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Nova-Scotia Magazine,

For October, 1789.

MEMOIRS OF Mrs. INCHBALD:

(Concluded from Page 392.)

EXPOSED to those insults which females usually encounter when, unprotected, they ramble the streets at midnight, our heroine wandered where chance directed her, till the clock struck two, when she found herself at Holborn bridge, and saw a stage coach setting off for York, hearing at the same time, the coachman tell a person who asked for a place, that there was not one to spare. This immediately occurred to her to ask the same question, and on receiving the same answer, to solicit for lodging at the inn, as a disappointed passenger, and thus escape the frightful hazards to which she was liable in the streets. Happily this scheme succeeded; but not without evident suspicions of her character, on the part of her host and hostess. These suspicions, however, afforded the consolation of an assurance, that she had nothing to apprehend, in this house, where her youth and beauty seemed the only bar to kind reception; the landlady, taking the precaution even to lock the door of the wretched place in which Miss Simpson was permitted to sleep, and, like a careful duenna, wisely putting the key in her pocket.

Our adventurer arose at her usual hour; but having no bell, or any means, from the height she was lodged, to let the family know she was up, and they sagaciously concluding, that ladies who go to bed at two in the morning, are in no haste to rise, she was left to ruminate on her situation till noon. She could not but deplore her fate; yet she was more inclined to pursue it than to return home, and suffer the reproach of indiscretion, with the still surer mortification of not having gratified

that curiosity which had led her into a situation at once so extraordinary and disagreeable. 'Mine hostess' at length released her fair prisoner and informed her, that the York coach would set out again that evening. This information was delivered with an air of severity, and as if she suspected that her lodger had no intention of becoming a passenger. Our poor adventurer had no courage to justify that suspicion, but laid down her whole stock of money, to the last half crown, for the purpose of securing a place in the machine for a journey which she never intended to take. This, however, satisfied the landlady, who desired Miss Simpson to walk down to breakfast; but she excused herself, under the pretence that she was in haste to call on a relation in another part of the town, in order to inform her of the disappointment she had experienced in not leaving London the preceding evening. By this apology she saved the expence of a breakfast which she was by no means inclined to taste, and thought that she could thus secure another night's lodging at an unsuspected house. On her return to the inn, therefore, she said her relation had requested her to remain in town a few days longer; and by this artifice secured her wretched apartment; and while our unfortunate heroine daily took a walk merely to purchase what her slender finances could afford, the people of the inn supposed Miss Simpson to be feasting with her relations. She was now in the utmost distress. It is a fact, that two half-penny rolls, with water from the bottle in her chamber, were all that she subsisted on during the last ten days she was at the inn.

In one of her daily rambles, among the many whom her appearance attracted, was the then admired Mr. R——, of Drury-Lane Theatre, who, not to be repelled by difficulties, employed every art to obtain repeated interviews, to learn the nature of her situation, and to offer such plausible advice as might render his real views unsuspected. He at length succeeded to her confidence, and the stage was pointed out to her as a most probable scheme of support. It had also the advantage of being extremely well adapted for the gratification of one whose sole motive for relinquishing her home was to see the world. — But an acquaintance thus formed with a man of intrigue was not long to continue: Our heroine soon discovered Mr. R——'s real views, and, positively rejecting them, was once more left destitute; but not of every prospect she had formed of a livelihood from the stage: For this performer had assured her, that the impediment in her speech was no insurmountable obstacle to her arriving at a certain situation in a theatre; as a particular attention to, and frequent repetition of her parts, would enable her to repeat them before an audience, so as to obtain, with the advantage of so charming a person, a respectable, if not brilliant department in the *dramatis personæ*. In an aspiring and persevering mind, Hope is soon converted into Resolution, not to be baffled by petty disappointments, nor to be conquered by the intrusion of apparent impossibilities; and such was the mind of our heroine. Left once more to provide for herself, she had no sooner discarded her libertine admirer, than she determined to profit by his plan, however doubtful she might be of the sincerity of him who proposed it. — As a total stranger, without recommendation, and with a defect in her speech that must have struck every one; on first hearing her, as an invincible bar to all public speaking, she immediately applies to Mr. King, of Drury-Lane Theatre, then manager of the Bristol House during the summer. — His surprise, and the replies she made to his interrogations, have furnished so many different Green-room anecdotes, that, however whimsical and entertaining each of them may be, we are here obliged to decline them all, lest we risk our veracity by adopting those which are fictitious. Suffice it say, that this was, perhaps, one of the most comic scenes Mr. King ever was engaged in; and that notwithstanding all impediments, after having rehearsed with her a short time, he did not wholly discourage her idea of being an actress. But declined giving her any engagement.

Disappointed in this application, she consulted the play-bills; she remembered the name of Mr. Inchbald, who was then of Drury-lane Theatre, having seen him perform several seasons together at Bury St. Edmund's, the town near the village from whence she came. With this gentleman she had not the least acquaintance, but she felt a confidence in him, which his having been frequently in that neighbourhood had alone inspired. The most remote tie was now a near one, while it had reference to a place she was at this time brought to reflect upon with the most tender regret; having at length seen something of the world, and doubtless convinced of the happiness of home. To Mr. Inchbald she resolved to apply for advice respecting an engagement at some theatre. Mr. Inchbald, at that time a man of noted gallantry and intrigue, was struck with her beauty, but just then attached to the wife of Col. —, and engaged in other adventures, he was not tempted to the seduction of that innocence which now sought his friendship; but introduced our heroine to Mr. D——, of Drury-lane House, who had purchased a share in a country theatre, to which he was going as acting manager.

At the first sight of Miss Simpson, D—— hesitated not a moment, but without any trial, he immediately engaged her as his pupil; gave her many parts to study, in spite of the impediment in her speech, which he promised to render at least articulate; and became her instructor. — She was now supplied with every convenience, in the prospect, as she supposed, of future services as an actress, and began to think the world growing kind, when one evening having been reciting a part to her new master a most violent quarrel arose, which, from a reserved behaviour on her part, drew him at last coolly, but firmly to tell her, that he meant to be repaid for the engagement he had assigned her as an actress, with other services than those required for the theatre; and that by such an acquiescence he was willing to hold the agreement, but on no other terms. The tea equipage happened then to be on the table, and our heroine, not so happily blessed, as most women are, with the powers of loquacity, replied to this speech by proxy; the comedian soon felt the effects of a basin of scalding water on his face and bosom; and before he had time to recover from his surprize and the immediate sensation of pain, his pupil had flown down stairs, and was gone for ever!

This momentary revenge imparted a gleam of transport as she quitted D——'s house, but by the time she had reached her

own, her mind was clouded by dismal reflections, and her heart torn with bitter anguish. She found herself deceived, insulted, friendless, and forlorn. In this unhappy state, she flew to Mr. Inchbald; to him she revealed her sorrows, and recounted every circumstance that had happened, not omitting the basin of water:—'But why did you so, my dear?' he cried.—'Because I could not speak—if I had not stuttered, I would have said such things!—but I could not speak, and therefore I was obliged to do something, or perhaps he would not have known I had been angry;—but I believe he now thinks I am.'—Here a flood of tears relieved her, and she repeatedly exclaimed 'what shall I do? what will become of me?'—Mr. Inchbald, affected by her sorrow, endeavoured to soothe her by mentioning other projects of introduction; but she solemnly declined all further thoughts of the stage, and requested he would propose something less humiliating than attendance on managers—'My dear,' said Mr. Inchbald, 'I know of nothing—no situation where you can be secure, except in marriage.'—'Yes, Sir, but who would marry me?'—'I would,' replied he, with warmth, 'but perhaps you would not have me.'—'Yes, Sir, and would for ever think myself obliged to you.'—'And will you,' he asked, 'love me?'—Here she hesitated; but he, trusting a sentiment of that kind would easily be inspired by tenderness and affection, and becoming, at this time weary of a dissipated life, urged that question no farther, nor suffered any subsequent reflection to frustrate the design he had that instant conceived, and in a few days they were married.

Thus, in an unexpected moment, and in an unexpected manner, our heroine became both a wife and an actress. Mr. Inchbald introduced her on the stage in Scotland; where they remained four years, and the two succeeding years they passed at York. Respecting Mrs. Inchbald's theatrical career, there is little to relate. Her defects as an actress, were generally forgiven in respect of her personal attraction; and by a most amiable private character she acquired the esteem of some of the first people in those places where she chanced to have a temporary residence.

That she well merited this esteem is particularly evident from a circumstance we are now about to notice. From the day of his marriage, Mr. Inchbald constantly evinced the most perfect, and even romantic attachment, love and fidelity; yet was he never able to realise the hope he had fondly indulged of sometime converting into an affection, equally ardent with his own, that indifference which, whilst sin-

gle, our heroine repeatedly confessed she entertained for him, and always when urged, possessed too little deception not to acknowledge. But a heart like hers could not remain insensible to the influence of that power, which, sooner or later it is said, every mortal must obey; and she must have possessed a very high, and therefore a very proper sense of duty, obligation, and gratitude, to resist the attacks of a passion, which for some time had wounded her peace. Feelingly alive to every duty of a wife, unshaken in the principles of virtue and obedience, she opposed all the arts of seduction, though exerted by one peculiarly formed to inspire the passion which till that period had been a stranger to her bosom; one, who to high birth and an elegant person, added those accomplishments which rarely fail to make strong impressions on the female mind. Reason seldom triumphs over the struggles of the youthful passion without a sacrifice of health; and this our heroine experienced in a very extensive degree. The situation of her heart she found equally alarming. This was the crisis of her fate: And in this important moment she acted like a heroine indeed! She seized the desperate, though, perhaps, the only laudable expedient left her: sincerity suggested the idea, and confidence in her husband's most tender love gave her power to execute it. She confessed to him the violation which her mind had suffered; begged his pity and forgiveness; and proposed to go with him to whatever place he should prefer, in order to escape a further injury of her principles, for which, she candidly confessed, she could be no longer answerable. Her health by this time was so much impaired, that the Physicians in Scotland had advised a tour to the south of France, as the only means of recovery. This advice was now adopted. The re-establishment of her health may, in some measure, be attributed to her distance from him, by whom her peace had been invaded, but more especially to the tenderness of a man, who, struck with the generosity of her sentiments, and lamenting the languishing and declining state to which she was reduced, repaid that generosity, and became, instead of a jealous husband, the faithful confidant, the careful adviser, the affectionate comforter; who not only pitied her weakness, but alleged every thing in her favour that could possibly extenuate it, and reconcile her to herself. He even urged the disparity of their years; he assured her of his perfect forgiveness; and consoled her with the hope that absence would effectually eradicate those fatal impressions which had proved so injurious to her health and her peace. Nor was the hope vain:

Our heroine conquered those impressions, and recovered her tranquillity.

After staying abroad about a year, Mr. and Mrs. Inchbald returned to England, from whence they had been absent near five years. They constantly avoided the gentleman who had nearly proved so fatal to their happiness, and continued to live in the most perfect harmony near two years, when Mr. Inchbald's death gave our heroine a new occasion of testifying how much she had ever thought herself obliged to him, by an unaffected concern for his memory, and by a firm regard to a strict vow which she had taken, never again to behold the man who had once designed the ruin of her peace and the injury of her husband.

Once more left to herself, her former wishes and her former curiosity returned; and, notwithstanding all the difficulties she had hitherto encountered, she again resolved 'to see a little more of the world,' and again turned her attention to London; and though, upon her arrival, she immediately obtained a situation in one of the theatres, she, four long years, experienced little more than poverty, aggravated by persecution. For some trifling inattention, or a rejection of some peculiar article required by the manager, but repugnant to her feelings, she was one winter expelled the Theatre, and obliged to take refuge, under some hard terms, in Ireland. We well recollect the event of her going to Dublin that season; but the particular circumstances that occasioned her quitting London, or her unhappy situation in it, or what induced her to return, and reinstatement in the same Theatre from whence she was, during the season of playing, suddenly discharged, we cannot take upon us to state: These are private occurrences which come not within the verge of our knowledge; and we shall not stain the authenticity of these memoirs by giving as facts the conclusions of conjecture.

Thus oppressed and unhappy, and living in the most retired manner, our heroine, probably to divert her mind from a too frequent recollection of these circumstances, directed her attention to dramatic composition, in which she has so happily succeeded, that whatever cause induced her to 'woo the muse,' the public have rejoiced in the effect.

It was in the fourth year of Mrs. Inchbald's engagement at Covent Garden Theatre that the *Magul Tale* was sent to Mr. Colman. This was the first piece which she brought upon the stage; though the comedy of *I'll tell you what* was written near three years before, and had lain all that time unread, in Mr. Colman's possession. Appearing in a female hand, and

sent by an anonymous author, that gentleman probably concluded it unworthy of his perusal. The *Magul Tale* was sent in the same manner; its brevity seems to have been its recommendation for speedy attention; and its success induced Mrs. Inchbald to remind the manager of her comedy: His reply was, 'I'll go home and read it.'—He read; he approved; and in the following summer the town was delighted with that popular piece, to which Mr. Colman gave the title of *I'll tell you what*.

