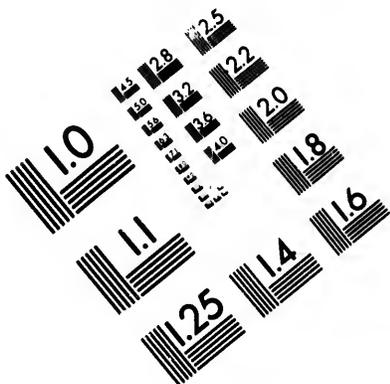
2. Not less contradictory are the enactments in regard to the persons who are to pay, and the mode of apportioning the sums among them. By act 1579, the baillinhabitants, of the parochin, shall be taxed and siented ac-

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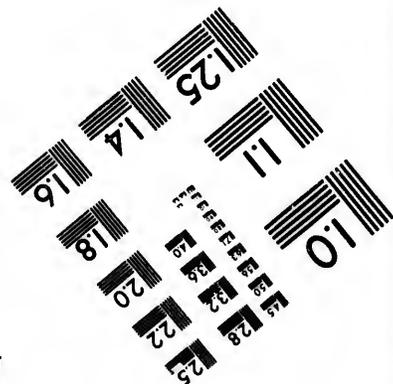
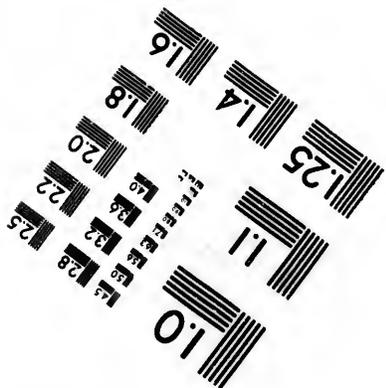
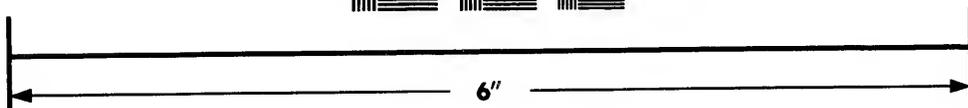
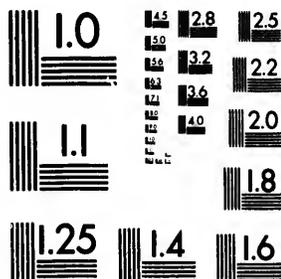
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ording to the estimation of their substance; without exception of persons. By that of 1663, the one half is to be paid by the *heritors*, and the other half by the *tenants* and possessors, according to their means and substance: by that of 1692, the one half is to be paid by the *heritors*, the other by the *house holders* of the parish. By that of 1693, in burghs royal, the magistrates are to stent themselves, conform to such order and customs used and wont in laying on stents, annuities, or other public burdens in the respective burgh as may be most effectual to reach all the inhabitants; and the heritors of several vacant [landwart] parishes to stent themselves for the maintenance of the respective poor.

3. A still greater diversity takes place in regard to the application of the sums so stented. By the act 1579, it would seem that the whole of the money assessed was to be applied to the use of the helpless poor alone, and no part of it for the relief of those who were capable of working. By the act 1663 on the contrary, the whole of this assessment is to be applied for the support of those only who are able to work. This is still more specially provided for by the act 1672; where the poor who are unable to work are to be supported by the weekly collections at the kirk doors; and the stented assessments to be applied to the support of those in the correction-houses. By that of 1692, no distinction is made; but this assessment is to be applied indiscriminately to the support of all the poor. By the act 1693 a distinction is again made: The whole assessment, and half the collections at kirks are to be applied to the poor under the management of the heritors; the remainder to be with the kirk session.

It would be tiresome to enumerate all the contradictions that these laws authorise. In regard to the persons who are required to carry these acts into execution. It is at

different times the chancellor : magistrates : commissioners of excise : sheriffs : justices of the peace : ministers and elders : the presbyteries : heritors ministers and elders : heritors alone : commissioners nominated by presbyteries and appointed by the king : the lords of the privy council :—In short no two laws can be found that do not vary from each other in this respect one way or other.

The same variations take place with regard to the building of correction-houses ; confinement and punishment of vagrants ; application of their work ; awarding their services and those of children. In short there is not one particular in which these laws do not vary from and contradict each other, so that, let any person try to act in virtue of any one of them, it is impossible for him to avoid going in direct opposition to the enactments of some other law which is of equal force with that he has chosen for his guide. In these circumstances it is so far from being surprising that these acts have been suffered to remain in perpetual desuetude, that it would have been truly wonderful if this had not been the case.

On another account still would it have been impossible to execute these laws. They are not only vague in their language, unintelligible, and contradictory of each other ; but they are deficient in some particulars so essentially necessary for their due execution, that if ever even the most feeble attempt had been made to carry them into effect, these defects must have been perceived and remedied. For example, nothing is more obvious than the marked distinction that is made throughout the whole between the regulations for towns and those for Landward parishes. This is marked by many of the acts, but peculiarly so by that of 1693, where the rule for taxing the burghs is the same with that of the stent and burden : But in country parishes, it is fixed to be by the rent:

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This distinction is obviously proper ; but no provision has been made by any of these laws for equalizing the tax, according to their substance, between the inhabitants of the town and the country parts of such parishes as consist in part of town and country, which is the case in regard to nine parts in ten of the borough parishes in Scotland. Should either the one or the other of these modes of assessment be adopted in such parishes, great injustice must ensue. If the mode of imposing the *stent* were to be adopted, the whole burden would fall on the town, and the country part of the parish would be wholly exempted ; and if the *rent*, whether valued or real, be fixed on as the rule, the burden would fall chiefly on the country, and be scarcely at all felt by the town. This evil must have been felt at the very beginning when the law was first enforced, and a remedy must then have been provided for it ; but as no remedy for this evil has been provided, it affords another undeniable proof that these laws have been suffered to lie dead continually, and of course that they cannot now be revived. In this respect they are exactly like the laws enacted for enforcing a uniformity of weights and measures, which are numerous, and are strictly commanded to be enforced, under the severest penalties, but never have been enforced, and are now justly deemed obsolete by all mankind, though these were even sanctioned by the solemn act of the union itself.

Yet notwithstanding these circumstances, it is well known that attempts have been of late years sometimes made to revive these laws ; and that, in several places, a poors rate has been actually imposed on the inhabitants, under the *supposed* authority of these laws. This fact being known, it induces many people to believe that these laws are undoubtedly binding at present: This however

would be a very fallacious inference from the fact: For if the people in any district shall submit to an assessment, however illegal, without applying, *in a proper manner*, for legal redress, who can hinder them? The judges are not to go about like knights errant to seek adventures. It is enough if they afford protection to those who *properly* claim it; and there is not yet on record a single instance of a solemn decision of the supreme court of this nation in which *the real merits* of this cause were at issue: I have never indeed heard of an attempt to rest this claim of protection on its only sure footing, that of the obsolete nature of *all* the laws respecting poor's rates, except in my own case; and there, the decision was alone prevented from taking place by the pursuers abandoning their cause.

There is no doubt but there are decisions of inferior courts upon several lesser points respecting these laws; but a decision of a single inferior judge who, through indolence, ignorance, or prejudice, (and what man is not liable to such errors?) might have given an erroneous decision, even if the cause had been fairly brought before him; but the instances of decisions of inferior courts that have fallen under my own observation have been in general of a nature widely different from that. One man, for instance refused to pay the tax under the pretext that he ought to have been stented according to his *valued*, not his *real* rent. But if he admitted that a majority of the heritors had legal power to assess the whole heritors of the parish according to their *valued* rent, he must, by the same concession, admit that they had a power if they pleased to stent him according to the *real* rent, for the act 1663 which confers the one of these powers as clearly confers the other upon them: his plea was therefore good for nothing, and he must of course be cast.

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In the same manner, should any one undertake to defend himself by maintaining a negative proposition; alleging, for instance, that he, a gentleman, an inhabitant in a town, had been rated in proportion to his rent, which was contrary to the act 1693, seeing it requires that all the inhabitants of burghs should be rated in proportion to their stent, to which no man who is not in trade is assessed, still his plea would not be good, because the pursuers could produce the positive law of 1692 by which the minister, heritors, and elders of every parish are allowed to stent all the inhabitants: and a positive enactment must always prevail over a negative proposition. By a similar mode of reasoning, should a merchant who had been assessed to the poor's rate according to the stent roll by the act 1693, refuse to pay it, alleging he should have been assessed according to his rent, as by the act 1663 yet he also must be cast, seeing he has been assessed according to a positive law that never has been repealed.

I am at some pains to explain these circumstances, because to men who are unacquainted with the precision that is necessary in legal investigations, these conclusions would by no means appear to be obvious. And because it gives us an opportunity to observe, that if we shall once admit the authority of these laws, we shall shut ourselves up in a labyrinth from which it will be in vain to attempt to extricate ourselves; for the very contradictory enactments in these laws would thus tend to give a most unlimited and despotic power to those who took the management of the poor's funds, that nothing could resist. The poor's laws of England are intolerable; but, considered in this point of view, the poor's laws of Scotland, if recognised as in force, would be a thousand times more intolerable and destructive; because they would ca-

able the executors of these laws to make use of one class of persons against another to fleece them at will, and then by siding with those who had been already weakened they might employ them for robbing, those who had already fleeced themselves; and thus they might go round and round, pillaging every class of inhabitants by turns.

This is a very important subject, and I hope few of my readers will judge it impertinent in me to endeavour to impress those who have not reflected upon it, with a sense of the necessity of not hastily overlooking it as a trivial matter. With that view I shall beg leave to state a few facts respecting this subject which actually did occur in the parish of South Leith; not with an intention to reflect on any individual but merely to show what *has* happened, and what may naturally be expected to occur in every such case.