Success, they say, makes people vain; but Mrs. Inchbald's success seems to have had no other effect than that of stimulating her to new exertions; and she moves in the dramatic hemisphere with the rapidity and the brilliancy of those fascinating fires 'that charm, but hurt not.' The comedy of *I'll tell you what*, has been succeeded by *Appearance is against them*; *The Widow's Poss*; *Such Things are*; and *The Midnight Hour*. It is needless to descant on the merits of compositions so well known to the public, and from which they will yet derive much profitable pleasure; for it is the almost exclusive property of all Mrs. Inchbald's dramatic productions, that their merit ranks them in the list of what are called 'stock plays,' plays which are likely to amuse succeeding generations. To these works of genius we may also add a novel, for which, we are assured, Mrs. Inchbald has been offered a considerable sum, but which, for reasons best known to herself, she declines publishing at present.

The comedy of *I'll tell you what*, was written at the age of twenty-four, and the remainder of the pieces at periods of life so remarkably early, that we are naturally reminded of the praise bestowed by Dr. Johnson on one of the poets: 'When it is remembered,' he says, 'that this author produced these four plays before he had passed his twenty-fifth year; before other men, even such as are, some time, to shine in eminence, have passed their probation of literature, or presume for any other notice than such as is bestowed on diligence and inquiry; I doubt whether any one can be produced that more surpassed the common limits of nature than him.' The appropriation to our authoress of this striking sentence, and we think that appropriation but mere justice, redounds more to the honour of Mrs. Inchbald than any praise immediately directed to herself. And were we even to divert her writings of all that popularity and fashion which have so fortunately attended them, still it must be acknowledged, and her works evidently prove, that she has more than ac-

accomplished the desire which first led her from home: She has not only 'seen the world,' but largely contributed to its entertainment and instruction.

We cannot conclude, without observing, that the heroine of these memoirs continues, as far as the business of the Theatre will permit, to live much retired: Her friends are few and selected: To strangers indeed, her deportment is by no means conciliating; and she seems very cautious in adding to the list of her acquaintance. Asperity or ill-will in others she never endeavours to sooth by gentleness; Ridicule and pointed satire are the weapons with which she retaliates, and sometimes renders 'false friends' implacable enemies. But her attachments being once formed, her friendship is unreserved, sincere, and constant; and tho' her heart and her purse are ever open to the complaints and the wants of the unfortunate, yet amongst the first of her virtues, is that of a refined delicacy to avoid making connexions which might lay her under a necessity of receiving obligations: Laudably preferring to every other mode of acquisition the emoluments arising from the exertions of that genius which is calculated to delight and instruct mankind.

STORY OF FATHER NICHOLAS.

(Concluded from Page 197.)

THE anxiety of my Emilia was at last dissipated by her safe delivery of a boy; and on this object of a new kind of tenderness we gazed with inexpressible delight. Emilia suckled the infant herself, as well from the idea of duty and of pleasure in tending it, as from the difficulty of finding in Paris a nurse to be trusted. We proposed returning to the country as soon as the re-establishment of her strength would permit: Mean time, during her hours of rest, I generally went out to finish the business which the trust of my deceased friend had devolved upon me.

In passing through the Thuilleries, in one of those walks, I met my old companion Delaferré. He embraced me with a degree of warmth which I scarce expected from my knowledge of his disposition, or the length of time for which our correspondence had been broken off. He had heard, he said, accidentally of my being in town, but had sought me for several days in vain. In truth, he was of all men one whom I was the most afraid of meeting. I had heard in the country of his unbounded dissipation and extravagance, and there were some

stories to his prejudice, which were only not believed from an unwillingness to believe them in people whom the corruptions of the world had not familiarized to baseness; yet I found he still possessed a kind of superiority over my mind, which I was glad to excise, by forcing myself to think him less unworthy than he was reported. After a variety of enquiries; and expressing his cordial satisfaction at the present happiness I enjoyed; he pressed me to spend that evening with him so earnestly, that though I had made it a sort of rule to be at home; I was ashamed to offer an apology; and agreed to meet him at the hour he appointed.

Our company consisted only of Delaferré himself, and two other officers, one a good deal older than any of us, who had the cross of St. Louis; and the rank of Colonel, whom I thought the most agreeable man I ever had met with. The unwillingness with which I had left home, and the expectation of a very different sort of party where I was going, made me feel the present one doubly pleasant. My spirits, which were rather low when I went in, from that constraint I was prepared for, rose in proportion to the pleasantry around me, and the perfect ease in which I found myself with this old officer, who had information, wit, sentiment, every thing I valued most, and every thing I least expected in a society selected by Delaferré. It was late before we parted; and at parting I received, not without pleasure, an invitation from the Colonel to sup with him the evening after.

The company at his house I found enlivened by his sister and a friend of hers, a widow; who, though not a perfect beauty, had a countenance that impressed one much more in her favour than mere beauty could. When silent, there was a certain softness in it insensibly bewitching; and when it was lightened up by the expression which her conversation gave, it was equally attractive. We happened to be placed next each other. Unused as I was to the little gallantries of fashionable life, I rather wished than hoped to make myself agreeable to her. She seemed, however, interested in my attentions and conversations, and in her I found myself flattered at the same time and delighted. We played, against the inclination of this lady and me, and we won rather more than I wished. Had I been as rich as Delaferré, I should have objected to the deepness of the stakes; but we were the only persons of the company that seemed uneasy at our success, and we parted with the most cordial good humour. Madame de Ren-

ville, that was the widow's name, smiling to the colonel, asked him to take his revenge at her house; and said with an air of equal modesty and frankness, that as I had been the partner of her success, she hoped for the honour of my company, to take the chance of sharing a less favourable fortune.

At first my wife had expressed her satisfaction at my finding amusement in society to relieve the duty of attending her. But when my absence grew very frequent, as indeed I was almost every day at Madame de Trenville's, though her words continued the same, she could not help expressing by her countenance her dissatisfaction at my absence. I perceived this at first with tenderness only, and next evening excused myself from keeping my engagement. But I found my wife's company not what it used to be: thoughtful, but afraid to trust one another with our thoughts, Emilia shewed her uneasiness in her looks, and I covered mine but ill with an assumed gaiety of appearance.

The day following Delasferre called, and saw Emilia for the first time. He rallied me gently for breaking my last night's appointment, and told of another which he had made for me, which my wife insisted on my keeping. Her cousin applauded her conduct, and joked on the good government of wives. Before I went out in the evening, I came to wish Emilia good night. I thought I perceived a tear on her cheek, and would have staid, but for the shame of not going. The company perceived my want of gaiety, and Delasferre was merry on the occasion. Even my friend the Colonel threw in a little raillery on the subject of marriage. It was the first time I felt somewhat awkward at being the only married man of the party.

We played deeper and sat later than formerly; but I was to shew myself not afraid of my wife, and objected to neither. I lost considerably, and returned home mortified and chagrined. I saw Emilia next morning, whose spirits were not high. Methought her looks reproached my conduct, and I was enough in the wrong to be angry that they did so. Delasferre came to take me to his house to dinner. He observed as he went, that Emilia looked ill. "Going to the country will re-establish her," said I. "Do you leave Paris?" said he. "In a few days."—"Had I such motives of remaining in it as you have——" "What motives?" "The attachment of such friends: But friendship is a cool word; the attachment of such a woman as De Trenville."

I know not how he looked, but he pressed the subject no farther: Perhaps I was less offended than I ought to have been.

We went to that lady's house after dinner. She was dressed most elegantly, and looked more beautiful than ever I had seen her. The party was more numerous than usual, and there was more vivacity in it. The conversation turned upon my intention of leaving Paris; the ridicule of country manners, of country opinions, of the intipidity of country enjoyment, was kept up with infinite spirit by Delasferre, and most of the young members of the company. Madame de Trenville did not join in their mirth, and sometimes looked at me as if the subject was too serious for her to be merry on. I was half-ashamed and half sorry that I was going to the country; less uneasy than vain at the preference that was shewn me.

I was a coward, however, in the wrong as well as in the right, and I fell upon an expedient to screen myself from a discovery that might have saved me. I contrived to deceive my wife, and to conceal my visits to Madame de Trenville's, under the pretence of some perplexing incidents that had arisen in the management of those affairs with which I was intrusted. Her mind was too pure for suspicion or for jealousy. It was easy even for a novice in falsehood, like me, to deceive her. But I had an able assistant in Delasferre, who now resumed the ascendancy over me formerly possessed, but with an attraction more powerful, from the insatuated attachment which my vanity and weakness, as much as her art and beauty, had made me conceive for Madame de Trenville.

It happened that, just at this time, a young man arrived from our province, and brought letters for Emilia from a female friend of hers in the neighbourhood of Santonges. He had been bred a miniature-painter, and came to town for improvement in his art. Emilia, who doated on her little boy, proposed to him to draw his picture in the innocent attitude of his sleep. The young painter was pleased with the idea, provided she would allow him to paint the child in her arms. This was to be concealed from me, for the sake of surprizing me with the picture when it should be finished. That she might have a better opportunity of effecting this little concealment, Emilia would often hear, with a sort of satisfaction, my engagements abroad, and encourage me to keep them, that the picture might advance in my absence.

She knew not what, during that absence,

scence, was my employment. The slave of vice and profusion, I was violating my faith to her in the arms of the most artful and worthless of women; and losing the fortune that should have supported my child and hers, to a set of cheats and villains. Such was the snare that Delaferré and his associates had drawn around me. It was covered with the appearance of love and generosity. De Trenville had art enough to make me believe, that she was every way the victim of her affection for me. My first great losses at play the pretended to reimburse from her own private fortune and then threw herself upon my honour for relief from those distresses into which I had brought her. After having exhausted all the money I possessed, and all my credit could command, I would have stopped short of ruin; but when I thought of returning in disgrace and poverty to the place I had left respected and happy, I had not resolution enough to retreat. I took refuge in desperation, mortgaged the remains of my estate, and staked the produce to recover what I had lost, or to lose myself. The event was such as might have been expected.

After the dizzy horror of my situation had left me power to think, I hurried to Madame de Trenville's. She gave me such a reception as suited one who was no longer worth the deceiving. Conviction of her falsehood, and of that ruin to which she had been employed to lead me, flashed upon my mind. I left her with execrations, which she received with the coolness of hardened vice, of experienced seduction. I rushed from her house, I knew not whither. My steps involuntarily led me home. At my own door I stopped, as if it had been death to enter. When I had struck back some paces, I turned again; twice did I attempt to knock, and could not; my heart throbbed with unspeakable horror, and my knees smote each other. It was night and the streets were dark and silent around me. I threw myself down before the door, and wished some ruffian's hand to ease me of life and thought together. At last, the recollection of Emilia, and of my infant boy, crossed my disordered mind, and a gush of tenderness burst from my eyes. I rose and knocked at the door. When I was let in, I went up softly to my wife's chamber. She was asleep, with a night-lamp burning by her, her child sleeping on her bosom, and its little hand grasping her neck. Think what I felt as I looked! She smiled through her sleep, and seemed to dream of happiness. My brain began to

madden again; and as the misery to which she must wake crossed my imagination, the horrible idea rose within me—I shudder yet to tell it! to murder them as they lay, and next myself! I stretched my hand towards my wife's throat! The infant unclasped its little fingers, and laid hold of one of mine. The gentle pressure wrung my heart: its softness returned; I burst into tears; but I could not stay to tell of our ruin. I rushed out of the room; and gaining an obscure hotel in a distant part of the town, wrote a few distracted lines, acquainting her of my folly and my crimes; that I meant immediately to leave France, and not return till my penitence should wipe out my offences, and my industry repair that ruin in which I had involved her. I recommended her and my child to my mother's care, and to the protection of that Heaven which she had never offended. Having sent this I left Paris on the instant, and had walked several miles from town before it was light. At sun rise a stage coach overtook me. It was going on the road to Brest. I entered it without arranging any further plan; and sat, in sullen and gloomy silence, in the corner of the carriage. That day and next night I went on mechanically, with several other passengers, regardless of food, and incapable of rest. But the second day I found my strength fail; and when we stopped in the evening, I fell down in a faint in the passage of the inn. I was put to bed, it seems, and lay for more than a week in the stupor of a low fever.

A charitable brother of that order to which I now belong, happened to be in the inn, attended me with the greatest care and humanity; and when I began to recover, the good old man ministered to my soul as he had done to my body, that assistance and consolation he had easily discovered it to need. By his tender assiduities I was now so far recruited as to be able to bear the fresh air at the window of a little parlour. As I sat there one morning, the same stage coach in which I had arrived, stopped at the door of the inn, when I saw alight out of it, the young painter who had been recommended to us at Paris. The sight overpowered my weakness, and I fell lifeless from my seat. The incident brought several people into the room; and, amongst others, the young man himself. When they had restored me to sense, I had recollection enough to desire him to remain with me alone. It was some time before he recognized me; when he did, with horror in his aspect, after much hesita-

tion, and the most solemn intreaty from me, he told me the dreadful sequel of my misfortunes. My wife and child were no more! The shock which my letter gave, the state of weakness she was then in had not strength to support. The effects were a fever, delirium, and death. Her infant perished with her! In the interval of reason preceding her death, she called him to her bed-side, gave him the picture he had drawn, and with her last breath charged him, if ever he should find me out, to deliver that and her forgiveness to me. He put it into my hand. I know not how I survived. Perhaps it was owing to my outworn state in which my disease had left me. My heart was too weak to burst; and there was a sort of palsy on my mind that seemed insensible to its calamities. By that holy man who had once before saved me from death, I was placed here; where, except one melancholy journey to that spot where they had laid my Emilia and her boy, I have ever since remained. My story is unknown, and they wonder at the severity of that life by which I endeavour to atone for my offences. But it is not by suffering alone that Heaven is reconciled; I endeavour, by works of charity and beneficence, to make my being not hateful in its sight. Blessed be God, I have attained the consolation I wished. Already, on my waiting days a beam of mercy sheds its celestial light. The visions of this flinty couch are changed to mildness. 'Twas but last night my Emilia beckoned me in smiles; this little cherub was with her!