The inhabitants of South Leith were called together by public advertisement to meet in the kirk on a certain day to consider of the means of providing for the poor. When they did meet, it is natural to suppose that most of them were totally unacquainted with the poor's laws. They were told that the ordinary poor's funds of the parish were not sufficient to supply the wants of the poor, and that there was a necessity of providing for these wants by an assessment. The person who took the lead on this occasion was prepared to point out the way in which they ought legally to proceed; and the proclamation of 1692 was read to them as the law which should regulate their conduct on that occasion. By this law the *heritors, minister and elders* are authorised to assess the parish, one half of which assessment was to be born by the *heritors*, and the other half by the *house holders*, (who on this oc-

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casions were confounded with the *tenants*) of the parish. As a vast majority of the heritors present, were mercantile people, and others possessing small property in the burgh, it no doubt would appear to them a trifling matter to submit to an assessment that would scarcely affect them at all, while it would be principally paid by three or four men of great landed property in the country parts of the parish, and their tenants. The proposition was therefore readily assented to by a great majority, *in number*, of the proprietors present; and an assessment of *one shilling* in the pound of real rent was instantly decreed; which was afterwards found to amount to about L. 700 per annum, though the greatest alleged deficiency of the poor's funds did not exceed L. 50.

Several meetings were afterwards held in prosecution of this plan before any objections were made to it in form. At length the tenants in the country parts of the parish presented a petition and remonstrance against the inequality of the assessment, pointing out the hardships to which they were thus subjected in comparison of others, and praying, that if a poor's rate was to be continued, a mode of assessment might be adopted that should more equally affect all the inhabitants according to their substance. The petition appeared so reasonable to most of the considerate persons in the meeting, that they expressed their sense of the willingness with which they should agree to it, if they were not prevented by the letter of the law from complying with it. A person present, took that opportunity of remarking that the assessment had been made quite contrary to the mode that the law required for *Royal burghs*, which if adhered to, would have removed the evil complained of; and having taken up a printed copy of the proclamations of the privy council above quoted, that was lying on the table, he read the clause in that of

1693, ordering that they should be there assessed according to their *stent*. This seemed to operate on the whole meeting like a shock of electricity; and the cry from every quarter was "where is that law." They were showed the law, and were told it was in the very next page to that which they had followed for two years past (for so long the poor's rate had continued) with such implicit obedience.

I quote this fact as a striking proof of the facility, with which men in similar circumstances may be induced to adopt a conduct that, in the end, may prove ruinous to themselves and others, without perceiving it. The inhabitants of South Leith are, many of them, sensible intelligent well disposed men:—Men, however, who though well acquainted with mercantile affairs, and attentive to their own proper business, cannot be supposed to be well versed in the niceties of legal discriminations, or deeply read in the laws of the land. They had relied, on this occasion, as must ever happen in similar cases, on the justness of the information of the person who had taken the lead in this business, and who had not thought proper to embarrass them with any other law than that which he thought the most convenient to enforce. They were wise enough, however, on this occasion to see, that at a future period it might happen that this last quoted act might come to be enforced; and they were clear enough sighted to perceive at once, that if ever this should happen, it would alter their circumstances very much to the worse in regard to the poor's laws. And from that moment a sensible diminution in their zeal for enforcing the poor's rate was perceptible.

Nor did the people in the parish of South Leith act on this occasion in a manner different from what might have been expected. On such occasions, some individual, in-

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fluenced by motives of self interest, pique, or caprice, will always take the lead, and be at pains to pave the way for effecting his purpose, while the majority of the people, regardless of him, and attentive to their own concerns, are at no pains to trace his mode of procedure. This person contrives to get the people convened—represents to them the necessity of the case—points out the means that he says the law has provided for remedying the evil complained of, and asks the opinion of the meeting, what is to be done. The persons he has secretly prepared, propose that the law which he has pointed out should be enforced: others support the motion, and it is adopted; though perhaps not one individual there present knows whether the law mentioned be contradictory of other laws, or indeed knows any thing more about the matter than has just been mentioned to them.

By these means certain persons are invested with powers of exacting money from individuals, which the majority of the people in the parish must naturally deem *legal*, and which cannot of course be resisted but by a *legal* discussion. In general, a committee vested with full powers, will be appointed to act in absence of the meeting; and persons of the most respectable character in the parish will be nominated as members of that committee, with liberty for all other heritors who shall choose it to attend its meetings (this at least was the case in South Leith); but persons of the highest rank and greatest business, soon become tired of attending such committees, and they naturally come in a short time to be attended only by the projector and a few creatures of his own, who by being owners of a house, perhaps of five pounds rent, come within the description of heritors, and under their sanction, the projector, who is the sole manager and director of these his humble dependants, and who on this oc-

casions are proud of being made to act the farce of his superiors, is authorised to do just what he pleases.

In South Leith the rate assessed was 1 Shilling in the pound of real rent; one half to be paid by the heritors and the other by the tenants. A committee thus constituted however, upon the representation of different persons, took upon themselves to moderate the rates at pleasure. One principal tenant, on such representation, got his rate mitigated to that of threepence in the pound. Another who it should seem happened not to be quite so great a favourite, was rated at somewhat more than three pence half penny. A third was made to pay a fraction more than fourpence. And from a fourth, a widow woman, the full sixpence was rigidly exacted. When the members of the committee were civilly asked by one of those concerned, to give a reason why these persons, who were all confessedly under the same class of tenants, were not all rated alike, no other answer was given but that such was the pleasure of the committee.

It required no depth of legal knowledge to perceive in this case that the committee must have exceeded their powers, but it required much prudence and sagacity to perceive how this evil could be remedied without creating a greater. To attempt to seek redress at law would be attended with great difficulties; because the person aggrieved must bear the whole expence of the law suit himself, whereas those complained of, would have the public money to apply in their own defence, as they could plead that they were acting merely in obedience to the directions of the committee. In this way thousands may be oppressed without being able to seek a remedy, even if they knew that the law would certainly afford them that remedy, and tens of thousands may continue to be for years aggrieved without having the

Jan. 21.

the force of his supplications.

1 Shilling in the pound by the heritors. See thus constituted different persons, at pleasure. One got his rate mitigated. Another who was quite so great a favourite than three pence by a fraction more to a widow woman. When the memorial by one of those persons, who were tenants, were not given but that such

privilege to perceive have exceeded their force and sagacity to find without creating a law would be to use the person against the law suit, would have the defence, as they were merely in obedience. In this way though able to seek a remedy would certainly thousands may continue without having the

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means of knowing with any degree of certainty that they have been treated in an illegal manner; thus would a kind of arms be put into the hands of a few individuals which they might wield at pleasure, to the great annoyance of their neighbours and to their own private emolument; and though at the first they might not perfectly know how to avail themselves of all the advantages these arms afforded them over the defenceless persons subjected to their sway, yet they would learn by degrees to use them with dexterity.

To guard against this irresistible power, no other means of defence would remain but to give this fierce Cerberus a sop, and take care never to irritate him. The farmer who was careful to please, by sending to him opportunely, a fat goose or turkey, a pair of fine capons, a nice pig, or such articles, would be sure to find his rate properly moderated; and he who dared to dispute the will of this parish despot would be sure to feel the effects of his indignation by an exaggerated assessment.

Such are the natural, and indeed the unavoidable consequences of attempting to give force to laws that enable any man, or body of men, by the aid of public money entrusted under their management, to cope with individuals, even where the law is clear and definite; but where the laws are intricate, perplexed and contradictory, it gives such insupportable room for the wranglings of lawyers when liberally paid, that there would be no possibility of ever clearing up any point whatever. No resource therefore remains but boldly to cut, instead of attempting to untie this Gordian knot, and decidedly to sweep away at once all these crude statutes as dead and useless lumber, which having been allowed already to sleep, many of them for more than 200 years, can

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be viewed in no other light by every considerate person than as long since entirely *dead*, in the legal sense of that word.

Had opportunity permitted, I intended to have made some remarks on the proper management of the poor *in towns*; the only case, that the natives of Scotland have not been able hitherto to manage properly; from which circumstance, some temptation has been given to suspect that a poor's rate might, in some situations, be necessary: And farther, to show that this is an evil that admits of a much easier cure than that which has been proposed: But circumstances do not permit me at present, to enter into this discussion. Should this work ever be resumed it may then be done.

To conclude. Nothing but a deep sense of the great importance of a due knowledge of this very intricate subject by the people at large in this country, to its future prosperity and well being, and a desire to fulfil the engagements I had come under to my readers, could have induced me to enter with so much precision, on the investigation of this subject. I have done it with fidelity; and I trust that those who shall go over the same ground after me will find it has been done with all the accuracy that the limits, which I had prescribed to myself would permit. I bequeath this investigation as a legacy to my countrymen, that when I am gone, it may remain as a slight memorial to show, that I have not lived entirely in vain.

Dec. 27th. 1793.

J. A.

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J. A.

ON THE DELAYS INCIDENT TO THE COURT

OF SESSION.

Continued from p. 310.

To the Lord President of the Court of Session.

LETTER XIII.

MY LORD.

THE justice of Sir William Blackstone's observations must be obvious to any person who has ever seen the two modes of adducing evidence by witnesses. The one which he calls *the private and secret examination taken down before an officer or his clerk*, is in daily observance among us; and of the other, *the open English mode*, we have frequent examples in our own criminal procedure where the very method so justly celebrated, is exactly followed.

I am satisfied it would be highly beneficial to us to adopt the same plan of examining witnesses in our civil causes, and if it were confined to *the mere establishing of disputed facts* the change would neither be difficult nor hazardous.

The judges who hold our circuit courts, or *justice-aies*, are all of them lords of *Session* as well as *justiciary*, and so judges in the supreme civil as well as criminal court. They are accustomed to the taking of evidence in that manner, and are in the habit of summing up evidence and drawing the attention of the jury to the real merits of the case before them. Indeed scarcely a point of law or practice can occur for which they have not a precedent, in our own civil or criminal proceedings.

Even their clerk is always conversant in civil as well as criminal matters; and not a *macer* or inferior officer of court is wanting to them; So that for the proving of facts by the verdict of a jury, we have nothing to borrow, nothing to adopt, even from the admirable system of the law of England; and no new establishment to form for creating expence to government, or occasioning embarrassment or inconveniency of any sort to ourselves; unless perhaps detaining at the circuit towns for a few days longer, the judges and juries already assembled there.

When a proof is once allowed by the lord ordinary, the witnesses might be cited to appear before the ensuing circuit court of that district,* and being there examined in presence of the judges and jury, the jury could (from their own notes, and without having the evidence taken down in writing) return a verdict of *proved* or *not proved* on each different point of fact remitted to their cognizance; which verdict would of course be recorded by the clerk, and the case remitted by the judges back to the lord ordinary by whom the proof was granted.

At present the allegations of parties are vague and often extremely artful. They take in a large field, so as to comprehend the chance of profiting either by any defect in the adversary's proof, or by any dark or dubious expressions in a party's own proof, that can readily be twisted by him to his own advantage.

But parties would not have the same temptation to practise this kind of refinement and stratagem, if they

* It might easily be so appointed by act of parliament: and letters of *first* and *second diligence* might be granted both together, so as not only to cite the witnesses, but at once *compel* them to appear.

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knew that the verdict of a jury, was to fix unalterably all the disputed facts in the cause. And still further to prevent any degrading practices and to bring the parties to an issue on the several points affirmed on the one hand, and denied on the other, the judge might, by a special interlocutor, ascertain what the different averments of parties were, before sending the cause to proof. When a party offers a proof by witnesses, and when such a proof is *relevant*, he is uniformly ordained to give in a condescendence, or specification of the facts he undertakes to prove, which condescendence is always followed with answers, and these generally with replies and duplies. This practise would still be followed; and upon advising the whole, the lord ordinary might find *it is averred by the pursuer, that so and so is the case, which is denied by the defender, and the defender avers so, and so, on the contrary. As also, that so and so, is further averred by the pursuer; and so furth.*

The essence of the relevant allegations of parties might be thus comprised in a few sentences. And when either party was dissatisfied with the lord ordinary's finding in those respects, such party might *represent* to his lordship, or, if necessary, might *reclaim* to the court.

But in all cases I submit to your lordship that there ought to be a *final interlocutor*, fixing the precise points to be proved *pro* and *con*, before a proof is allowed, so as the jury may be able to confine their verdict to those facts remitted to them, and such relative facts as have an immediate and plain tendency to establish the same thing.

For the sake of informing the judges and jury on the subject of the proof allowed, the *act* and *commission* ought to be printed, and copies of it distributed to them in due time before leading the proof. By this means, and by the previous explanations of counsel, who will no doubt be

382 *on delays incident to the Court of Session. Jan. 27.*
heard on both sides before the proof begins, it will be rendered easy for the judges and jury to proceed with certainty and effect. I am, &c. LENTULUS.

From the same to the same.

LETTER XIV.

MY LORD,

YOUR own experience will inform you, how much time and trouble would be saved to the court, by the special verdict of a jury on each disputed point of fact, in place of voluminous mutual proofs, and long winded arguments upon them, supported by probabilities and conjectures.

Such an alteration, would afford time to the inner-house to examine in their own presence, all the witnesses adduced in *proceses of reduction, declarators of property, provings of the tenor*, and other actions, that are peculiar to the supreme court; in taking which proofs, the whole lords would form a venerable jury, and could find in the terms of a special verdict upon each disputed point, without taking down the evidence in writing, any more than a common jury.

In other cases of an intricate nature, or where a suspicion of fraud arose, the Lord Ordinary could make *Avissandum* to the court, and order informations, so as the whole lords might appoint the witnesses to be examined in their own presence, or remit to the Circuit Court, to have the proof taken there, as they saw cause.

A deposition to lie *in retentis*, ought to be taken by the whole court, if the witness can be brought before them, it being a matter of consequence as well as difficulty, to give his testimony the same appearance, and impression in writing, as the witness does himself in the delivery.

When one or more of the witnesses are abroad or unable to attend in court, these ought to be examined first,

and their depositions should be made a part of the process before it goes to the jury. But the court ought not to listen easily to the demand of examining such witnesses: But on the contrary should, oblige the party requiring their evidence, to condescend previously on what he knows they can say; and also on what he can prove (as far as he knows and believes) by the evidence of his other witnesses. The adverse party should likewise be allowed to answer his condescendence; and indeed replies and duplies ought to follow, that the court may be able to judge as far as possible, whether the testimony of those witnesses be really necessary or not.

The *production* ought to be compleat before a proof is allowed. But when a case once comes before a jury, the proof ought to proceed without regard to the sickness or absence of the most material witness; for if the smallest opening be left for delay, a proof will then be a more tedious matter than it is at present, as the Circuit Courts only assemble twice a-year.

If the pursuer is not ready with his proof, the defender should be allowed to go on with his proof, on which a verdict ought to follow; bearing however that it proceeds upon the defenders proof only; and the verdict being reported to the lord ordinary, his lordship ought to *afsoilzie* the defender with full expences.

Even if the defender should bring no proof he will fall to be *afsoilzied* with expences, because if nothing is established against him, he may think that no proof is necessary on his part. But in either case, power must be reserved to the pursuer to bring a new action afterwards upon the same grounds, otherwise great injustice might be done to him, sometimes without any fault of his own.

When the *onus probandi* lies upon the defender, and he fails to bring forward his witnesses, the pursuer's proof

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ought, in the like manner to proceed, and decreet, with expences ought to follow, in the pursuer's favour, reserving to the defender, the benefit of an action of repetition.

But no such reservation ought to be made for either party, if any witnesses have been examined for them before the jury.

And I would have no new verdict or trial excepting of the fact, in cases where the above reservations are previously made: Or in the still stronger case of a *reduction* of the proceedings on relevant grounds in law. I am &c.

LENTULUS.

From the same to the same.

LETTER XV.

MY LORD.

The minute book of the court is of signal use, as it apprises a party of every *act* and *decreet* pronounced against him, in time sufficient to have them recalled; but it would still be much more serviceable, if every *order* and *finding* were also inserted in it.

The same article may enter the minute book, *six, eight, ten, perhaps twelve* times successively, on repeated applications to the Lord Ordinary and the court, for an alteration of the judgement; but if two consecutive interlocutors of the Lord Ordinary were *final* like two interlocutors of the court, the same act or decreet would only be three times repeated in it. The clerks assistants would therefore have time to minute every interlocutor that an ordinary signs his name to, if it were only allowing a party to give in a duply.

It would seem that a judgement given against a party upon his own shewing must be well founded; and there

for that a representation or a reclaiming petition might be safely refused without answers; but experience shows us the contrary. The statement of a party is always *imperfect* as well as *partial*, and often raises a suspicion or prejudice against his plea, which is only removed by the statement of his adversary compared with his own, or in other words by a full knowledge of the whole case.

Accordingly it often happens that after a first reclaiming petition is refused without answers, the petitioner ultimately carries his cause by means of a second petition and answers, without the emerging of any fact not formerly known in the cause.

It even happens that the court, on considering the whole circumstances of a particular case, determine it on grounds not stated to them in the pleadings, and of which the parties had no previous notion.

We may therefore conclude, that to refuse a representation or a reclaiming petition without answers, is inconsistent with a considerate, just and uniform rule of decision.

I am sorry to look back and observe, there is not one alteration suggested by me, to your Lordship that would not more or less affect the interests of the clerks of session, and of course that no change can be expected in any material point, until the clerks shall be provided with salaries from government, in place of their fees.

The whole of the clerks fees amounts in a-year, to about L. 5000, of which the six principal clerks enjoy three-fourth parts, and the six deputy clerks the remaining fourth. The number of new causes that come in annually may be about 2000; but in one half of these no proceedings take place, owing to their clearness, or insignifi-

cance, or the indolence or inattention of the parties ;—the other half therefore is burthened with nine-teaths of the clerks fees, or a sum of 4500l, and what is worse the burden falls most unequally upon the parties to them, as no regard is had to the value or amount of the property in dispute. In so much that a pursuer who has but a small sum at stake and less ability to pay, if his cause be intricate, or if he meets with an obstinate antagonist, may have much more to pay for extracting his decret alone than the whole of his debt amounts to ; and perhaps little chance after all, of ever being able to recover it from the defender.

The clerks themselves would gladly accept of salaries, as their fees are decreasing, owing to agreements and transactions among litigants, which it is impossible for them to prevent. I think the principal clerks would be well contented with 600l. a-year each, and the deputy clerks with 200l, each ; which sums it would be the interest of the public to raise by a *per centage* on the value of the property at stake in each cause, to be paid equally by pursuers and defenders, if a grant of the salaries cannot be obtained from government.

It would further the law business of the country very much, if a month of the harvest vacation were added to the summer session, so double the number of causes could be forwarded and determined in a continued sitting of three months, that would in a short session of two months, preceded and followed by a long vacation. Even the Christmas recess is a great interruption to business, and it would be no small advantage to have it shortened, and limited to a single week.

Before taking my leave of your lordship, you will permit me to quote the words of the commentator, and apply them to the importance of the subject which I

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1794. *Calla Æthiopica*—respecting the Larch tree. 387
have now left, "Hoc autem publicæ utilitatis causa
constitutum est, ut litium aliquis esset finis. Vin. ad
Inst. L. 4. Tit. 12." I remain with the utmost respect,
your lordships most obedient, and most humble servant,
LENTULUS:

CALLA ÆTHIOPICA.