His voice ceased; he looked on the picture, then towards Heaven; and a faint glow crossed the paleness of his cheek. I stood awe-struck at the sight. The bell for vesper tolled: He took my hand, I kissed his, and my tears began to drop on it.

My son, said he, to feelings like yours it may not be unpleasing to recall my story. If the world allure thee, if vice ensnare with its pleasures or abash with its ridicule, think of Father Nicholas; be virtuous, and be happy!

THE FAMILY OECONOMY and EMPLOYMENTS of the GYPSIES.

[From *Grellman's Dissertation on the Gypsies*, translated from the German by Matthew Raper, Esq; E. R. S. and A. S.]

THAT these people are still the unpolished creatures that rude nature formed them; or, at most, have only ad-

vanced one degree towards humanity, is evinced, among other circumstances, by their family oeconomy.

Many of them are stationary, having regular habitations, according to their situation in life. To this class belong those who keep public houses in Spain, and others who follow some regular business in Transylvania and Hungary, which latter have their own miserable huts near Hermanstadt, Cronstadt, Bistritz, Grosswardein, Debresin, Eperies, Karchan, and other placés. There are also many slaves to particular bojars, in Moldavia and Wallachia, who do not wander from their place of residence any more than the others. But by far the greatest number of these people lead a very different kind of life: ignorant of the comforts attending a fixed place to live at, they wander from one district to another in hords, having no habitations, but tents, holes in the rocks, or caves; the former made them in summer, the latter screen them in winter. Many of these savage people, particularly in Germany and Spain, do not even carry tents with them, but shelter themselves from the heat of the sun, in forests, shaded by the rocks, or behind hedges; they are very partial to willows, under which they erect their sleeping place, at the close of the evening. Some live in their tents (in their language called *eschater*) both summer and winter; which they generally prefer to every thing else. In Hungary, even those who have given up their rambling way of life, and built houses for themselves, seldom let a spring pass, without taking advantage of the first settled weather, to set up a tent for their summer residence; under this each one enjoys himself, with his family, nor thinks of his house, till the winter returns, and the frost and snow drive him back to it again.

When he can get it, the wandering Gypsy, in Hungary and Transylvania, has an horse; in Turkey, an ass serves to carry his wife, a couple of children, with his tent. When he arrives at any place he likes, near a village or city, he unpacks, pitches his tent, ties his animal to a stake to graze, and remains some weeks there; or if he does not find his station convenient, he breaks up in a day or two, loads his beast, and looks out for some more agreeable situation, near some other town. Indeed, he has it not always in his power to determine how long he shall remain in the same place; for the boors are apt to call upon him, on account of fowls and geese, he has made free with. It sometimes happens, when he is very much at his ease, they fall out with bludgeons or hedge-stakes, making use of such forcible arguments,

arguments, that he does not hesitate a moment, to set up his staff a little further off. Though, in general, the Gypsies are cunning enough, when they have purloined any thing, or done either mischief, to make off in time, before the villagers begin to suspect them.

For their winter huts they dig holes in the ground, ten or twelve feet deep, their roof is made of rafters laid across, which are covered with straw and fods: the stable, for the beast which carried the tent in summer, is a shed built at the entrance of the hollow, and closed up with dung and straw. This shed, with a little opening, rising above the roof, to let out the smoke, are the only marks by which a traveller can distinguish their dwellings. Both in summer and winter, they contrive to have their habitation in the neighbourhood of some village or city. Their favourite method of building is against an hillock, the holes in the level ground being only used in cases of necessity, when there is no rising ground near the spot they have pitched upon to pass the winter at. An Hungarian writer thus describes their method of constructing the second sort of huts. 'They dig an hollow, about a fathom broad, far enough into the hillock to bring their floor on a level with the rest of the plain, in order to form a firm upright wall, for the back of the building. Into the wall they fix a beam, about six feet from, and parallel to the floor; this beam reaches as far as the intended depth of the house, seldom exceeding seven or eight feet. One end being fast in the wall, the other reits on, and is fixed to, a pillar or post driven into the ground. When that is done, they lay boards, balks, or such other wood as they can find, against it on each side, in form of a pointed roof, which viewed from a distance, exhibits a front in the shape of an equilateral triangle. The operation is concluded by covering the whole building with straw, fods, and earth, to secure its inhabitants from the rain, snow and cold. They always contrive, when they can, to place their edifice so as to front either the rising or mid-day sun; this being the side where the opening is left, for a door to go in and out at, which is closed at night, either with a coarse woollen cloth, or a few boards.'

One may easily imagine, how dismal and horrid, the inside of such gypsy huts must be. Air and daylight excluded, full of damp, stink, and filth, they have more the appearance of wild beasts dens than the habitations of intelligent beings. Rooms and separate apartments are not even thought of; all is one open space, in the middle whereof is the fire, serving both

for the purpose of cooking and warming them; the father and mother lie half naked, the children entirely so, round it. Chairs, tables, beds or bedsteads, find no place here; they sit, eat, sleep, and do every thing on the bare ground, or, at most, spread an old blanket, or, in the Banat, a sheep-skin under them. When they have a fine day, the door is set open for the sun to shine in, which they continue watching, so long as it is above the horizon; when the day closes, they shut their door, consign themselves over to rest, and sleep till its return. When the weather is cold, or the snow prevents their opening the door, they make up the fire, sit round it till they fall asleep, without any more light than it affords.

The furniture and property of the gypsies have been already described; they consist of an earthen pot, an iron pan, a spoon, a jug and a knife; when it so happens, that every thing is complete, they sometimes add a dish: these serve for the whole family. When the matter of the house is a smith by trade, as will be mentioned by and by, he has a pair of bellows to blow up his fire, a small stone anvil, a pair of tongs, perhaps a couple of hammers, add to these a few old tatters, in which, as before mentioned, he dresses himself, his knapsack, some pieces of torn bed-cloaths, his tent, his antiquated jade, and you have a complete catalogue of a nomadic Gypsy's estate.

There is very little to be said concerning the domestic employment of the women, the care of their children is little, indeed hardly any at all. They neither wash, mend their cloaths, nor clean their utensils, they seldom bake, the whole of their business then, is reduced to these few articles: dressing their food and eating it, smoking tobacco, prating, and sleeping. They continue the whole winter in their hut, but at the first croaking of the frogs, they pull down their house and march off.

Such is the condition of the Gypsies who wander about in Hungary, Turkey, and other countries, being no where, or rather every where, at home. The remainder of these people, who have reconciled themselves to a settled way of life, are in much better circumstances; and vastly more rational, than those I have just described. It might be reasonably expected, that those Spanish Gypsies, who are inn-keepers, and entertain strangers, should be more civilised, but it also holds good, with regard to those in Hungary and Transylvania, who have different ways of gaining a livelihood. Their habitations are conveniently divided into chambers, are likewise furnished with tables, benches, decent kitchen-furniture and other necessaries.

The few who farm or breed cattle, have a plough and other implements of husbandry, the others in a certain degree what is wanted for carrying on their trade; though even here you are not to expect superfluity. Their habitations, cloaths, as well as every thing else belonging to them, indicate, that even these belong to the class of the poor. They are very fond of gold and silver plate, particularly silver cups, which is a disposition they have in common with the wandering Gypsies. They let slip no opportunity of acquiring something of the kind, they will even starve themselves to procure them. Though they seem little anxious to heap up riches for their children, yet these frequently inherit a treasure of this sort, and are obliged in their turn to preserve it as a sacred inheritance. The ordinary travelling Gypsies, who are in possession of such a piece of plate, commonly bury it under the hearth, of their dwelling, in order to prevent its being made away with. This inclination to deprive one's self of necessaries, that we may possess a superfluity, as well as many other of their customs, is curious: yet appears to be ancient, and it was probably inherent in them when they were first seen by Europeans.

I come now to the means, the Gypsies make use of, to maintain themselves. Here we shall discover the reason why poverty and want are, so generally their lot: it is owing to their laziness, and being so fond of their ease. If you want to find people who can earn their bread by the sweat of their brow, you must certainly not seek them among the Gypsy tribe. They abhor all kinds of work, which are either laborious or require application: and had rather suffer hunger and nakedness, than exert themselves to procure food and raiment on such hard terms. They therefore either chuse some trade, which is easily carried on, allowing them many idle hours, or addict themselves to unlawful courses, as any body may easily be convinced.

Black and white smiths are the most usual trades among the gypsies; in Spain very few follow any regular business, but among these few, some are smiths: on the contrary, in Hungary, this trade is so common among them, that it is a proverb, so many gypsies, so many smiths; the same might be said of those in Transylvania, Wallachia, Moldavia, and all Turkey in Europe; at least such workers in fire are very numerous in all those countries. This occupation seems to have been a favourite one among them from the most distant periods, as appears not only by Bellonius's account, but by an older record, of an Hungarian

king, Uladislav, in the year 1496, mentioned by the Abbé Pray, in his Annals, and Friedwaldsky, in his Mineralogy, wherein it is ordered, 'that every officer and subject of whatever rank or condition, do a low to Thomas Polgar, leader of twenty-five tents of wandering Gypsies, free residence every where, and on no account to molest either him or his people; because they had prepared musket-bullets, and other military stores, for the bishop Sigismund, at Fünfkirchen.' Another instance occurred, in the year 1565, when Mutlapha, Turkish regent of Bosnia, besieged Crupa, the Turks having expended their powder and cannon-balls, Gypsies were employed to make balls, part of iron, the rest of stone cased with lead.

The Gypsies of our time, do not like to undertake heavy work, I do not find they go beyond a pair of light horse-shoes: in general they confine themselves to small articles, such as rings, jews-harps, small nails, mend old pots and kettles, make knives, seals, needles, and sometimes work trivets in tin or brass.

Their materials, tools, apparatus, all are bad, and of the most inferior kind. Their common way is, to collect small pieces of rusty iron, old nails, broken horse-shoes, and such kind of rubbish, which they fuse and shape to their purpose. The anvil is a stone, the other implements are, a pair of hand bellows, a pair of pincers, a hammer, a vice, and a file: these are the materials a nomadic Gypsy carries with him from place to place. Whenever he has a mind to work, he is at no loss for fuel; on his arrival at a station, where he means to remain a few days or weeks, he takes his beast, loads him with wood, builds a small kiln, and manufactures his own coals. In good weather, the work is carried on out of doors; when it is stormy, or the sun too powerful, he retires under his tent. He does not stand, but sits down on the ground, cross-legged to his work; which position is rendered necessary, not only by custom, but the quality of his tools. The wife sits by to work the bellows, in which operation, she is sometimes relieved by the elder children; the little ones sit naked as they were born, round the fire. They are generally praised for their dexterity and quickness, notwithstanding the wretched tools they have to operate with. When any piece of work requires much time to finish, they are apt to lose their patience, and, in that case, become indifferent whether it be well executed or not. They never think of labour, as long as they have got a dry crust, or any thing else to satisfy their hunger. They frequently have orders for different articles, but, if not, as soon as

a few nails, or some other trifles are manufactured, man, woman, and children dislodge to carry their merchandise, from house to house, for sale, in the neighbouring villages; their traffick is carried on sometimes for ready money, sometimes by barter for eatables or other necessaries.

Another branch of commerce much followed by the Gypsies is horse-dealing. In those parts of Hungary where the climate is so mild, that horses may lie out all the year, the Gypsies avail themselves of this circumstance to breed, as well as deal in horses: by which they, sometimes, not only procure a competency, but grow rich. This last sort are not very numerous, for the greatest number of them only deal in blind worn out jades, which they drive about to different markets, to sell or barter. When not fortunate enough to find a chip for them, they lead them to the collar-maker, who values the hide, and takes him off their hands for a few groschens. In order to avoid being reduced to this necessity, they often practise the slyest tricks to conceal the animal's defects. In Spain therefore, *Gitano* and *Gitaneria* (*Gypsy* and *Gypseism*) are grown into common expressions, to imply a cheater in horses with the tricks he makes use of. In the year 1727, they became so notorious in Sweden, that it was taken into consideration at the diet, and their total expulsion voted to be a necessary measure. The following trick is frequently played in Hungary, and the adjacent country, to make an horse appear brisk and active. The rider alights, at a small distance from the place where he means to offer his horse for sale, and belabours the poor beast, till he has put the whole muscular system in motion with fright, he then mounts again and proceeds. The poor beast, recollecting the blows he has received, jumps about, or sets out full speed, at the least signal; the buyer, entirely ignorant of the preparatory discipline he has undergone, looks upon this as natural vivacity, and in hopes that good feeding with care, will render him still more lively, strikes a bargain; but the next day he has the mortification to discover, that he has bought a jade, on which all his care will be thrown away, as the beast has not a leg to stand upon. In Suabia and on the Rhine, they have another device; they make an incision in some secret part of the skin, through which they blow the creature up till he looks fleshy and plump, they then apply a strong sticking plaster, to prevent the air from coming out again. If what Wolfgang Franz assures us, be true, they sometimes make use of another device with a live eel, to this blown up horse, that he may not only ap-

pear in good condition, but spirited and lively. One would imagine, that on account of these, and such like pieces of roguery, nobody would ever venture to deal with a Gypsy for an horse, was not the possibility of it proved by the fact itself. But we see instances of this insatiation in other transactions: it is well known that every Jew will cheat, whenever he has an opportunity, yet these people have lived by trade, ever since their dispersion from Babel. Then these frauds do not constantly happen; the Gypsies too always sell their horses cheap, and poor people cannot afford to pay dear for them, which is the reason that the Gypsies can continue their traffick in horses.