SIR, *To the Editor of the Bee.*

You mention in your Bee, (vol. 12th, p. 258) that the
plant called *Calla æthiopica* is capable of withstanding the
rigour of our climate; we have the same plant now
(January 17.) standing in the botanic gardens at Edin-
burgh, exposed to the open air, with seven or eight
strong flower buds upon it. Were the naturalists of the
age to pay more attention to the *culture, qualities* and
constitution of plants, they would be of more use to their
country than by indulging their present insatiable thirst for
new discoveries. I am your obedient servant. *Observer.*

ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON THE LARCH
WOOD.

To the many uses specified, (Bee, vol. xvii.) of larch
wood, I have to add the following facts communicated by a
gentleman who dined in company with admiral Greig, last
time he was in Scotland. The admiral at that time was
extremely warm in praises of that wood; and mentioned
in particular that for ship plank nothing could equal it:
He also said that he had seen many a peasant's hut in the
northern parts of Russia, that having been covered with
chingles of larch wood, had been known to remain perfect.

ly sound, without needing the smallest repair for more than a hundred years; of the rapidity of its vegetation, the following fact is very satisfactory.

Account of two larch trees, now growing at Dunkeld, communicated by Mr Scougal, gardener to the Duke of Athol.

The larch trees are fifty years old; they are 120 feet high, three feet and a half in diameter, one yard above the ground; and are said to contain 110 cubic feet of wood each, in the trunk, exclusive of the branches. We, generally plant from 150 to 200 thousand larches every year. The young larches here have in general grown three feet this summer over all the plantations. They thrive better on the heights than the Scottish firs.

November 10th. 1793.

ANECDOTE OF PETER THE GREAT,

Communicated by Arcticus.

For the Bee.

WHILST the Czar worked incognito as a ship-wright at Sardam in Holland, to acquire that knowledge which must ever cover him with immortal honour, he contracted a sort of friendship with a blunt honest skipper named Weebes who had a ship building there, and on which the emperor occasionally worked.

During the construction of his vessel, Peter inquired of Weebes for which trade he intended her when ready, and was answered by theseaman, that he had heard so much of the great encouragement offered by the Czar of Moscovy to those who frequented his new port and city, that he had some thoughts of naming his ship the St Petersburg, and making his first voyage there, more especially as that measure was strongly commended by his merchant Mr Luffes of Amsterdam, who had in that case promised him a letter to his correspondent in Russia Mr Jeremy Meyer*, who would procure him a good cargo. This scheme gave

* Mr Randolph Meyer son to the gentleman named in the anecdote is still living here, and is an acquaintance of Arcticus.

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much pleasure to the Czar, as he liked the man, so that he not only encouraged him in it, but likewise gave him a letter to a particular friend in St Petersburg, who would show him every civility, and make him acquainted with his family, a set of plain honest mercantile people who would co-operate with Mr Meyer in furnishing the cargo, and give him for certain, a hearty welcome if he was not arrived to do it himself. Weebes thanked the Russian ship-wright for his kindness with a hearty squeeze by the hand, and actually did arrive at St Petersburg soon after the emperor, who was working in his admiralty on the south bank of the river, and communicating to his people the knowledge he had so nobly acquired, when a new Holland ship saluted it, which he instantly recollected to be the same he had worked on at Sardam commanded by his favourite tar. Peter hurried immediately home in his working dress, a garb well suited to the scene he was going to act, and had arrived at his cottage palace not far from the old change, (still entered with reverence by those who admire real greatness,) before Weebes had got all ready to come ashore.

A Mr Blane captain of the port, the same to whom Peter had recommended the Skipper, went on board without discovering his function, and after inquiring the name of the ship &c. asked if he had not a letter for him from a friend who had now got home himself, and would show him those civilities in person, which he had at Sardam committed to the care of another. Weebes was highly delighted to find he had a friend and acquaintance in a strange country, and hurried with Blane to see him, after begging that gentleman to help him to smuggle ashore a few presents to Michailof's family, (the Czar's travelling surname.) Peter was waiting with impatience on the quay for his debarkation, and after kindly embracing Skipper Weebes, conducted him to his humble dwelling, which indeed the Hollander found so much so, from the furniture and every thing around him, that he had no high idea of his power to procure the promised cargo, and seemed soon impatient to see Mr Meyer, by way of having two strings to his bow.

The Czar in the mean time said he must call his wife Kate before they proceeded any further, who would be happy to see a friend who had been kind to him at Sardam; and that amiable princess appeared on being sent for, with refreshments on a salver in the stile of Russia, i. e. amongst the class of people, the imperial couple were representing, and with all that native dignity and grace, for which she

was so remarkable. Weebes was more struck with the fair Cathrine than with any thing he yet had seen, and taking his pipe out of his mouth, which he was smoking according to custom, not only gave her a hearty smack, but a familiar slap on the shoulder, exclaiming that Peter was a lucky dog and had made no bad choice.

The presents were now lugged out from his own, and Blane's pockets, and thrown into the *Frow's* lap, telling her at the same time that a piece of Holland in the number, would make such shirts as never yet had covered her fair back, and that she would *lick her lips* after an excellent cheese made by his own *Frow* for the occasion.

Whilst Peter and Cathrine were highly enjoying this natural scene, his favourite prince Menchikoff, whom none durst stop, abruptly entered the room on some pressing business dressed in his ribbon, star, &c. and had like to have spoiled all, as the Skipper jumped up, and asked the emperor in a whisper who the great man was, and what he wanted. Money, replied Peter in the same low voice, for some timber we have got from his estate, as you know these gentry are always needy; and under pretence of paying him went out for a moment, and dispatched the prince. However he was not equally fortunate in keeping up the deception a short time afterwards, when the guard being relieved, a circumstance the emperor had forgot to prevent, although he had ordered it to keep out of sight, the field marshal Buterline then captain of the guards marched into the room, and announced the change in the loud voice of military etiquette. This second unexpected interruption overcame Peters patience, in so much, that he forgot himself so far, as to give a stamp with his foot, which sent the marshal to the right about faster than he came in; but the sport was over, for on looking round, Peter saw his *Svidam* mésmate, stuck up against the wall with his cap in his hand, and his pipe dropt at his feet; and all he could now say could no longer persuade him that he was the ship building merchant: he had so long paused for no said the honest tar, I see that I have been making so free with the Czar himself, and am quite unhappy at the smack and slap I gave the Empress; for it must have been her whom I treated so rudely. Peter after a hearty laugh, soon dispelled his fears, by sending for Cathrine to receive his apology, on condition he took another kiss at the end of it, and stayed dinner with him, when he would conduct him to change, and introduce him to his merchant.

The Czar was better than his word both here and in Holland, for he not only presented Weebes in person to Mr Meyer, on public

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Mr Meyer, on public

1794.

anecdote of Peter the Great.

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change as his particular friend, but made him a present of his first cargo, sending at the same time an imperial edict to the custom-house, that the ship St Petersburg on which the Czar had worked, should have liberty as long as she could float, to bring such voyage to the amount of 1000 rubles worth of merchandize free of all duties; and this vessel did actually frequent our port on these terms under three different skippers, Weebes, Ankezeibles, and Wolkezeibles, the last of whom was here in her as late as the year 1776, as is well remembered by your correspondent,

AARCTICUS.

I have now given you, Mr Editor, several anecdotes to illustrate the real character of the great man whose works and great designs I have so long been admiring on the spot; and which it certainly was a great loss to his subjects, that he did not live to finish, as a long interval of time elapsed between his death, and the reign of the present enlightened sovereign who has done so much. And I cannot help thinking, but that it is from such traits of character that we must now judge of the dispositions of a man, whom it has been a sort of fashion amongst the present philanthropic republicans to decry as a tyrant, because he cut off the heads of some of the old Russian pretorian guards, or Strelitzs, (so much like the new parisian,) whom he caught in the sacred duty of rebelling against their lawful sovereign, who was attempting to discipline and civilize them; and because he carried a cudgel, with which he belaboured the levellers of that day, when he found them dividing property that did not belong to them.

For my own part, Sir, I have long considered Peter the Great, with regard to the use of his *dubeen*, as the knight errant of a barbarous empire, carrying a *cudgel* instead of a lance, for the protection of widows, orphans, and the oppressed in general, and from which neither riches, birth nor rank put a culprit in safety: nay it was only to the great that the *dubeen* was formidable, for I never heard of his condescending to use it on the peasants, a class of men he governed and kept to their duty, rather by example than severity, putting his own hand to every work, joking and conversing with them familiarly on all occasions, so that never was a sovereign more beloved and popular amongst the lower class of his subjects, nor more feared by the high-

99.

A most laughable instance of this last fact, happened in the present reign, when Cathrine the 11. surrounded by her nobles, planted at the foot of the hero's tomb, in the ancient church of the Petersburg fort, the standards and other military trophies taken at the memorable naval battle of Chisne.

The celebrated Russian orator Archbishop Platon who officiated on the occasion, called out repeatedly during an eloquent sermon. "Look up Peter and see what the navy you created has now done under the immortal Cathrine, look up Great Peter, and behold the Turkish banners which insulted thee on the Pruth, now planted at the foot of thy tomb," &c; in short the orator repeated these invocations so often in different parts of his discourse, and called upon Peter to look up with so much fervor and power of voice and language, that as the story goes, one of the much affected audience, an old officer, pulled him gently by the robe, and begged him for God's sake to speak a little lower, lest he should really awake the Czar, who might have his *Du*been in the coffin with him.

TO THE READERS OF THE BEE.

THE Editor begs leave to return grateful acknowledgements to his subscribers for the encouragement they have given to him in the prosecution of this work; particularly to those who by their punctual payments have enabled him thus far to fulfil his engagements to the public: but he is sorry to be obliged to remark that there are a *great many*, who, regardless of the express obligation they came under on their part, when they ordered the Bee, to make payments at the end of *each* volume, have been so tardy in this respect, as to make the accumulated debts now due on this account, amount to an enormous sum. At the end of last year, when these scattered accounts were collected into one total, the sum then due was so great as to excite considerable anxiety to the Editor, and he determined, during the currency of the present year, strictly to guard against its rising higher; he accordingly struck off his list such subscribers as he deemed doubtful, and adopted every method he could think of that did not verge on rudeness, to keep it within due bounds; but with so little success, that instead of *diminishing*, he has the mortification to find that these debts have, during that period, *augmented* many hundred pounds. This circumstance has determined him to *discontinue* the Bee.

at the end of the present volume, till he shall at least see if payments can be made so effectual, within a reasonable time, and if such arrangements can be made as to prevent the like inconvenience from being felt in future. Should that be the case, he may then perhaps resume his labours, which the communications of his distant correspondents, now only beginning to come in, will enable him to do, he hopes, with additional interest.

In the mean time, the Editor's best thanks are due to his numerous *correspondents* for many valuable communications with which they have kindly favoured him. The limits of his publication prevented him from being able to avail himself of many of these, which he hoped to bring forward by degrees. But these have now accumulated so much, that it will require much time to go over the whole, and to pick out those of greatest value. Indeed the making of this selection appeared to him, for sometime past, such a formidable task, while so many other things claimed his attention, that he has not been able to enter upon it; nor to bring forward even those papers of which he had some general recollection. During the interval of relaxation that this suspension of business will afford, this selection may be made; and thus he would have an opportunity of doing that justice to all his correspondents which he has ever most anxiously wished.

But as he thinks, from the present aspect of things, the probability is that the work will never be resumed by him; he considered it as an indispensable duty on his part, during the currency of the present volume, to fulfil some engagements he had come under to his readers, but which he had always deferred in order to make room for the communications of others. The readers will, on this account, find a greater proportion of the Editor's own writings in some late numbers than usual. This he hopes will be accounted in some measure an involuntary fault. As these speculations he knows will appear very uninteresting to some of his readers, he has endeavoured to make that inconvenience be the less felt by printing these numbers in a smaller type than usual; and on the same account he, along with this volume hath given a supplementary number to his subscribers *gratis*.

On his taking leave of the public for the present, the Editor once more returns his grateful thanks for the favour with which the public have received these his imperfect exertions to accomplish the object he had in view. In one respect alone, has he been able fully to succeed; which was, in totally excluding from it whatever may have a tendency either to mislead the judgement or corrupt the heart; and

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he trusts the public will be ready to allow, that there is not perhaps an equal number of volumes in the English language on miscellaneous subjects, that are more chaste in these respects. Throughout the whole he has had the improvement of youth in view; and assuredly he would sooner have burnt the whole than have *knowingly* admitted a single passage that he thought could have weakened the moral principle or led the understanding to err. If any such passages are to be found then, they have totally escaped his notice.

In the present state of things, it can hardly be expected that he should give a general index to the whole of these volumes, as he once hinted at; but for the satisfaction of the purchasers of the whole of the volumes, he subjoins the following fragment of a general index of the dissertations of greatest length and importance that have occurred in this publication; some of which have been continued through different volumes. Most of the others are shorter, and will be found complete in the index of each volume.

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HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

WEDNESDAY NOVEMBER 27.

FOREIGN.

State of France.

SINCE our last the vigour of military operations on all hands has been sensibly abated. The prince de Cobourg remains at Tournay, where he evidently intends to take up his winter quarters: and the French are preparing to go into Lisle. On the Rhine, the success of the Prussians has not been so great as was expected when the lines of Wissembourg were forced. The siege of Landau is abandoned for the present, and Strasbourgh still holds out against the combined powers: It seems indeed to be doubted whether the Prussia is will be able to winter in Alsace, as was intended. Indeed, a total change seems to have taken place in the plan of military operations of the allied powers; for if we may trust to appearances, instead of pushing for conquests in France; which in the present state of that country, especially with regard to provisions, must be a matter of great difficulty, they have resolved to act merely on the defensive in future, and to direct their chief efforts towards the preventing the French from obtaining provisions and military stores from abroad; a mode of procedure that promises to be attended with less bloodshed, and less expediture of money, while it will perhaps sooner effect the purpose intended, than the plan they, without deliberation adopted, when flushed with success in the beginning of this campaign.

On the Pyrenees the French have pursued the advantages they have obtained over the Spaniards, who have been forced to evacuate all the conquests they have made in France. The attempts to recover Toulon have been hitherto unsuccessful; though these attempts have produced several sharp conflicts that have been attended with some loss upon both sides. It is here we may expect that the most serious exertions of France will be made during the winter, unless they shall be prevented by other serious operations nearer home.

This diversion seems to have been the object intended by those military armaments that have been fitting out in Britain for some time past, under the avowed purpose of an expedition against the French settlements in the West Indies, which in the present state of those colonies can hold out no tempting lure to any considerate people. It now seems that the court of Britain has been acting in concert with the insurgents in Brittany, while

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the royalists in Vendeé, by a feeble effort, suffered themselves to be gradually repulsed from post to post towards the Loire, with a view to amuse their opponents with imaginary victories, and draw off their attention from the object of their serious operations; they, after taking secure possession of Noirmontier an island in the mouth of the Loire, with a view to secure a correspondence on that quarter with the allied powers, have directed their chief efforts towards *St. Maloes*, a port the most convenient of any in France for facilitating a communication with Britain. The national forces, by late accounts from Guernsey, have been every where defeated in Brittany. *Laval* and *Vitre*, *Rennes* and *Dirans*, are all said to be now in possession of the Royalists; and they are said to have advanced on the 7th inst. to Dol, within two leagues of *St. Maloes*, and thus to cut off all supplies from thence by land. And as that town is said to be ill provided with corn, it is expected soon to be obliged to surrender, if properly guarded by sea.—Immediately on this news reaching Britain, the whole of the transports which were at Portsmouth ready to sail for the West Indies, and which have been kept hovering there under various pretexts for a month past, received positive orders to sail with the utmost possible expedition to the coast of France, where it is supposed they intend to land in a bay between *St. Cas* and *St. Maloes*, and thus co-operate with the Royalists in effectually blockading *St. Maloes* by land. If it be possible for the Brest fleet to put to sea, it will no doubt be ordered out immediately with a view to save that place—and on that occasion Lord Howe will have an opportunity of displaying those great talents if it is believed he possesses in naval tactics.

Should *St. Maloes* fall into the possession of the Royalists, a vigorous exertion will then be made to penetrate towards Paris. For in this part of France, the people are known to be in general disposed to favour the Royal cause; and therefore it may be supposed, that towards this point the efforts of the convention will be particularly directed—which must of consequence slacken their operations before Toulon.

The interior of France still presents scenes that are in every point of view affecting to humanity—Famine seems to threaten it in every quarter. The following pathetic address from the commune of Nantes, was presented to the convention 7th November

“ We would fain be the messengers of good news—But perfidious Administrators have done every thing to destroy liberty and the people, in our districts—the successors of these administrators found neither grain nor any provisions to nourish the laborious and indigent class of the citizens—Several persons sent to procure provisions could not obtain any, on account of the large supplies sent to the armies—Without doubt, the armies must be supplied, but the poor of Nantes ought also to be prevented from starving—We threw ourselves upon your paternal justice, which will not suffer you to forsake your children.”

The petition was sent to the Committee of subsistence, which was ordered to present an immediate report on the subject.

The scaffolds in every corner of France are drenched with the blood of innumerable citizens who fall beneath the stroke of the tremendous Guillotine—In the small town of Perpignan alone, the deputies with exultation write, that no less than 500 heads of families had been sacrificed at once, because they refused to go out in the forced levies as soldiers. In Paris the following twenty one members of the national convention, who long acted a conspicuous part in this singular revolution, were put to death at one time amid the loud acclamations of a multitude who seem to delight in seeing streams of human blood flowing, no matter for what cause.

Brisot,	Duprat,	Duchatel,
Vergniaud,	Sillery,	Mamille,
Genoune,	Fauchet,	Laclaze,
Duperret,	Ducos,	Lehardi,
Carra,	Boyer Fonfrede,	Boileau,
Gardieu,	Lisource,	Antouin,
Vauze,	Lestep Beauvais,	Vigee, &c.

Among all the executions that have there happened, no one seems to have given *universal* satisfaction, except that of Philip Egalite, *ci-devant* Duke of ORLEANS. This wretch, universally detested by all, was brought to the scaffold on the 7th, and there suffered the punishment his crimes long ago deserved—This man, who at the beginning of the Revolution possessed a free income of more than 150,000 l. Sterling *per annum*, had, by his largesses to the members of the first constituent assembly, hoping by that means to raise himself to the throne, reduced himself to a state of bankruptcy since which time his creditors allowed him about 25,000 l. for subsistence—Mirabeau, who in dispositions was this man's equal, tho' in talents so infinitely his superior—and Condorcet, who has now effected his escape into Switzerland, are supposed to have been his most confidential agents, in this *beneficent plan for conferring freedom on an oppressed people.*

Madame Roland,

The wife of Roland, so long minister for the home department, whose letters and public papers during his administration, by their manly firmness and good sense, formed such a striking contrast to the other productions of the times, has been in like manner subjected to the cruel stroke of the merciless guillotine. All these papers are now said to have been dictated by Madame Roland, who, for personal attractions, and mental endowments is supposed to have had no equal in the universe. The only crime alleged against her that we can hear of, was not discovering the place where her husband is concealed, a thing that she possibly did not herself know, or if she did, would not probably have discovered. Bailly, a man lately known among the readers of newspapers as Mayor of Paris; but who will be longer remembered among literary men for his astronomical discoveries, and ingenious dissertations on a variety of subjects, is now on his

progress to the revolutionary tribunal. And madame Elisabeth is also in the same situation. Yet in spite of all the haste this tribunal makes, it is impossible for it to keep pace with the sanguinary dispositions of the ruling powers, and the number of prisoners increases daily. By the last return, those in Paris alone amounted to 3335.