To the above two trades, commonly followed by the men, may be added, that some are carpenters or turners; the former make watering troughs and chests, the latter turn trenchers, dishes, make spoons and other household furniture, which they hawk about. Others make sieves, or maintain themselves by cobbling shoes. Many of these, as well as the blacksmiths and whitesmiths, find constant employment in the houses of the better sort of people, for whom they work the year round. They are not paid in money; but, besides other advantages find a certain subsistence. Those who are not thus provided for, do not wait at home, for customers, but throw their implements in a sack, over their shoulders, seeking business in the cities or villages: when any one calls, they throw down the bundle, and prepare the apparatus for work, before the door of their employer.

The Gypsies have a fixed aversion to agriculture, and had rather suffer hunger or want, than follow the plough, to earn a decent livelihood, from the grateful earth. But as there is no general rule without an exception, so, besides the slaves to the Bojars, in Moldavia and Wallachia, who are constrained to apply to it, there are some in Hungary, who do it of their own accord. Since the year 1768, the Empress Theresa has commanded, that the Hungarian and Transilvanian Gypsies should be instructed in husbandry; but these orders have been very little attended to. At this time there are so few of them farmers, in this country, that they are not worth mentioning, though in Spain, and other European countries, they are still more scarce, as it would be difficult to find one who had ever made a furrow in his life.

It was formerly very common in Hungary, and in Transilvania, almost universally the custom, to employ the Gypsies for hangmen and executioners. They still perform the business of slayers in Hungary,

and of executioners in different parts of Transilvania. Their assiduity in torturing, their cruel invention in tormenting, are described by Topletin to be so shocking, as plainly proves no people so well calculated for works of barbarity as the Gypsies. Flaying is not their regular profession, in any place, but merely a casual occupation, which they follow, over and above their smith's or other work. Whenever a beast dies, near where they chance to be, it is a fortunate circumstance, if there happens to be no skinner in the place; not because they can make much of the skin, which they always leave with the owner for a trifling consideration, but they are sure thereby to procure a plentiful provision of flesh for the family.

Such are the men's employments. I shall now proceed to the women, and shew their particular methods of getting their bread. It was formerly, and still is the custom, among the wandering Gypsies, especially in the winter, that the man does not maintain the wife, but the wife the husband. Where this is not quite the case, as in summer, when the men have the before recited occupations, or among those, who have a regular settlement, yet the women always endeavour to contribute their share towards the maintenance of the family: Some deal in old cloaths, others frequent brothels, or let their persons out, in some other way, for hire. This is common in Spain, still more so in Constantinople, and all over Turkey: Probably because, in other places, nobody likes to be connected with such uncleanly beings. There are others in Constantinople, who make and sell brooms, and this trade is followed by those, chiefly, who are too old to get a livelihood by their debauchery. Dancing is another means they have of getting something, they generally practise this when begging, particularly from men in the streets, or calling in at houses asking charity. Their dances are the most disgusting that can be conceived, always ending with the most fulsome grimaces, or the most lascivious attitudes and gestures, uncovering those parts, which the rudest and most uncultivated people carefully conceal; nor is this indecency confined to married women only, but is rather more practised by young girls, travelling with their fathers, who are also musicians, and for a trifling acknowledgement exhibit their dexterity to any body, who is pleased with these unseemly dances. They are trained up to this impudence from their earliest years, never suffering a passenger to pass their parents' hut, without trying to get something, by striking about naked before him.

I shall not say any thing concerning fortune-telling, with which they impose on people's credulity, in every district and corner of Europe; this being a thing universally known. Yet it is extraordinary, that women, generally too not till they become old hags, should be so sharp-sighted, as to discover, in every person's hand, the dark mystery of futurity. A few instances there are of men being thus gifted, but they are so few, that they are only exceptions to a general rule. It is therefore owing to the Gypsy women alone, that faith in divination still remains, in the minds of millions of people. It is true, Europe is not originally beholden to the Gypsies for it, it being deep-rooted in the stupidity of the middle ages, when they arrived and brought it with them also. This science was already brought to a greater degree of perfection than among them, rules were invented to testies from the inspection of the hand, whereas these poor wretches were esteemed mere bunglers. During the last, and beginning of this century they were looked upon as only a supernumerary party; as there were men of great learning, who not only read lectures in college, on the divine art of chiromancy, but wrote many books, vilifying the Gypsies, and endeavouring to spoil their market by exposing their ignorance. But these enlightened men are no more, their knowledge is deposited in the dead archives of literature; and probably, if there were no Gypsies, with them would also have died the belief in chiromancy, in the same manner as, in astrology, necromancy, oneirocritica, and the other offsprings of fancy. By these alone, will this deceit be kept alive; till every Gypsy is constrained to acknowledge some country, and to have some ostensible mode of gaining a livelihood. We can only pity the poor deluded wretches, who pay their groschen or kreutzer, for a few unmeaning words; as if it were possible, for people to instruct us, concerning our future fortune in life, who are ignorant of their own; being unable to determine whether a day or two hence, they may still be telling fortunes, or taken up by the magistrates, and hanged for theft.

I must add to the chiromantic deception of the Gypsy women, that they also, but not exclusive of the men, cure bewitched cattle, discover thefts, and possess nostrums of various kinds, to which they ascribe great virtues. These nostrums consist principally of roots, and amulets made of unfermented dough, marked with strange figures, and dried in the air. Griselini says that, in the Banat of Temeswar, they sell certain small stones, chiefly a kind of scoria

rix, which they say possess the quality, to render the wearer fortunate in love, play, and other things. Were that true, they are the nearest, why deliver to another, what they have so much occasion for themselves? Why do they beg and steal, when, with the assistance of these stones, they might honorably acquire riches and good fortune? Yet these stones are purchased not only in the Banat, but in Germany. People use their quack medicines, call the Gypsy women into the stable, to exorcise their bewitched cattle; without suspecting any trick, although the whole is founded on deceit. So the open-hearted farmer, in Subbia and Bavaria, has recourse to the Gypsies on many occasions, making use of them as doctors for man and beast: and constantly in cases of enchantment, flies to the Gypsy; this circumstance happens oftentimes among those of the common people, who rail most against witches and witchcraft. Whenever a cow does not feed kindly, something is immediately suspected, and the Gypsy woman is called, who is often so successful as to remove the complaint. She goes into the stable; orders the cow to be shewn to her, remains a few minutes alone with it, after every one else is gone out: having finished her operations, she calls in the master, acquaints him with the beast's recovery, and behold it eats heartily. How happens this? Was it not a piece of enchantment, wherein the Gypsy acted the magician? Certainly not. The fraud is this. When the cattle are feeding abroad, the Gypsy woman takes advantage of the keeper's absence to entice some of them with a handful of fodder to follow her, then seizes them, over the nose and mouth, with some nastiness, she has ready in the other hand. From that moment the creature loaths all kinds of food or drink—as every thing smells of the nastiness. When she is called in to apply a remedy, the whole skill required, is to wipe off the stuff, she had put on, a day or two before: by this means the true smell is restored, and the cow being hungry, it is no wonder she should fall to greedily. From this single instance, a judgment may be formed of other cases.

The common Gypsy occupations, wherein men and women take an equal share, are, in Spain, keeping inns; principally music in Hungary and Turkey; and gold washing in Transylvania, the Banat, Moldavia and Wallachia. They used, formerly, to be concerned in smuggling, and probably still are, although it is not mentioned by any later writers.

Both men and women Gypsies, attend at entertainments, with their music, and

shew great proficiency in the art; besides some wind instrument, they have generally a violin: Many have attained to so great a perfection on that instrument, as to be employed in the chapels of the nobility, and admired as great masters. *Barna Mihaly*, was an Orpheus of this kind, in the country of Zips, who distinguished himself, about the middle of the present century, in the chapel of the Cardinal Count *Emerich von Szechaky*. The Cardinal, who was a judge of music himself, had so great a value for him, that he rendered his likeness immortal, by one of the most capital painters. Such instances are not wanting in the other sex; it is well known that a Gypsy girl, was so famous, as a fiddler, at fourteen years of age, that the richest and most fashionable people in Hungary, used to send twenty or thirty miles, for her, to play at their balls. There are likewise many scrapers, to whom Zeiller's words are applicable, 'that their music has a dismal sound.' But these are generally such as have learned from other scrapers, at their own expence. This kind travel about, with the dancers above mentioned, or play to the peasants, who, not having much taste, always make them welcome at their weddings or dances. They scratch away on an old patched violin, or rumble on a broken bass, neither caring about better instruments, nor minding to stop in tune, being what they are, more for want of application than capacity. Others practise vocal music, and make their fortunes, particularly in Spain, by singing.

Goldwashing, in the rivers, is another occupation, by which many thousand Gypsies, of both sexes, procure a livelihood, in the Banat, Transylvania, Wallachia and Moldavia. As this is only a summer employment, they are under the necessity of finding some other method of maintaining themselves, during the winter. It is not permitted for every one without exception, to be a goldwasher: In Transylvania, such only can do it, who have leave from the office of Mons; and these only enjoy the privilege under certain restrictions. It is the same in Wallachia and Moldavia, where none of the Bojar's slaves, thence called Bojarsk (Bojar Gypsies) are allowed to meddle with goldwashing, that being a liberty granted, only to those who, like other subjects, are immediately under the prince, thence called *Domnesk* (princely Gypsies) which are also subdivided into three classes; the first named *Rudar*; the second *Ursar*; and the third *Bajarschen*. The *Rudars* alone have the licence above mentioned; the two last are obliged to get their livelihood in some other

other way. Each person is forced to pay a certain tribute to government. The goldwashers in Transylvania and the Banat, pay four guilders annually, which is discharged in gold dust. The same sum is due from every Gypsey, though many evade it. They continue to keep out of the way, when the time for payment comes on, particularly the Hungarian Gypsies.

The art of goldwashing is brought to much greater perfection in Transylvania. In the description of it in those parts, it is said, that all the rivers, brooks, and even the pools which the rain forms, in Transylvania, produce gold; among these Aranyosch is the richest, inasmuch, that historians in those countries, compare it to the Tagus and Padolus. Besides the Wallachians, who live by the rivers, the goldwashers consist chiefly of Gypsies. They know, with the greatest exactness, where they can wash to advantage. Their apparatus for this work, is a crooked board, four or five feet long, by two or three broad, generally provided with a wooden rim on each side; over this they spread woollen cloths, and shake the gold sand mixed with water upon it; the small grains remain sticking to the cloth, they wash these cloths in a vessel of water, then separate the gold by means of the trough. When they find larger particles of sand, in their washing, they have deeper channels made in the middle of their crooked boards, which stop the small pieces as they roll down: they examine these small stones afterwards, and pick some out, which are frequently found to have solid gold fixed in them.

These are the customary transactions, and occupations of Gypsies, in the different countries and states of Europe. People must not imagine, that their smiths shops are continually resounding with the hammer, or that those of other professions, are so attentive to their callings, as to provide even a daily subsistence; not to think of a comfortable maintenance. Their laziness, on the contrary, makes so many idle hours in the day, that their family is often reduced to the greatest distress; for which reason, begging or stealing, are by far more common methods, than diligence and assiduous application to business, for quieting their hunger. If you except soldiers, who are kept in order by the discipline of the corporal, with some of the Transylvanian goldwashers, who apply to music, and living separate from their own cast, in constant habits of intercourse with people of a better sort, have thereby

acquired more civilized manners, and learned the distinction, if not between right and wrong, at least between social honour and disgrace, the remainder are in the most unlimited sense, artful thieves. They seem only to make a pretence of working, in order the better to carry on their thieving, as the articles which they prepare for sale, in the cities and villages, furnish an excellent blind, for sneaking into houses, to pry where there is any thing which they may appropriate to themselves. This kind of artifice is particularly the province of the women, who have always been reckoned more dexterous than the men, in the art of stealing. They commonly take children with them, which are tutored, to remain behind, in the outer part of the house, to purloin what they can, while the mother is negotiating in the chamber. It is generally the women's office, to make away with the poor's geese and fowls, when they are to be found in a convenient place. If the creature makes a noise when seized, it is killed and dressed for the consumption of the family, but if, by chance, it should have strayed so far, from the village, that its crying cannot give any alarm, they keep it alive, to sell at the next market town. Winter is the time when the women generally are most called upon, to try their skill in this way: during that season, many of the men remain in their huts, sending the women abroad to forage. They go about under the disguise of beggars in a very scientific manner, and commonly carry with them a couple of children, miserably exposed to the cold and frost; one of these is led in the hand, the other tied in a cloth to the woman's back, in order to excite compassion, in well disposed people. They also tell fortunes, and impose on the credulous with amulets. Besides all this, they seldom return to their husbands without some pilfered booty. Many writers confine the thefts of Gypsies to small matters, and will not allow that they are ever guilty of violence. This is not only denied by the testimony of others, but absolutely contradicted by some recent instances. It is true that, on account of their natural timidity, they do not like to commit a robbery, which appears to be attended with great danger, nor often break open houses by night, as other thieves do: They rather content themselves with small matters, than, as they think, destroy themselves at once by a great and dangerous action. Yet we have more than one proof, that they make no scruple to murder a traveller, or plunder cities and villages.