Contempt for religion and the most sacred moral duties keep pace with this sanguinary disposition in the people, and meet with the highest encouragement from the ruling powers. As a specimen of the doctrines wished to be cherished on these subjects, the following quotations from the newspapers are selected. On the 24th October the representatives of the people before Toulon sent the following address from a young man to the convention. "I address myself to you (he says), who are the fathers of the country; I belong to a family who are as aristocratic as I am patriotic; it has renounced me—from this I derive honour. I understand that my father is to be guillotined to-day—He has betrayed his country, and therefore he deserves punishment—I do not regret it.

"No good republican ought to acknowledge as parents those who are not, like himself, Republicans—I request that I may become the adopted child of the nation."

The convention applauded his conduct.

A deputation from the popular societies of Versailles was admitted to the bar.—The members composing this deputation were dressed in pontifical robes. They informed the convention, that the bishop of the Seine and Oise was dead.—"Will you, legislators, suffer his bishopric to be filled? Will you who have destroyed a throne, preserve the canopy—will you cherish the crozier? The citizen and the legislator should acknowledge no other worship but of liberty—no other altars but those of the republic—no other priests but the magistrates—Legislators, imitate the Jews, descend from the mountain, break the golden calf to pieces, and let the arch of the constitution be the only idol of the French."—Ordered to be inserted in the bulletin.

The popular society of Mernecy in the district of Corbeuil, offered all the ornaments of their church, and declared that they did not want any curate;—they wished that the parsonage house should be sold, and that the church should be converted into a place of assembly for the popular society, in which the busts of Marat and Lepelletier should be substituted for the statues of St Peter and St Dennis. The convention passed to the order of the day on this report.

COBET, the archbishop of Paris, attended by his vicar, also abjured his episcopal functions, and the religion of CHRIST.

(Loud cries of *vive la republique* resounded at this moment throughout the hall.)

The archbishop was followed by the rector Vangirard, and several other priests; amongst others, by a protestant minister of the name of Julien, of Toulouse, a member of the convention, and many other bishops, who imitated the apostacy of the archbishop of Paris, and were received with no less applause, and with the *civic kiss* on the part of the president.

The section of the *Sans Culottes* declared at the bar, that they would no longer have priests among them; and that they required the total suppression of salaries hitherto paid to the ministers of religious worship.

This petition was followed by a numerous procession, who filed off in the hall, accompanied with national music. Surrounded by them, appeared a

young woman of the finest figure, arrayed in the robes of liberty, and seated in a chair ornamented with leaves in festoons. She was placed opposite the President, and Chouteau said:—"Fanaticism has abandoned the place of truth; squint-eyed, it could not bear the brilliant light. The people of Paris have taken possession of the temple which they have regenerated; the Gothic arches which till this day have resounded with lies, now echo with the accents of truth. There all the people uttered ardent wishes for the prosperity of the Republic; there they offered thanks to their Legislators for the benefits they have received from them. You see we have not taken for our festivals inanimate idols; it is a *chef d'œuvre* of nature whom we have arrayed in the habit of liberty: Its sacred image has inflamed all hearts. The people have but one cry—"No more altars, no more priests, no other god but the god of nature."—We, their magistrates, we accompany them from the temple of truth to the temple of laws; to celebrate a new liberty, and to request that the *ex-élevant* church of Notre Dame be changed into a temple consecrated to reason and truth."

This proposal, converted into a motion, was immediately decreed; and the Convention afterwards declared that the people of Paris, on this day, continued to deserve well of the country.

The goddess then seated herself by the side of the President, who gave her a fraternal embrace. The Secretaries presented themselves to share the same bliss; every one was eager to sacrifice to the new divinity, whom so many salutations did not in the least disconcert.

A philosophical contemplator of these scenes is ready to cry out with execration, *Quos Deus vult perdere prius dementit*. For it seems at first sight to be impossible to reconcile the encouraging of such doctrines, to the principles of common sense in any case. Yet it so happens, that when men once deviate from the true path of moral rectitude, still greater deviations become necessary, and that on this principle, an immediate advantage may result from doctrines which are in their own nature the most destructive. As the present revolution in France was commenced under the most plausible appearance of a desire to promote the welfare of mankind, and has been productive of consequences in every respect the reverse, it seems to be of much importance, that the gradual progress of this most cruel of all political disorders that ever infected the human species, should be traced with care, and its consequences developed.

The principle which, from the very commencement of this revolution, seems to have been resorted to by its favourers for success, was, "that the rich should be made to contribute to the wants of the poor." This doctrine, which, under proper limitations, seems not to be altogether incompatible with justice, was not opposed in its principle, as it was not foreseen to what length it might be carried. The evident intention of those who inculcated that doctrine was, to get the lower classes of the people, *unanimously* to support the cause they espoused.—Of course, they industriously made a distinction at the beginning, by ranking all those they wished to pull down, under a name that they knew would render them very unpopular, *Aristocrates*. They soon after devised another name for themselves and their tools, that they knew would be equally endearing, *sans culottes*; and as the chiefs of the party

were perfectly satisfied that every person possessing property of any sort, must in his heart be an enemy to that principle which rendered his possession of that property, so very precarious—it was necessary to proceed with some degree of caution not to give the alarm universally, till measures could be adopted for insuring their absolute submission.

In consequence of this determination, it was only the extraordinary privileges of the grantees, which were universally and justly unpopular, that were at first attempted to be curtailed; and private property of all kinds was avowedly protected. Then, the immoderate salaries of churchmen; which were also in general supposed to be greatly beyond what they ought to have been, were curtailed, under the plausible pretext of alleviating the public burdens of the state. It had however, a farther consequence in view, that of driving to acts of outrage a body of men who were by no means respected among the people in France; and thus giving occasion to imprisonments, banishments, and confiscations, without exciting popular disturbances. All this went on in a natural progression, much farther than many had foreseen at the beginning; and produced at length divisions among the ruling powers; one party willing to push forward as far as they could go, and the other being desirous of stopping short before things were driven to this extremity. The *first*, after a violent struggle, finally prevailed; and have now sacrificed to their fear the one and twenty members of the opposite party who were among the most active of their opposers to the last.

Since that party was turned out of the N. Covention, every thing in France has been governed by the most rigid despotism that ever was exercised in this universe. The rulers, some of whom seem to be not destitute of talents, know well that nothing but the most watchful circumspection, and rigid severity, can insure their sway; must adopt every public measure to insure it. Every person invested with their commission is therefore endowed with the most despotic authority, and is charged, under pain of immediate death himself, to exercise his power with the most inflexible severity. The smallest mark of dissatisfaction is a certain road to the scaffold; and confiscation of property is the immediate and invariable result of condemnation. It of course happens, that every person of the smallest property knows that he is watched as a suspicious person, and dares not by word or action to indicate the smallest emotion of discontent; but as it is impossible absolutely to disguise strong feelings on all occasions, these involuntary emotions are just sufficient to give occasion for daily executions of individuals, and confiscations, which are productive of two good effects.—the first that of adding to the national treasures—and the last of preventing any thing like a concerted attempt at a general insurrection.

To effect these purposes, it is necessary not only that the clergy should be strictly watched, but that Christianity itself should be extirpated,

and the moral duties it inculcates be held in contempt. For were priests allowed to inculcate with proper emphasis the duties of filial obedience, of doing to others as we would wish they should do to us, of philanthropy and universal benevolence, it would naturally have an effect very different from what is wished for; on this principle the observance of the sabbath day has been abolished, and now we see that those who can treat with the greatest outrage the principles of the Christian religion, find themselves in the surest road to favour by the ruling powers.

By thus throwing into discredit every principle which tends to connect human society together, they have collected together a great number of desperados ever ready to execute without remorse the most horrible decrees; and the people are so much accustomed to acts of murder, that they behold human beings led to the scaffold in multitudes, with nearly the same indifference that we see a flock of sheep driven before the butcher.

By these means the ruling powers are in full possession of money to pay their troops; and care is taken no doubt that they shall be well paid, as without their aid nothing can be done. But even money itself cannot do every thing. Property being rendered so universally precarious, the culture of land must be much less vigorously prosecuted than otherwise; and famine seems to approach with rapid strides, and threatens inevitable destruction. The decree which was issued about two months ago on the spur of the occasion, ordering all farmers to sell their corn at a limited and very inadequate price, as might have been foreseen at the time, has been attended with effects that never can be overcome. The convention now holds out the feeble and inefficacious help of establishing seminaries for instructing persons in the knowledge of agriculture; as if any thing else than the hope of gain will ever make men prosecute a laborious employment. In consequence of these measures the plough is abandoned, the levies are filled up, as this is a ready resource to those who, driven from agriculture and manufactures, are not entitled to the partition of property which belongs to the true *sans culottes* alone. The little corn that exists is wrested from the wretched inhabitants to supply the vast armies that must be kept on foot. What are the poor people to do? The young men may go to the army, but the aged, and women, and children, what are they to do? The city of Lyons, which contained 180,000 inhabitants, manufacturers of great wealth, has been ordered to be razed from the foundation, in order to offer a rich harvest of spoil to the *disinterested sans culottes*, who are employed in that horrible devastation. What is to become of that immense people, stripped of their all, deprived of the means of earning a subsistence? where are the women and the children to find money to purchase bread even if it were to be bought? Driven to desperation, perhaps some of them may provoke their oppressors to butcher them. This will be a small relief. When the others shall have perished through want, it will afford another relaxation in part for the demand for corn. But even these dreadful means of searching for relief must prove far inadequate to the deficiency in the produce that must result from the insecurity that universally prevails. Unhappy people, who can contemplate thy destiny without experiencing the most poignant affliction?

But as, in the present state of things, nothing seems to be so likely to overcome the power of that despotism which is now so firmly established in France, as famine alone, which by its imperious calls may wrest the axe from the hand of the oppressor, it seems to be a wise measure in the allied powers to have deserted the idea of conquest, and to have adopted the plan of prohibiting all supplies from foreign powers entering into France. This measure they seem to be determined to enforce at all hazards. Ships from Denmark, Sweden, America, and every other nation bound for France with

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provisions or military stores are now invariably captured. Tuscany has been forced to renounce her neutrality, and banish the French Resident at that court; and Genoa, though she wishes to save her money in the French fund; and is desirous of postponing a similar declaration, must also comply. No friendly port now remains for the French in the Mediterranean except Malta alone, and it is not to be doubted but the Maltese also will soon be compelled to renounce their friendship for France.

Plague in Philadelphia.

An epidemical fever of a very fatal kind has lately prevailed in Philadelphia which spread universal alarm, as no means could be at first discovered for moderating it; nor did any person ever recover who was attacked by it. The mortality at one time was so great, as that nearly 100 died in a day, one burial a-day being the usual proportion. This was at first called the yellow fever, but afterwards it obtained the name of the plague. All communication between that city and other places, was for sometime stopped, in order to prevent the progress of this alarming disease. Fortunately, it has now abated, and there is reason to hope that in a very short time it will entirely cease.

Miscellaneous articles.

Oct. 27. The Procureur Syndic of the district of Tonnerre in France wrote that many of the Communities of that district had resolved, that no more masses should be celebrated, nor vespers, or other offices on Sunday, which they no longer acknowledged. They have substituted, as a day of rest, the 10th day of each decade. The Commons of Tonnerre had unanimously resolved a civic feast for the last day of the current decade.

Sunday, Oct. 20. Upon a complaint that certain merchants refused to open their shops on the days heretofore called Sunday, the Council resolved, that they shall be ordered to keep them open, on pain of being considered as suspected persons; and declares, that they are at liberty to keep them open or shut on the days of the decades.

The king of Sweden has issued a proclamation, ordering a day of fast and thanksgiving to be celebrated throughout all his dominions:—"To thank the Almighty for his particular grace and favour, for the rich harvest which has been so abundant this year throughout Sweden; a benefit the more advantageous to Sweden, in proportion as it is bestowed at a time when so many other countries are groaning under the ravages committed by fire and sword, and where the most fertile fields which the hand of the Almighty had destined as a reward for the industrious labourer, are either trampled on by the feet of the enemies, or rendered loathsome by the blood of warriors and the carcasses of heroes."

On the 23^d ult. died at Pulmuir near Aberdeen Mrs Barbara Black, relict of the deceased Dr. Thomas Blackwell, some time Principal of the Marischal College of Aberdeen.

Mrs Blackwell has conveyed the lands of Pulmuir, near Aberdeen, to the Marischal College, for the following purposes, viz.—Forty pounds sterling yearly, for the establishment of a Professorship of Chemistry—Ten pounds sterling yearly, for the best English discourse, to be delivered in the hall of the University (on certain subjects, which are prescribed by herself for five years, and are afterwards to be prescribed yearly by the College, and published), and the surplus of the feu duties and rents of Pulmuir to be divided annually among the principal and professors.

She appoints Dr George French, Physician in Aberdeen, to be the first Professor of Chemistry—and settles the patronage of that office afterwards on the Marischal College.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE

WEDNESDAY JANUARY, 22. 1794.

Retrospective view of affairs.

FRANCE.

NO kind of government is capable of acting with so much energy as a pure despotism where resources of money can be commanded; because under that form of government, both secrecy and dispatch can be insured, in a manner that cannot be obtained in any other circumstances. Hence it has become a common expression, nearly proverbial, that despotic governments are fittest for war, and free states are only calculated for managing the business of peace: But here, as in every other case, the advantage is not all on one side. The very energy which despotism insures is founded on the power of inflicting instant and summary punishments on those persons who are accounted delinquents. This power renders the property of individuals insecure, the want of security renders them indolent, and indolence begets poverty; and the poverty of the subject deprives the sovereign of those pecuniary resources, which the general prosperity of the people in free states so amply enables them to afford. If we were to form an idea therefore of a situation in which the greatest possible warlike exertions could be made, it would be that of a despotic government, newly established over a people who had formerly been free and in prosperous circumstances, and where the sovereign of course would have the power of seizing on that wealth which the peaceable exertions of a milder government had suffered them to accumulate. This energy however could only be of a temporary nature. As the resources on which it depends would consist chiefly in plundering the wealthy inhabitants, it diminishes the power of replacing it by future exertions of industry, so that when that first abundant resource is exhausted, supplies of money can afterwards be gleaned only with great difficulty, and at the evident hazard of the despot who shall attempt it.

Such, in a great measure, was the case with England under Oliver Cromwell, who from the firmness of his own personal character and the resources he, at the beginning enjoyed, from the numerous confiscations that took place, was enabled to act with an energy that never could have been practised under a form of government that was less despotic than that which he established, and which gave a brilliancy to his administration that

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is unequalled in the annals of Britain. Mr Hume has sufficiently proved that with all his talents, even before his death, his resources had been so much exhausted, that if his life had been prolonged for a few years more, he must, in all probability, have suffered a reverse of fortune that would have tarnished the glory of his former exploits.

But of all the instances of this kind that have occurred in the records of past times, no one, *in degree*, can admit of a parallel with France in the present day. A despotism has been there established of the most ferocious kind, before whose uncontrouled influence all those bulwarks which civilized Europe has been able to devise for the security of private property, have been swept away as by the ravages of a mighty torrent, or the descents of a volcano. Neither age, nor sex, nor condition have been accounted as any thing before it: all must yield to its resistless power; and the wealth which individuals had toiled for ages to obtain, is seized upon by the rapacious public arm, and added to the treasures of the state, or secreted by the individuals who seize it, many of whom, in their turn, will be compelled to refund it with the forfeiture of their lives. Life, in these circumstances, being scarcely desirable by those who have been pillaged of their all, and the presence of such desperate persons being in all cases dangerous, it has been judged the safest and the easiest course, to make the people forget their lives along with their property; and the public scaffolds, though streaming with blood in every corner of France, are not sufficient to perform the numerous executions that are required, so that they have been obliged to contrive new and hitherto unheard of methods of butchering by hundreds, or as some accounts say, by thousands at a time, their brethren, children, mothers, and fathers in one promiscuous carnage, at the bare mention of which the mind shinks back with horror.

By these butcheries, and the contributions they infer, the treasury, however, is abundantly filled with the spoils; and labourers and artisans, now deprived of the support of those who used to pay their peaceful labours, have no other resource than to list themselves in the armies of the state, to the support of which alone the whole attention of the present government of France has been uniformly directed. From hence the armies have been enabled to act of late with an energy and a vigour which has astonished every one who has not considered the circumstances; and which, instead of abating, must, in all probability, continue, *for some time*, to acquire additional energy; for the ruling powers, conscious that their safety *within* the realm, depends on the success of their enterprises on the frontiers, will doubtless make every possible exertion to push things to extremities in these quarters; to which they have at present the additional stimulus of the

hope of being able to find provisions in foreign parts, which the desolation of their own country permits them not to find at home. Nor need we be surprised that the troops exert themselves with vigour. The fear of punishment, and hope of pillage: the certainty of being provided for in the army, and the impossibility of finding subsistence elsewhere, are motives sufficient to stimulate to the greatest exertions; so that a winter campaign may be this year expected, in which the success of these desperadoes can only be restrained by a vigour in their opponents that has never perhaps been hitherto exerted. The present is therefore an awful period. If the Allies shall be able to repress the efforts of the French, so as to keep them, during this campaign, within their own bounds, the scarcity of provisions must be such, within these territories, as to produce effects which cannot be foreseen; but if the French shall be able to winter their armies in foreign parts, the opposing powers may be so much dispirited, as to encourage a rage for devastation among the lower orders of the people throughout the whole of Europe, that may end in an universal anarchy and despotism, similar to that which has produced such horrible effects in France.

In the meanwhile, the rulers of this kingdom feel themselves so insecure, on account of attempts that may be made by others who may suppose that they have an equal right to rule, that they are obliged to adopt precautions which indicate their fears. Generals, who have gained even a partial success, lest they should obtain too great favour with the army, are instantly removed; and pretexts are never wanting to have every one of them brought successively to the block. Cabals are formed in the clubs and Conventions, which it requires all the address of the ruling members to suppress; and even those who coalesce together at present, are evidently spies upon each other, whom they dread. Yet with whom they are obliged to unite from a sense of mutual danger from others. Such is the situation of the cabinet of Paris at the present moment; a situation that few men of sound understanding would covet.

In consequence of these exertions, the success of the arms of France, for some weeks past, has been very great. The Austrians under General Wurmser, after about three weeks uninterrupted daily general actions, again have been driven out of Alsace, and forced to retreat to the Rhine. Landau, which was besieged is relieved; Strasburgh, which was threatened is secured, and the French are advancing in force towards Manheim, after getting possession of Spire, and Oppenheim. Nor does it at present appear that there is a force in that quarter, sufficient to retard their farther progress. Fort Lewis alone remains to them in Alsace.

Lord Hood has been also obliged to evacuate Toulon, after carrying off the royalists, with some of the French ships, and destroying the re-

remainder of the fleet that was in that port, together with the arsenals. The royalists in Brittany have been every where defeated; and they are seemingly so much dispersed at present, as to have no appearance of being able to stand their ground before the superior numbers brought to act against them; and Lord Moira, who had gone to Guernsey with a considerable force to assist them, is returned to Britain, without effecting any thing. The allied army in the western Netherlands, under Prince Cobourg and the British General; and the Spanish forces in Roussillon, alone have been able to withstand their efforts. By the first, the French have been kept in check, so as to have been frustrated in several attacks they have made with an evident view to obtain provisions: By the last, the French troops have sustained a defeat, which does not however appear to be of much importance.