GENERAL CHARACTER OF THE GERMANS.

[From Baron Riefbeck's Travels through Germany.]

THE peculiar turn of the Germans seems to be for philosophy; they are distinguished from all the nations in Europe, for cool and just judgment, united with extreme industry; they were the first who threw a light on mathematics and general physics; next they darted through theology, then history, and finally, legislation, with the same philosophical spirit.—They will do well to leave to other nations the prize of wit, for which they will always contend in vain.

If Germany could make itself one great people; if it was united under one governor; if the present interests of a single prince were not often in opposition to the good of the whole; if all the members were so well compacted into one body, that the superfluous sap of the one could circulate and invigorate the rest, how much greater steps towards cultivation would the empire then make!—But then Germany would give laws to all Europe. How powerful, as things even now are, are the two houses of Austria and Brandenburg, the greatness of whose strength consists in their German possessions, and who yet neither possess the half nor even the best parts of the country. Conceive this country in such a situation as that, no burthen some excise should oppress the internal commerce of the different provinces; no customs should prohibit exports all over the world; in such a situation as that the immense sums that it gives for outlandish commodities, which itself can furnish, should be spared—or that it could become a naval power, for which it has such ports and such plenty of provisions, that it could itself employ the numerous colonies it sends out to the rest of Europe:—Conceive this—what country in the world could then cope with Germany?

The character of men depends for the most part on their government. The character of the Germans has in general as little brilliancy in it as the constitution of the empire; they have none of the national pride and patriotism, by which the Britons, Spaniards, and our own countrymen are distinguished; fond as their poets have been, for some time past, of ascribing these qualities to them. Their pride and patriotic sentiments only extend to the part of Germany in which they are born; to the rest of their countrymen they are strange as to any strangers, nay, in several parts of Germany, they are much

fonder of strangers than they are of their own countrymen. It is the sense of weakness of the lesser powers of Germany which damps their national pride; it is only because Germany cannot use its powers altogether, and that other nations feel their strength, that it has been despised by the inhabitants of other countries; who yet have nothing to boast above it, save a faster bond of union among themselves, or a ridiculous pride. We seldom judge of men by their inner worth, so much as from the external appearance they make in the world. We estimate the Russians, English, &c. according to the idea we have taken up of the whole nation; and tho' the individual may happen to be, as he often is, ten times more barbarous than a German, we give him credit for the same and worth of his illustrious countrymen.

Though the character of the Germans be not so brilliant as that of other nations, still it is not destitute of its peculiar excellencies. The German is the man of the world. He lives under every sky, and conquers every natural obstacle to his happiness. His industry is inexhaustible. Poland, Hungary, Russia, the English and Dutch colonies, are much indebted to German emigrants. Even the first states in Europe owe to Germany great part of their knowledge. Rectitude is also an almost universal characteristic of the people of this country; nor are the manners of the peasants and those of the inhabitants of the lesser cities, by any means so corrupt as those of France and other countries; it is owing to this that, notwithstanding the great emigrations, the country is still so well peopled. To conclude, frugality on the side of the Protestants, and frankness and goodheartedness on the side of the Catholics, are brilliant national characteristics.

CHARACTERISTIC PICTURE OF THE BAVARIANS.

[From the same.]

A Picture of the Bavarian character and manners by Hogarth, would be extremely interesting. Great singularity of character is often to be met with in England; but what Bavaria offers exceeds any thing to be seen elsewhere. You know I am no painter; so if I endeavour to point out to you the peculiarities of Bavaria in the abstract, my descriptions will have none of that life and expression which distinguish Hogarth's groups, or Shake-

Speare's scene: However, I will do my endeavour.

To proceed methodically—for you cannot conceive what a method sticks to me in all I do, since I have breathed the air of Germany—I shall anatomize the body of the Bavarian, before I proceed to the analysis of his mind. In general the Bavarian is stout bodied, muscular and fleshy. There are, however, some slender people among them who may pass for handsome. They are something less rosy checked than the Suabians, a difference probably arising from their drinking beer instead of wine, as others do.

The characteristic of a Bavarian is a very round head, a little peaked chin, a large belly, and a pale complexion. Many of them look like caricatures of man. They have great fat bellies, short clubbed feet, narrow shoulders, a thick round head, and short necks. They are heavy and awkward in their carriage, and their small eyes betray a great deal of roguery. The women, in general, are some of the most beautiful creatures in the world. They are indeed something gross, but their skin surpasses all the carnation ever used by painters: the purest lily white is softly tinged with purple, as if by the hands of the graces. I saw some peasant girls with such clear complexions, that they appeared quite transparent. They are well shaped, and more lively and graceful, in their gestures than the men.

In the capital they dress in the French style, or at least imagine that they do so, for the men are still too fond of gold and mixed colours. The country people dress without any taste at all. The chief ornament of the men is a long, broad waistcoat, strangely embroidered, from which their breeches hang very low and loose, probably to give free play to their bellies, which is the chief part of a Bavarian. The women disguise themselves with a sort of stays in the shape of a funnel, which cover the breast and shoulders, so as to hide the whole neck. This stiff dress is covered with silver beads, and thickly overlaid with silver chains. In many places the housewife has a bunch of keys, and a knife appendant to a girdle, which reach almost to the ground.

As to the characters and manners of the Bavarians, the inhabitants of the capital naturally differ very much from the country people. The character of the inhabitants of Munich is a riddle to me, and would remain so if I were to stay here many years. I believe, indeed, that it may be truly said, that they have no character at all. Their manners are corrupt, as must be the case with forty thousand men who

depend entirely on a court, and for the most part go idle at its expence.

Amongst the great nobles you meet here, as well as elsewhere, with very well bred, and polite people; but the people, taking the word in its full extent, are in an eminent degree destitute of any sense of honour, without education, without any activity for the state, attachment to the country, or generous feeling whatever. The fortunes of this place are from 1500 to three or four thousand pounds *per annum*, but the possessors know no other use of their money, than to spend it in sensual gratifications. Many good houses have been entirely ruined by play. The fashionable game at the court was formerly called *zwickeln*, or *pinch*; but since Hornbesh, the minister of finance, has pinched their salaries so confoundedly, they call it *Hornbesh*. Many of the court ladies know of no other employment than playing with their parrots, their dogs, or their cats. One of the principal ladies I am acquainted with, keeps a hall full of cats, and two or three maids to attend them: she converses half the day long with them, often serves them herself with coffee and sugar, and dresses them according to her fancy differently every day.

The small nobles, and servants of the court, have a pitiable passion for titles. Before the present elector came here, the place swarmed with excellencies, honourable, and right honourable. As this was not the custom at Mannheim, an order was made to ascertain the different ranks of noblesse. All those whom it deprived of excellency, honourable, &c. and particularly (would you think it?) the women, were sunk in despair, and for the first time, complaints were made of tyranny, of which none before seemed to have conception.

The remainder of the inhabitants are immersed in the most scandalous debauchery. Every night the streets resound with the noise of drunkards issuing from the numerous taverns where they have been revelling and dancing. Whorver is at all noble here must keep his mistress; the rest indulge in promiscuous love. In this respect things are not much better in the country.

Bavaria, indeed, well deserves the character given it by an officer of Gascony, of being the greatest brothel in the world.

The country people are extremely dirty. A few miles distant from the capital, one would hardly take the hovels of the peasants for the habitations of men. Many of them have large puddles before the door of their houses, and are obliged to step over planks into them. The thatched roofs of the country people, in many parts

of France, have a much better appearance, than the miserable huts of the Bavarian peasants; the roofs of which are covered with stones, in order that the slates may not be carried away by the wind. Mean as this looks, cheap as nails are in the country, and often as half the roofs are torn away by strong winds, yet cannot the rich farmer be persuaded to nail his shingles properly together. In short, from the court to the smallest cottage, indolence is the most predominant part of the character of the Bavarian.

This great indolence is contrasted, in an extraordinary manner, with a still higher degree of bigotry. I happened to stroll into a dark, black country beer-house, filled with clouds of tobacco, and on entering was almost stunn'd with the noise of the drinkers. By degrees, however, my eyes penetrated thro' the thick vapours, when I discovered the priest of the place in the middle of fifteen or twenty drunken fellows. His black coat was just as much bedaubed as the frocks of his flock, and like the rest of them, he had cards in his left hand, which he struck so forcibly on the dirty table, that the whole chamber trembled. At first, I was shocked at the violent abuse they gave each other, and thought they were quarrelling; but soon found that all the blackguard appellations which shocked me, were only modes of friendly salutation among them. Every one of them had now drank his six or eight pots of beer, and they desired the landlord to give each a dram of brandy, by way, they said, of locking the stomach. But now their good humour departed, and I presently saw, in all their looks and gestures, the most ferocious preparation for a fray. This at length broke out. At first the priest took vain pains to suppress it. He swore and roared at last as much as the rest. Now one seized a pot and threw it at his adversary's head, another clenched his fist, a third pulled the legs from a stool to knock his enemy on the head. Every thing, in short, seemed to speak blood and death; when on the ringing of the bell for evening prayer, 'Ave Maria ye—!' cried the priest, and down dropped their arms, they pulled off their bonnets, folded their hands, and repeated Ave Marias. It put me in mind of the adventure in Don Quixotte, where peace is suddenly restored in the great fray, on account of the helmet of Mambrino, and the ass's collar, by the recollection of what passed in the Agramantine camp. As soon, however, as prayers were over, they were all seized again with their former fury, which was the more violent, from the momentary interruption it had met with. Pots and glasses began to fly.

I observed the curate creep under the table for security, and I withdrew into the landlord's bedchamber.

The same scenes occur in the inland towns among the citizens, officers, clergymen, and students. They all salute each other with abusive language; all vie in hard drinking; and dole to every church, which are scarce less than 28,700, there is regularly a beer-house and a brothel. A student at the university of Ingolstadt must carry a thick cudgel, and wear a neat cut hat; he must be able to drink from eight to ten quarts of beer at a sitting, and be always ready to fight, right or wrong, with the officers of the garrison that is quartered there. You may suppose that this does not tend to raise the reputation of the university, which is, indeed, but thinly visited, though the professors are able men, and do their duty, although a proclamation came out some years since, to forbid any Bavarian from studying out of the country.

No pen can describe the ridiculous mixtures of debauchery and devotion which every day happen. The most notorious is that which took place in the church of St. Mary, Oettingen, a few years since, when a priest actually deflowered a girl whom he had long pursued, and could only make a prize of there before the altar of the Virgin.

The country people join to their indolence and devotion a certain ferocity of temper, which often gives rise to bloody scenes. When they mean to praise a church holiday, or some public festival which has lately been kept, they say,—such a one was a charming affair; there were six or eight people killed or made cripples at it. If nothing of this kind has been done, it is called a mere nothing, a fiddle-saddle business. In the last century, and the beginning of this, the Bavarian troops maintained the first reputation among the German forces. At the battle of Hogstedt, they kept their ground and imagined themselves victors, till the elector who led them was informed that the French had given way in the other wing. Under Tilly and Mercy they likewise did wonders; but since the time of these generals, military discipline has so far relaxed amongst them, that they are no longer soldiers. Indeed no people can shew more abhorrence to every thing which is called discipline and order, than the Bavarians do. They might, however, still be useful as freebooters, whose robberies and all irregularities are more pardonable than those of regular troops. There are bands of robbers about, which are one thousand men strong, and would undoubtedly make good ravaging parties in time of war. There have been in

stances of their fighting against the military, under bold leaders, to the very last man. But the poorest peasant considers it as a hardship to be drafted into the regular troops of his prince.

The inhabitants of the capital, on the other hand, are the most weak, timid, and subservient people in the world. They have no quickness of parts at all, and you will seek in vain in the town for that liberty, which sometimes indeed degenerates into coarseness of manners, but is still the most agreeable trait in the character of the country people. Under the last government, while the people of Munich were crouching under a despotic minister, and only ventured to murmur in secret, the country people discovered their discontent with a freedom which threatened dangerous consequences. At the same time, an unbounded and inexpressible love for their prince prevailed on them to pull down the enclosures of their fields at the command of the master of the hounds, in order that the game might pasture there. They spoke with raptures of the amiable qualities of their lord; indeed they did not pass over his faults, but tried to excuse him for them, and loaded his servants, without reserve, with their heaviest curses, and thus gave every stranger a just idea of the court, while the inhabitants of the town, in the dedicatory addresses of books and poems, extolled the tyrants of the land to heaven. The country people judge as impartially of the present government. I should not, however, have obtained any account of the prince or his servants, if I had not got acquainted with some foreign artists belonging to the court, who were more interested in the state of them both than the natives, who were infatuated with their beer pots. Every shoe-black in Paris knows all the great people of the court, pries into their private life as well as their politics, and condemns or approves at discretion; but here you meet with many court-counsellors and secretaries, who know nothing of the great people, except their names. To conclude, the unadulterated Bavarian peasant is gruff, fat, dirty, lazy, drunken, and undisciplined; but he is brave, economical, patriotic, and such a slave to his word, that when it has once been given it is never broke. As to his hatred of regular discipline, it is partly owing to the discouragement thrown upon the military way of life by the clergy, and partly to there being no provision for disabled soldiers. Something too arises from the prince's not being military; for in the year 1778, when the imperial troops were recruiting at Straubingen, and carried about with them a picture of the Em-

peror in his uniform, many of the natives immediately enlisted on hearing that the Emperor was a soldier.