Germany and Prussia.

Austria, and Prussia, and the other allied powers, do not seem to have reckoned so strongly as they ought to have done, on the necessity that the French ruling powers, must have, of making a vigorous exertion at the present time, or of the energy with which they might be enabled to act. They seemed to be secure of maintaining, during the winter, the footing they had gained in Alsace, with the forces they had there, where it would seem they intended quietly to take up their winter quarters; leaving till the spring, those vigorous exertions they intended to make during the campaign; so that their levies are tardy, and probably in no condition to be brought into immediate action. Prussia, is said also to have been a little shy of late. Such jarrings are usual among allied powers, when success seems to be within their reach. It is as natural for a sense of danger to unite them. Should this be the case, and should the usual consequences of victory, carelessness and pillaging, obtain among the French army, the scale may be very quickly turned, by disgusting the inhabitants of the conquered country, as it was last year; so that it is impossible at present to foresee what may be the result of the contest.

Holland and the Netherlands.

The Dutch have all along, during the present contest, acted with a dilatoriness which is perhaps in some measure a consequence of their form of government, but which seems to be, in their situation, very impolitic. Their fleets have done nothing, during the present campaign. Not a single ship of theirs has joined the British squadron; and even their own trade has not been protected by them from privateers in the northern seas. In the land, they have been every where beaten where they have been attacked. In the Netherlands, some symptoms of disaffection to the Emperor have of late appeared, so that should the forces under the prince de Coburg and the Bri-

with the arsenals, seated; and they are apprehensive of being brought to act a treachery with a considerable army without effecting any thing under Prince Cobourg. The French troops appear to be of much

Denmark.

This state continues to preserve its neutrality; and no symptoms of internal disturbances have hitherto manifested themselves there. This conduct in the prince of Denmark is doubtless very prudent, as long as the arms of France can be confined within their own territory. But should the French doctrines spread into Germany and the adjoining states, in every one of which there must be a great majority, *in number*, who will desire to pillage those who have acquired wealth, it would be then too late for Denmark to attempt to set bounds to that torrent, so that it requires some consideration at present in her to determine what mode of conduct it would be most prudent to pursue.

Sweden.

Though under the government of a man confessedly of great talents and personal endowments, has not the good fortune to escape internal disquiet. A party has been lately discovered, who had formed a plot to get rid of the Regent, and take the power into their own hands. This unhappy country seems to be doomed to experience the curse of endless revolutions. It preserves the same system of neutrality with regard to France as Denmark; and the same reasoning will apply to the one as to the other.

Poland.

Is now a state entirely subjected to the power of Russia, who, it is said has induced the states to make considerable levies of men to join the general confederacy against France.

Russia.

After having subdued Poland, which was evidently the chief object with her during the last campaign, now prepares to act against France, by sea at least, during the ensuing campaign. For this purpose she has prevailed with the Porte to permit a squadron of ships of war to be sent by her into the mediterranean through the Dardanelles. After all, it is doubtful if she has any other aim in this manœuvre than to exercise her navy by an idle parade as they made last year in the Baltic; and to make her officers acquainted with those seas, which it is very evident she hopes in time to have under her own dominion; for it does not seem to be consistent with the policy of that court for some time past, to give such assistance as might tend to put an end to the war, which if it continues must tend to weaken the Austrians and Prussians, while she herself is recovering strength so as to prepare for future enterprises, as occasion shall offer.

Turkey.

The severe check this unfortunate country met with during the last war with Russia, seems to have opened the eyes of the divan against the barbarous policy they had hitherto adopted with regard to European powers. And it appears to be convinced that if its independence is to be at all preserved, it must be by cultivating friendship and mutual intercourse of good offices with those states, who from a view of self interest, may be induced to lend their aid in protecting or assisting it against the future enemies that may rise up against it. With this view, it has adopted the unusual measure of sending ambassadors to the different courts of Europe; one of which lately arrived in London. Should they adopt the still more effectual measure of giving their subjects a higher degree of personal security than they have hitherto enjoyed, it might, in time, be productive of the happiest consequences. The Porte has lately renounced all political connections with France.

Italy.

The only states in Italy that have not declared against France, are Venice and Genoa. The last has even renounced its neutrality, which Venice still preserves. The other states in Italy seem to be under some alarm, lest the French should penetrate into that fine country through the Genoese territories: and not without reason;—for this would open up a fine scene for pillage to the French troops. The Italian states are collecting forces on all hands to defend these passes. But if the French army before Toulon should not be drawn off by the diversion the Spaniards have made in Rouffillon, it is not impossible but they might be able to force their way into Italy, before any sufficient force could be brought to act against them.

Sardinia

The king of Sardinia, who is a weak man, and whose administration, for many years past, excited much disgust among his subjects, seems to be at present in a very disagreeable and precarious situation. The French have of late, made some successful attacks upon his territories. Probably the rigour of the climate may check their farther progress till the spring, before which time the young prince, who is a man of talents, and beloved by his people, may have adopted some means for insuring safety.

Geneva and Switzerland.

Geneva is entirely in the power of the French; and the states of Switzerland preserve a strict neutrality. So long as the other powers, are at war with France, the independence of these states will be secured; How much longer must depend upon the chapter of accidents;

Spain.

Is at least very materially interested in repressing the incursions of France into her own territories. How far she is wise in attempting to do more, is at least a doubtful point. Her fleet and army co-operated with that of Lord Hood in the Mediterranean. The Portuguese and Neapolitans also have lent their aid.

Britain.

During the whole of this campaign the efforts of Britain, especially in the naval department, have not been conducted with that vigour which was calculated to insure success: Nor have the operations been carried on with that secrecy and rapidity which are so indispensibly necessary in military enterprises. Every undertaking has been talked of for months before it took place, so as to give time to counteract it, and thus the equipments have been merely an idle parade, and useless expenditure of money. This was the case with the long talked of expedition of M'Bride against Dunkirk, whose fleet only sailed, at last, from the Downs, after the Duke of York had been repulsed from thence. The same may be said of the expedition of Lord Moira against the coast of France: And as to the conduct of Lord Howe during the whole of this campaign, to speak of it in the most moderate terms, it has given very universal dissatisfaction to the whole kingdom. To what circumstances the unfortunate failure of Lord Hood at Toulon are to be ascribed, we are not yet sufficiently informed. But it is evident that that failure must effectually preclude the inhabitants of any other part of France from putting reliance on the protection of Britain in future. If it be true that the ships said to be burnt at Toulon be actually burnt, and the arsenals destroyed, and not preserved, as the French accounts bear, the capture of Toulon, even in the present disgraceful state of the case, must prove of great importance as to the future conduct of the war, as a moderate naval force in the Mediterranean will protect our trade and the Italian states from the ravages of the French. In the West Indies, we have made an attempt to get possession of St Domingo, on the same terms as Toulon. It seems at least to be equally doubtful if we shall be able to retain it. And if we do retain it, it is still more doubtful if ever it can be worth the expence it must cost the nation to maintain it, and subdue the disaffected negroes, who must long continue to harass the unfortunate possessors of that territory, whoever they shall be.

America.

The American states, having now got free of the turbulent citizen *Genet*, under the wise administration of Mr. Washington, seem to be resolved to preserve a strict neutrality with regard to European squabbles. They are still however involved in an unfortunate war with the Indians beyond the Ohio.

Hopes are now given that it may soon be terminated by an accommodation. May it be of such a nature as to preclude all future wars! They have had the additional misfortune to incur the displeasure of the pyrratical states of Barbary, who by lying in wait to seize their vessels, give a severe check to their trade to the Mediterranean, and other parts of Europe. The destructive fever that so lately ravaged Philadelphia has now happily abated.

DOMESTIC.

The nation waits the meeting of parliament which was to assemble on the 21st. Instant, with much anxiety, as, from the complexion of the king's speech, some idea may be entertained of what is intended during the next campaign. The late defeats have given much spirits to the party which is called the opposition; and many of them are in full hope that an immediate change of ministry must take place. The people at large have been indeed, much dissatisfied with the conduct of the naval department especially, during the present campaign; and something like greater vigour will be expected if the war be continued. But as to the French revolution, and the opinions propagated by the favourers of it, the nation at large never were more unanimous than they are in reprobating these. Some attempts were made to form a convention at Edinburgh, for determining these doctrines, under the pretext of establishing universal suffrage at elections, and annual parliaments; but all classes of the people have cheerfully concurred in assisting the magistrates to suppress these meetings; and several of the leaders have been tried for encouraging seditious practices, and found guilty, by the unanimous verdict of a jury. Skirling and Margat, have been severally condemned, in consequence of such verdict, to be transported beyond seas for the space of fourteen years. Several others, for the same offence have been served with indictments.

MISCELLANEOUS.

For some time past, there has been a body of herrings in the Frith of Forth, in such quantities as are very unusual on the east coast of Scotland. They have continued here about three months, and they are in such a compact body, that all the boats which have been sent out to catch them, have been fully loaded every morning; so that besides great quantities that have been cured for export and home consumption, they have been sold every day on the streets of Edinburgh and Leith, and throughout the whole country at the average rate of about sixteen a penny; and sometimes as low as twenty and upwards. Unfortunately salt has been so very scarce here, that it has been impossible to get nearly so many of them cured as otherwise might have been. They were at first as high up the Frith as Inverkeithing Bay. They have now fallen down as far as Burntisland; but their progress is not regular. How long they may continue here it is impossible to say; but they have been a great relief to the labouring people at this time; so there was much justice in the observation of an honest woman, who enquiring what was the cause of a great croud on the street, and being told it was a mob about the friends of the people; friends of the people! said she, they have much to look at indeed; the herrings are the best friends of the people I know.

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