CUSTOMS AND MANNERS OF THE ARABS.

[From the first volume of Volney's *Travels through Syria and Egypt.*]

IN general, when speaking of the Arabs, we should distinguish whether they are cultivators, or pastors; for this difference in their mode of life occasions so great a one in their manners and genius, that they become almost foreign nations with respect to each other. In the former case, leading a sedentary life, attached to the same soil, and subject to regular governments, the social state in which they live, very nearly resembles our own. Such are the inhabitants of the Yemen; and such, also, are the descendants of those ancient conquerors, who have either entirely, or in part, given inhabitants to Syria, Egypt, and the Barbary states. In the second instance, having only a transient interest in the soil, perpetually removing their tents from one place to another, and under subjection to no laws, their mode of existence is neither that of polished nations, nor of savages; and, therefore, more particularly merits our attention. Such are the Bedouins, or inhabitants of the vast deserts which extend from the confines of Persia, to Morocco. Though divided into independent communities, or tribes, not unfrequently hostile to each other, they may still be considered as forming one nation. The resemblance of their language is a manifest token of this relationship. The only difference that exists between them is, that the African tribes are of a less ancient origin, being posterior to the conquest of these countries by the Califfs, or successors of Mahomet; while the tribes of the desert of Arabia, properly so called, have descended by an uninterrupted succession from the remotest ages; and it is of these I mean more especially to treat, as being more immediately connected with my subject. To these the orientals are accustomed to appropriate the name of Arabs, as being the most ancient, and the purest race. The term Bedaoui is added as a synonymous expression, signifying, as I have observed, inhabitant of the Desert; and this term has the greater propriety, as the word Arab, in the ancient language of these countries, signifies a solitude or desert.

It is not without reason that the inhabitants of the Desert boast of being the purest

and the best preserved race of all the Arab tribes : for never have they been conquered, nor have they mixed with any other people, by making conquests ; for those by which the general name of Arabs has been rendered famous, really belong only to the tribes of the Hedjaz, and the Yemen ; those who dwelt in the interior of the country, never emigrated at the time of the revolution effected by Mahomet ; or if they did take any part in it, it was confined to a few individuals, detached by motives of ambition. Thus we find the prophet, in his Koran, continually siling the Arabs of the Desert rebels, and infidels ; nor has so great a length of time produced any very considerable change. We may assert they have, in every respect, retained their primitive independence and simplicity. Every thing that ancient history has related of their customs, manners, language, and even their prejudices, is almost minutely true of them to this day ; and if we consider, besides, that this unity of character, preserved through such a number of ages, still subsists, even in the most distant situations, that is, that the tribes most remote from each other preserve an exact resemblance, it must be allowed, that the circumstances which accompany so peculiar a moral state, are a subject of most curious enquiry.

In Europe, and especially in its more civilized and improved countries, where we have no examples of wandering people, we can scarcely conceive what can induce men to adopt a mode of life so repugnant to our ideas. We even conceive with difficulty what a desert is, or how it is possible for a country to have inhabitants, if it be barren ; or why it is not better peopled, if it be susceptible of cultivation. I have been perplexed, myself, with these difficulties, as well as others ; for which reason, I shall dwell more circumstantially on the facts which will furnish us with their explanation.

The wandering and pastoral life led by several Asiatic nations, arises from two causes. The first is, the nature of the soil, which, being improper for cultivation, compels men to have recourse to animals, which content themselves with the wild herbage of the earth. Where this herbage is but thin, a single animal will soon consume the produce of a great extent of ground, and it will be necessary to run over large tracts of land. Such is the case of the Arabs in the desert of Arabia, properly so called, and in that of Africa.

The second cause must be attributed to habit, since the soil is cultivable, and even fertile, in many places ; such as the frontiers of Syria, the Diarbekir, Natolia, and

the greatest part of the districts frequented by the Curds and Turkmen. But it appears to me that these habits are only the effect of the political state of the country, so that the primary cause of them must be referred to the government itself. This opinion is supported by daily facts ; for as often as the different hordes and wandering tribes find peace and security, and a possibility of procuring sufficient provisions, in any district, they take up their residence in it, and adopt, insensibly, a settled life, and the arts of cultivation. But when, on the contrary, the tyranny of the government drives the inhabitants of a village to extremity, the peasants desert their houses, withdraw with their families into the mountains, or wander in the plains, taking care frequently to change their place of habitation, to avoid being surprised. It often happens even that individuals, turned robbers, in order to withdraw themselves from the laws, or from tyranny, unite and form little camps, which maintain themselves by arms, and, increasing, become new hordes, and new tribes. We may pronounce, therefore, that in cultivable countries, the wandering life originates in the injustice or want of policy of the government ; and that the sedentary and cultivating state is that to which mankind is most naturally inclined.

With respect to the Arabs, they seem especially condemned to a wandering life, by the very nature of their deserts. To paint to himself these deserts, the reader must imagine a sky almost perpetually inflamed, and without clouds, immense and boundless plains, without houses, trees, rivulets, or hills, where the eye frequently meets nothing but an extensive and uniform horizon, like the sea, though in some places the ground is uneven and stoney. Almost invariably naked on every side, the earth presents nothing but a few wild plants, thinly scattered, and thickets, whose solitude is rarely disturbed but by antelopes, hares, locusts and rats. Such is the nature of nearly the whole country, which extends six hundred leagues in length, and three hundred in breadth, and stretches from Aleppo to the Arabian sea, and from Egypt to the Persian gulph,

It must not, however, be imagined that the soil in so great an extent is every where the same ; it varies considerably in different places. On the frontiers of Syria, for example, the earth is in general fat and cultivable, nay, even fruitful. It is the same also on the banks of the Euphrates ; but in the internal parts of the country, and towards the south, it becomes white and chalky, as in the parallel of Damascus ; rocky, as in the Tib, and in the Hedjaz ;

and a pure sand, as to the eastward of the Yemen. This variety in the qualities of the soil is productive of some minute differences in the condition of the Bedouins. For instance, in the more sterile countries, that is those which produce but few plants, the tribes are feeble, and very distant; which is the case in the desert of Suez, that of the Red Sea, and the interior of the Great Desert, called the Najd. When the soil is more fruitful, as between Damascus and the Euphrates, the tribes are more numerous, and less remote from each other; and, lastly, in the cultivable districts, such as the pachalics of Aleppo, the Hauran, and the neighbourhood of Gaza, the camps are frequent and contiguous. In the former instances, the Bedouins are purely pastors, and subsist only on the produce of their herds, and on a few dates, and flesh meats, which they eat, either fresh, or dried in the sun, and reduced to a powder. In the latter, they sow some land, and add cheese, barley, and even rice, to their flesh and milk meats.

Such is the situation in which nature has placed the Bedouins, to make of them a race of men equally singular in their physical and moral character. This singularity is so striking, that even their neighbours, the Syrians, regard them as extraordinary beings; especially those tribes which dwell in the depths of the deserts, such as the Anaza, Kaibar, Tai, and others, which never approach the towns. When, in the time of Shaik Daher, some of their horsemen came as far as Acrie, they excited the same curiosity there, as a visit from the savages of America would among us. Every body viewed with surprize these men, who were more diminutive, meagre and swarthy, than any of the known Bedouins. Their withered legs were only composed of tendons and had no calves. Their bellies seem to cling to their backs, and their hair was frizzled almost as much as that of the negroes. They, on the other hand, were no less astonished at every thing they saw; they could neither conceive how the houses and minarets could stand erect, nor how men ventured to dwell beneath them, and always in the same spot; but, above all, they were in an ecstasy on beholding the sea, nor could they comprehend what that desert of water could be. They were told of mosques, prayers, and ablutions; but they asked what those meant, and enquired who Moses, Jesus Christ, and Mahomet, were; and why, since the inhabitants were not of separate tribes, they followed different leaders?

We may imagine, that the Arabs of the frontiers are not such novices; there are

even several small tribes of them, who, living in the midst of the country, as in the valley of Bekaa, that of the Jordan, and in Palestine, approach nearer to the condition of the peasants; but these are despised by the others, who look upon them as bastard Arabs, and rays, or slaves of the Turks.

In general, the Bedouins are small, meagre, and tawny; more so, however, in the heart of the desert, than on the frontiers of the cultivated country; but they are always of a darker hue than the neighbouring peasants. They also differ among themselves in the same camp; and I have remarked, that the Shaiks, that is, the rich, and their attendants, were always taller, and more corpulent, than the common class. I have seen some of them above five feet five and six inches high; though, in general, they do not exceed five feet two inches. This difference can only be attributed to their food, with which the former are supplied more abundantly than the latter. It may, likewise, be affirmed, that the lower class of Bedouins live in a state of habitual wretchedness and famine. It will appear almost incredible to us, but it is an undoubted fact, that the quantity of food usually consumed by the greatest part of them, does not exceed six ounces a day. This abstinence is most remarkable among the tribes of the Najd, and the Hedjaz. Six or seven dates soaked in melted butter, a little sweet milk, or curds, serve a man a whole day; and he esteems himself happy, when he can add a small quantity of coarse flour, or a little ball of rice. Meat is reserved for the greatest festivals; and they never kill a kid but for a marriage or a funeral. A few wealthy and generous Shaiks alone can kill young camels, and eat baked rice with their victuals. In times of dearth, the vulgar, always half starved, do not disdain the most wretched kinds of food; and eat locusts, rats, lizards, and serpents broiled on briars. Hence are they such plunderers of the cultivated lands, and robbers on the highroads; hence, also, their delicate constitution, and their diminutive and meagre bodies, which are rather active than vigorous. It may be worth while to remark, that their evacuations of every kind, even perspiration, are extremely small; their blood is so destitute of serosity, that nothing but the greatest heat can preserve its fluidity. This, however, does not prevent them from being tolerably healthy, in other respects, for maladies are less frequent among them than among the inhabitants of the cultivated country.

From these facts, we are by no means justified in concluding, that the frugality

of the Arabs is a virtue purely of choice, or even of climate. The extreme heat in which they live, unquestionably facilitates their abstinence, by destroying that activity which cold gives to the stomach. Their being habituated also to sparing a diet, by hindering the dilatation of the stomach, becomes doubtless a means of their supporting such abstemiousness; but the chief and primary motive of this habit, is with them, as with the rest of mankind, the necessity of the circumstances in which they are placed, whether from the nature of the soil, as I have before explained, or that state of society in which they live, and which I shall now proceed to examine.

I have already said, that the Bedouin Arabs are divided into tribes, which constitute so many distinct nations. Each of these tribes appropriates to itself a tract of land forming its domain; in this they do not differ from cultivating nations, except that their territory requires a greater extent, in order to furnish subsistence for their herds throughout the year. Each of these tribes is collected in one or more camps, which are dispersed through the country, and which make a successive progress over the whole in proportion as it is exhausted by the cattle; hence it is, that within a great extent a few spots only are inhabited, which vary from one day to another; but as the entire space is necessary for the annual subsistence of the tribe, whoever encroaches on it is deemed a violator of property; this is with them the law of nations. If, therefore, a tribe, or any of its subjects, enter upon a foreign territory, they are treated as enemies, and robbers, and a war breaks out. Now, as all the tribes have affinities with each other by alliances of blood, or conventions, leagues are formed, which render these wars more or less general. The manner of proceeding, on such occasions, is very simple. The offence made known, they mount their horses and seek the enemy; when they meet, they enter into parley, and the matter is frequently made up; if not, they attack either in small bodies, or man to man. They encounter each other at full speed, with fixed lances, which they sometimes dart, notwithstanding their length, at the flying enemy; the victory is rarely contested; it is decided by the first shock, and the vanquished take to flight full gallop over the naked plain of the desert. Night generally favours their escape from the conqueror. The tribe which has lost the battle strikes its tents, removes to a distance by forced marches, and seeks an asylum among its allies. The enemy, satisfied with their success, drive their herds, farther on, and the fu-

gitives soon after return to their former situation. But the slaughter made in these engagements frequently sows the seeds of hatreds, which perpetuate these dissensions. The interest of the common safety has, for ages, established a law among them, which decrees that the blood of every man who is slain must be avenged by that of his murderer. This vengeance is called *tar*, or retaliation; and the right of exacting it devolves on the nearest of kin to the deceased. So nice are the Arabs on this point of honour, that if any one neglects to seek his retaliation, he is disgraced for ever. He, therefore, watches every opportunity of revenge: If his enemy persists from any other cause, still he is not satisfied, and his vengeance is directed against the nearest relation. These animosities are transmitted, as an inheritance, from father to children, and never cease but by the extinction of one of the families, unless they agree to sacrifice the criminal, or purchase the blood for a stated price, in money or in flocks. Without this satisfaction, there is neither peace, nor truce, nor alliances between them, nor sometimes, even between whole tribes: 'There is blood between us,' say they, on every occasion; and this expression is an insurmountable barrier. Such accidents being necessarily numerous in a long course of time, the greater part of the tribes have ancient quarrels, and live in an habitual state of war; which, added to their way of life, renders the Bedouins a military people, though they have made no great progress in war as an art.

Their camps are formed in a kind of irregular circle, composed of a single row of tents, with greater or less intervals. These tents, made of goat or camels hair, are black or brown, in which they differ from those of the Turkmen, which are white. They are stretched on three or four pickets, only five or six feet high, which gives them a very flat appearance; at a distance, one of these camps seems only like a number of black spots; but the piercing eye of the Bedouin is not to be deceived. Each tent, inhabited by a family, is divided, by a curtain, into two apartments, one of which is appropriated to the women. The empty space within the large circle serves to fold their cattle every evening. They never have any intrenchments; their only advanced guards and patrols are dogs; their horses remain saddled, and ready to mount on the first alarm; but, as there is neither order nor regularity, these camps, always easy to surprise, afford no defence in case of an attack: accidents, therefore, very frequently happen, and cattle are carried off every day; a species of marauding war,

in which the Arabs are very experienced.

The tribes which live in the vicinity of the Turks, are still more accustomed to attacks and alarms; for these strangers, arrogating to themselves, in right of conquest, the property of the whole country, treat the Arabs as rebel vassals, or as turbulent and dangerous enemies. On this principle, they never cease to wage secret or open war against them. The Pacha's study every occasion to harass them. Sometimes they contest with them a territory which they had let them, and at others demand a tribute which they never agreed to pay. Should a family of Shaiks be divided by interest or ambition, they alternately succour each party, and conclude by the destruction of both. Frequently too they poison or assassinate those chiefs whose courage or abilities they dread, though they should even be their allies. The Arabs, on their side, regarding the Turks as usurpers and treacherous enemies, watch every opportunity to do them injury. Unfortunately, their vengeance falls oftener on the innocent than the guilty. The harmless peasant generally suffers for the offences of the soldier. On the slightest alarm, the Arabs cut their harvests, carry off their flocks, and intercept their communication and commerce. The peasant calls them thieves, and with reason; but the Bedouins claim the right of war, and perhaps they also are not in the wrong. However this may be, these depredations occasion a misunderstanding between the Bedouins and the inhabitants of the cultivated country, which renders them mutual enemies.

Such is the external situation of the Arabs. It is subject to great vicissitudes, according to the good or bad conduct of their chiefs. Sometimes a feeble tribe raises and aggrandizes itself, whilst another, which was powerful, falls into decay, or perhaps is entirely annihilated; not that all its members perish, but they incorporate themselves with some other; and this is the consequence of the internal constitution of the tribes. Each tribe is composed of one or more principal families, the members of which bear the title of Shaiks, i. e. chiefs or lords. These families have a great resemblance to the patricians of Rome, and the nobles of modern Europe. One of the Shaiks has the supreme command over the others. He is the general of their little army, and sometimes assumes the title of Emir, which signifies Commander and Prince. The more relations, children and allies he has, the greater is his strength and power.— To these he adds particular adherents, whom he studiously attaches to him, by

supplying all their wants. But besides this, a number of small families, who, not being strong enough to live independent, stand in need of protection and alliances, range themselves under the banner of this chief. Such an union is called *Asabila*, or tribe. These tribes are distinguished from each other by the names of their respective chiefs, or by that of the ruling family; and when they speak of any of the individuals who compose them, they call them the children of such a chief, though they may not be all really of his blood, and he himself may have been long since dead. Thus they say, *Beni Temin*, *Oulad Tai*, the children of Temin and of Tai. This mode of expression is even applied, by metaphor, to the names of countries: The usual phrase for denoting its inhabitants, being to call them the children of such a place. Thus the Arabs say, *Oulad Mase*, the Egyptians; *Oulad Sbar*, the Syrians; and they would also say, *Oulad Fransa*, the French; *Oulad M. shou*, the Russians, a remark which is not unimportant to ancient history.

The government of this society is at once republican, aristocratical, and even despotic, without exactly corresponding with any of these forms. It is republican, inasmuch as the people have a great influence in all affairs, and as nothing can be transacted without the consent of a majority. It is aristocratical, because the families of the Shaiks possess some of the prerogatives which every where accompany power; and, lastly, it is despotic, because the principal Shaik has an indefinite and almost absolute authority, which, when he happens to be a man of credit and influence, he may even abuse; but the state of these tribes confines even this abuse to very narrow limits; for, if a chief should commit an act of injustice, if, for example, he should kill an Arab, it would be almost impossible for him to escape punishment; the resentment of the offended party would pay no respect to his dignity; the law of retaliation would be put in force; and, should he not pay the blood, he would be infallibly assassinated, which, from the simple and private life the Shaiks lead in their camps, would be no difficult thing to effect. If he harasses his subjects by severity, they abandon him, and go over to another tribe. His own relations take advantage of his misconduct to depose him, and advance themselves to his station. He can have no resource in foreign troops; his subjects communicate too easily with each other to render it possible for him to divide their interests, and form a faction in his favour. Besides, how is he to pay them, since he receives no kind

of taxes from the tribe; the wealth of the greater part of his subjects being limited to absolute necessities, and his own confined to very moderate possessions, and those too loaded with great expences.)

The principal Shaik in every tribe, in fact, defrays the charges of all who arrive at or leave the camp. He receives the visits of the allies, and of every person who has business with them. Adjoining to his tent is a large pavilion for the reception of all strangers and passengers. There are held frequent assemblies of the Shaiks and principal men, to determine on encampments and removals; on peace and war; on the differences with the Turkish governors and the villages; and the litigations and quarrels of individuals. To this crowd, which enters successively, he must give coffee, bread baked on the ashes, rice, and sometimes roasted kid or camel; in a word, he must keep open table; and it is the more important to him to be generous as this generosity is closely connected with matters of the greatest consequence. On the exercise of this depend his credit and his power. The famished Arab ranks the liberality which feeds him before every virtue, nor is this prejudice without foundation; for experience has proved that covetous chiefs never were men of enlarged views: hence the proverb, as just as it is brief, "A close fist, a narrow heart." To provide for these expences, the Shaik has nothing but his herds, a few spots of cultivated ground, the profits of his plunder, and the tributes he levies on the high roads, the total of which is very inconsiderable. The Shaik, with whom I resided in the country of Gaza, about the end of 1784, passed for one of the most powerful of those districts; yet it did not appear to me that his expenditure was greater than that of an opulent farmer. His personal effects, consisting in a few pelisses, carpets, arms, horses, and camels, could not be estimated at more than fifty thousand livres (a little above two thousand pounds); and it must be observed that in this calculation, four mares of the breed of racers, are valued at six thousand livres (two hundred and fifty pounds), and each camel at ten pounds sterling. We must not, therefore, when we speak of the Bedouins, affix to the words Prince and Lord, the ideas they usually convey: We should come nearer the truth by comparing them to substantial farmers, in mountainous countries, whose simplicity they resemble in their dress, as well as in their domestic life and manners. A Shaik, who has the command of five hundred horse, does not disdain to saddle and bridle his own, nor, to give him barley, and chopped

straw. In his tent, his wife makes the coffee, kneads the dough, and superintends the dressing of the victuals. His daughters and kinswomen wash the linen, and go with pitchers on their head, and veils over their faces, to draw water from the fountain. These manners agree precisely with the descriptions in Homer, and the history of Abraham, in Genesis. But it must be owned that it is difficult to form a just idea of them without having ourselves been eye-witnesses.

The simplicity, or, perhaps, more properly, the poverty, of the lower class of the Bedouins, is proportionate to that of their chiefs. All the wealth of a family consists of moveables, of which the following is a pretty exact inventory. A few male and female camels, some goats and poultry; a mare, and her bridle and saddle; a tent, a lance sixteen feet long, a crooked sabre, a rusty musket, with a flint or matchlock; a pipe, a portable mill, a pot for cooking, a leathern bucket, a small coffee roaster, a mat, some clothes, a mantle of black wool, and a few glass or silver rings, which the women wear upon their legs and arms. If none of these are wanting, their furniture is complete. But what the poor man stands most in need of, and what he takes most pleasure in, is his mare; for this animal is his principal support. With his mare the Bedouin makes his excursions against hostile tribes, or seeks plunder in the country, and on the high-ways. The mare is preferred to the horse, because she does not neigh, is more docile, and yields milk, which, on occasion, satisfies the thirst and even the hunger of her master.

Thus confined to the most absolute necessities of life, the Arabs have as little industry as their wants are few; all their arts consist in weaving their clumsy tents, and in making mats and butter. Their whole commerce extends to the exchanging camels, kids, stallions, and milk, for arms, clothing, a little rice or corn, and money, which they bury. They are totally ignorant of all science; and have not even an idea of astronomy, geometry, or medicine. They have not a single book, and nothing is so uncommon among the Shaiks, as to know how to read. All their literature consists in reciting tales and histories, in the manner of the Arabian Nights entertainments. They have a peculiar passion for such stories; and employ in them almost all their leisure, of which they have a great deal. In the evening, they seat themselves on the ground, at the threshold of their tents, or under cover, if it be cold, and there ranged in a circle round a little fire of dung, their pipes in their mouths, and their legs crossed, they sit awhile in silent meditation, till

on a sudden, one of them breaks forth with 'Once upon a time'—and continues to recite the adventures of some young Shaik and female Bedouin: He relates in what manner the youth first got a secret glimpse of his mistress; and how he became desperately enamoured of her; he minutely describes the lovely fair, boasts her black eyes, as large and soft as those of the gazelle; her languid and impassioned looks, her arched eye brows, resembling two bows of ebony; her waist straight, and supple as a lance; he forgets not her steps, light as those of the young filley, nor her eye-lashes blackened with *kohl*, nor her lips painted blue, nor her nails tinged with the golden coloured *benna*, nor her breasts, resembling two pomegranates, nor her words sweet as honey. He recounts the sufferings of the young lover, 'so waited with desire and passion, that his body no longer yields any shadow. At length, after detailing his various attempts to see his mistress, the obstacles of the parents, the invasions of the enemy, the captivity of the two lovers, &c. he terminates to the satisfaction of the audience, by restoring them, united and happy, to the paternal tent; and by receiving the tribute paid to his eloquence, in the *Ma cha Allah* he has merited. The Bedouins have likewise their love songs, which have more sentiment and nature in them than those of the Turks, and inhabitants of the towns; doubtless, because the former, whose manners are chaste, know what love is; while the latter, abandoned to debauchery, are acquainted only with enjoyment.

Among themselves they are remarkable for a good faith, a disinterestedness, a generosity which would do honour to the most civilised people. What is there more noble than that right of asylum so respected among all the tribes? A stranger, nay, even an enemy, touches the tent of the Bedouin, and, from that instant, his person becomes inviolable. It would be reckoned a disgraceful meanness, an indelible shame, to satisfy even a just vengeance at the expence of hospitality. Has the Bedouin consented to eat bread and salt with his guest, nothing in the world can induce him to betray him. The power of the Sultan himself would not be able to force a refugee from the protection of a tribe, but by its total extermination. The Bedouin, so rapacious without his camp, has no sooner set his foot within it, than he becomes liberal and generous. What little he possesses he is ever ready to divide. He has even the delicacy not to wait till it is asked: When he takes his repasts he affects to seat himself at the door of his tent, in

order to invite the passengers; his generosity is so sincere, that he does not look upon it as a merit, but merely as a duty. And he, therefore, readily takes the same liberty with others. To observe the manner in which the Arabs conduct themselves towards each other, one would imagine that they possessed all their goods in common. Nevertheless, they are no strangers to property; but it has none of that selfishness which the increase of the imaginary wants of luxury has given it among polished nations. It may be alledged, that they owe this moderation to the impossibility of greatly multiplying their enjoyments; but, if it be acknowledged, that the virtues of the bulk of mankind are only to be ascribed to the necessity of circumstances, the Arabs perhaps, are not for this less worthy our esteem. They are fortunate, at least, that this necessity should have established among them a state of things, which has appeared to the wisest legislators as the perfection of human policy: I mean a kind of equality in the partition of property, and the variety of conditions. Deprived of a multitude of enjoyments, which nature has lavished upon other countries, they are less exposed to temptations which might corrupt and debase them. It is more difficult for their Shaiks to form a faction to enslave and impoverish the body of the nation. Each individual, capable of supplying all his wants, is better able to preserve his character, and independence; and private poverty becomes at once the foundation and bulwark of liberty.

SPECIMENS of LOVE LETTERS in the Reign of EDWARD IV.

[From the second Volume of a Collection of Original Letters, written during the Reigns of Henry VI. Edward IV. and Richard III. By John Fenn, Esq; M. A. and F. R. S.]

RIGHT reverend and worshipful, and my well beloved Valentine, I recommend me unto you, full heartily desiring to hear of your welfare, which I beseech Almighty God long for to preserve unto his pleasure, and your heart's desire.

And if it please you to hear of my welfare, I am not in good heele (*health*) of body, nor of heart, nor shall be till I hear from you.

For there wottes [*knows*] no creature that pain I endure,
And for to be dead [*for my life*], I dare it not discour [*discover*].

And

And my lady my mother hath laboured the matter to my father full diligently, but she can no more get than ye know of, for the which God knoweth I am full sorry. But if that ye love me, as I trust verily that ye do, ye will not leave me therefore; for if that ye had not half the livelihood that ye have, for to do the greatest labour that any woman alive might, I would not forsake you.

And if ye command me to keep me true wherever I go,
I wis I will do all my might you to love,
and never no mo.

And if my friends say, that I do amiss.
They shall not me let so far to do,
Mine heart me bids ever more to love you.
Truly over all earthly thing,
And if they be never so wrath,
I trust it shall be better in time coming.

No more to you at this time, but the holy Trinity have you in keeping; and I beseech you that this bill be not seen of none earthly creature save only yourself, &c.

And this letter was ended at Topcroft, with full heavy heart, &c.

By your own,

MARGERY BREWS.

RIGHT worshipful and well beloved Valentine, in my most humble wife; I recomend me unto you, &c. And heartily I thank you for the letter, which that ye send me by John Beckerton, whereby I understand and know, that ye be purposed to come to Topcroft in short time; and without any errand or matter, but only to have a conclusion of the matter betwixt my father and you; I would be most glad of any creature alive, so that the matter might grow to effect. And thereas [*robereas*] ye say, and [*if*] ye come and find the matter no more towards you than ye did afore time, ye would no more put my father and my lady my mother to no cost nor business, for that cause a good while after, which causeth my heart to be full heavy; and if that ye come, and the matter take to none effect, then should I be much more sorry and full of heaviness.

And as for myself I have done, and understand in the matter that I can or may, as God knoweth; and I let you plainly understand, that my father will no more money part withal in that behalf, but an 100l. and 50 marks (33l. 6s. 8d.) which is right far from the accomplishment of your desire.

Wherefore, if that ye could be content with that good, and my poor person, I would be the merriest maiden on ground; and if ye think not yourself so satisfied, or that ye might have much more good, as I

have understood by you afore; good, true, and loving valentine, that ye take no such labour upon you, as to come more for that matter, but let (*robare*) is, pass and never more be spoken of, as I may be your true lover and beadwoman during my life.

No more unto you at this time, but Almighty Jesu preserve you both body and soul, &c.

By your valentine,

MARGERY BREWS.

Topcroft, 1476-7.

LIFE OF ARNOLD OF BRESCIA.

[From Berington's History of the Lives of Abbeillard and Heloise.]

AMONG the extraordinary characters, which illustrated, or disgraced this period, none drew after it more observation, than that of Arnold, whose name has been more than once mentioned, born at Brescia, a town in the Venetian territories. When young he quitted his native country and travelling into France, became a scholar of Peter Abbeillard. What proficiency he made in science, is not said; but his contemporaries describe him as a man endowed with no uncommon abilities; possessing a great fluency of language with little judgment; fond of novelties and of opinions the most paradoxical. After many years residence in France he returned to Italy.—Arnold was soon sensible, that celebrity was not to be obtained by ordinary means, and his dispositions were little formed to pursue the beaten paths of life. To collect a party, to give his name to a sect, or to attack the rich and powerful, were ideas before which his mind expanded. Objects could not be long wanting for the exercise of his wildest ambition. He viewed the depraved manners and the intemperate lives of the monks and clergy, and against them he would direct the severest opposition. His cause, he well knew, would be popular, and the better under the guise of sanctity, to effect his purpose, he threw over his shoulders, the austere dress of a religious man.

Thus habited Arnold opened his invective in the streets of Brescia. The people crowded round him. He told them he was sent to reform abuses, to pull down the proud, and to exalt the humble. He then posited his declamation against the bishops, against the clergy, against the monks; and finally against the Roman pontiff himself. To the laity only he was indulgent, and them even he flattered in their crimes. Churchmen, said he, who hold

benefices, bishops who have domains, and monks that have possessions, will all be damned.—His hearers shouted approbation. These things, continued he, belong to the prince, he may give them to whom he pleases, but he must give them to the laity. It is on their tithes and the voluntary contributions of the people that those sons of God must live : They must be frugal, continent, and mortified.

Thus does Guntherus of Liguria, a very elegant poet of the age, speak of Arnold and his preaching :

‘ Tandem natalibus oris
 Redditus, assumpta sapientis fronte, diserto
 Fallebat sermone rudes ; clerumque proacaci
 Infectans odio, monachorum acerrimus
 hostis.
 Plebis adulator, gaudens popularibus auris,
 Pontifices, ipsumque gravi corrodere lin-
 gua
 Audebat papam ; scelerataque dogmata
 vulgo
 Diffundens, variis implebat vocibus aures.’

The church of Brescia was soon thrown into the greatest confusion, and the people, already prejudiced against their ministers, threatened to overturn their altars. The sacred writings he had the address to urge in support of his assertions, and from them he denounced the vengeance of Heaven against the violators of the law. Indeed, nothing could be more glaringly offensive than the ostentatious parade of the bishops and great abbots, and the soft and licentious lives of the monks and clergy ; but Arnold, in his declamation, far exceeded the bounds of truth.

‘ Pontificum fastus, abbatum denique
 laxos
 Damnabat penitus mores, monachosque
 superbos.
 Veraque multa quidem, nisi tempora nostra
 fidele;
 Respuerent monitus, falsis admixta mone-
 bat.
 Et fateor, pulchram fallendi noverat ar-
 tem.
 Veris falsa probans ; quia tantum falsa lo-
 quendo
 Fallere nemo potest.’

In 1139 was celebrated a grand council at Rome. Arnold was cited to appear before it. His accusers were the bishop of Brescia, and many others, whom he had ridiculed and insulted. Nor from his judges could he look for much indulgence. He was found guilty, and sentenced to perpetual silence. Considering his crime, this surely was a gentle punishment. But Ar-

nold, whose highest ambition lay in the free use of words, viewed it, possibly, in a less partial light : He therefore instantly left Italy, crossed the Alps, and sat down at Zurich, where he dogmatized with new virulence and great success.

‘ Territus, et miseræ confusus imagine
 culpæ,
 Fugit ab urbe sua, transalpinisque receptus,
 Qua sibi vicinas Alemannia suspicit alpet,
 Nobile Turingum, doctoris nomine falso,
 Insedit, totamque brevi sub tempore ter-
 ram
 Perfidus impuri sedavit dogmatis aura.’

Though Arnold had quitted Italy, yet had his opinions taken deep root, and Rome itself was infected by them. Irritated by the conduct of their master, Innocent the Second, the Roman people assembled in the Capitol. It was proposed that the power of the pontiff, which they called exorbitant, should be restrained : This was carried : When suddenly, inspired as it were by the genius of the place, they moved that the senate, which for years had been abolished, should be restored. The proposition was received with the loudest acclamations. Innocent in vain opposed the bold design ; there was a magic in it which spread irresistibly, and for a moment seemed to rouse the fallen spirit of the nation. The pope viewed with horror the reverse of fortune which threatened the tiara ; to be shorn of his mighty power, and to become the mere shepherd of the Christian people, was a thought too afflicting : He fell sick, and died.

Under his two immediate successors, Celestin and Lucius, whose reigns were but of a few months, the Romans pursued their darling object. They waited on the latter, and, in an imperious tone, demanded the restitution of all the honours and civil rights, which had been usurped from the people. The prince of the senate, said they, whom we have chosen, will best administer the important trust : The tithes and offerings of the faithful will sufficiently answer all the exigencies of your holiness : It was thus that our ancient bishops lived.—Lucius had recourse to Conrad, the king of the Romans ; and at the same time, the malcontents sent an embassy to him, offering him their empire, and requesting that he would march to their assistance. To this invitation Conrad gave no attention ; he viewed it as an attempt, at once wild and licentious : But to the pope's deputies he shewed every mark of esteem. Lucius survived this event but a few days.

Eugenius the Third was his successor, the

the friend and disciple of the renowned Bernard. The night before his consecration the senators assembled, and it was agreed, that either he should solemnly confirm all their proceedings, or they would annul his election. This resolution was notified to him. He called together his friends; and it was their advice, that he should neither accede to the extravagant demand, nor expose himself, by a refusal, to the fury of the populace. He therefore silently withdrew from Rome, and retired to a neighbouring fortress. Here the ceremony of his consecration was performed.

Arnold who, in banishment, had contemplated the effect of his admonitions on the minds of the Romans, and the success which seemed to follow their exertions, was now informed that the pope had retired, and that the gates of the capital were open to receive him: It was likewise suggested to him, that his presence was more than ever necessary, to give energy to their resolves, form to their plans, and stability to their undertakings. Arnold took fire at the news; an unusual swell of enthusiasm filled his breast; and he fancied that, like Junius Brutus, he was called at once to give liberty to Rome.—At his appearance a new stream of vigour animated the citizens; they called him their friend and deliverer. The Brescian walked amongst them; his deportment was humble, his countenance emaciated, his address affable, and he spoke to them of moderation, of submission, of obedience.—With the nobles and new senators he held another language; though to them also he was mild and diffident, speaking much of virtue and of respect for religion and the laws.

But no sooner was he sensible of his own real influence, and saw the lengths to which the revolvers had already carried their designs, than he threw aside the mask, and appeared in his own character, daring, impetuous, self-sufficient, vain. He harangued the people; he talked of their forefathers, the ancient Romans, who, by the wisdom of their senate, and the valour of their armies, had conquered nations, and subdued the earth. He dwelt on the names and achievements of the Bruti, the Gracchi, and the Scipios; and of these men, said he, are you not the children? He advised that the Capitol be instantly repaired, that the equestrian order be restored, that the people have their tribunes, that dignity attend the senate, and that the laws, which had been silent and neglected, be revived in all their vigour. He spoke of the pope, as of a deposed and banished tyrant: 'But should

you again be disposed, continued he, to admit him within these walls, first fix your own rights, and determine his. He is but your bishop; let him therefore have his spiritual jurisdiction. The government of Rome, its civil establishments, and its territories, belong to you. These you will keep; if you have the spirit of men, and the hearts of Romans.'

*Quin etiam titulos urbis renovare vetustos
Patricios recreare viros, priscosque quirites
Nomine plebeio fecernere nomen equestre,
Jura tribunorum, sanctum reparare sena-
tum,*

*Et senio seclis, mutasque reponere leges:
Lapsa ruinosis et adhuc pendentia muris
Reddere primævo Capitolia prisca nitenti:
Suadebat populo.'*

Fired by this harangue, the people, headed by the most disaffected of the nobles, publicly attacked the few cardinals and churchmen who remained in the city; they set fire to the palaces; and they compelled the citizens to swear obedience to the new government. Moderate men, who saw the folly of the attempt, were shocked at these excesses of popular frenzy; but it was in vain to oppose the torrent. They submitted, looking forward, with some curiosity, to the termination of an event, which had begun in extravagance, and must end in disappointment.

Eugenius till now had viewed, with some concern, the wild derangement of his people; but when it seemed, that their eyes opened to their own excesses, he could be inactive no longer. He excommunicated the ringleaders of the faction, and at the head of his troops, who were chiefly composed of Tiburtini, a people always hostile to the Romans, he marched against the enemy. His friends, within the walls, who were numerous, co-operated with his designs, and in a few days, overtures for peace were made to the pontiff. He acceded to them, but on condition, that they should annul the arrangements they had made, and if they would have senators, that they should acknowledge all their power was from him. The people were satisfied, and they threw open the gates, through which Eugenius entered, among the acclamations of a fawning and inconstant multitude.—Before this event Arnold had retired; but he left behind him many friends strongly attached to his person and principles.

We hear little more of this enthusiast, for such he was, till the reign of Adrian, our countryman, when, on account of fresh tumults, he and his adherents were excommunicated, and Rome was threatened

with an interdiction, unless they expelled the whole party from their walls. This they did. The Arnoldists retired with their champion into Tuscany, where he was received as a prophet, and honoured as a saint. His enemies, however, prevailed: He was made prisoner, and conducted under a strong escort, to Rome. In vain was great interest made to save his life; he was condemned and executed, and his ashes thrown into the Tiber, lest the people should collect his remains, and venerate them as the relics of a sainted martyr.

Such was Arnold of Brescia, a man, whose character, whose principles, and whose views, we perhaps should be disposed to admire, had his life been recorded by unprejudiced historians, and not brought down to us drawn in the blackest colours, which party, bigotted zeal, and enthusiasm could lay on. He was rash, misjudging, and intemperate, or never would he have engaged in so unequal a contest.—The view of such a phenomenon in the twelfth century excites a pleasing admiration. To attack the Roman pontiff and his clergy in the very centre of their power, required more than a common share of fortitude; to adopt a settled scheme of restoring to its pristine glory the republic of Rome, demanded a stretch of thought, comprehensive and enterprising; and to forego the ease and indulgence of a dissipated age, for the reformation of manners and the suppression of what he thought usurped dominion, argued a character of mind, disinterested, generous, and benevolent. But Arnold, like other reformers, went too far; and passion soon vitiated undertakings, which were begun perhaps with motives the most laudable.—The readiness, with which the Roman people embraced this plan of lowering the jurisdiction of the pontiff, and restraining it within those bounds, which the true spirit of christianity had fixed, at once shews, that they could reason justly, and that they considered the unbounded sway of the triple crown, to which reluctantly they submitted, as an assumed prerogative, to which violence or misconstruction, and not christian right had given efficacy.

STORY OF ALBERT BANE.

[From the *Lounger*.]

WHEN I was last autumn at my friend colonel Caustic's in the country, I saw, there, on a visit to Miss Caustic, a young gentleman and his

sister, children of a neighbour of the Colonel's, with whose appearance and manner I was peculiarly pleased.—The history of their parents, said my friend, 'is somewhat particular, and I love to tell it, as I do every thing that is to the honour of our nature. Man is so poor a thing taken in the gross, that when I meet with an instance of nobleness in detail, I am fain to rest upon it long, and recall it often; and, in coming hither over our barren hills, you would look with double delight on a spot of cultivation or of beauty.'

The father of those young folks, whose looks you were struck with, was a gentleman of considerable domains and extensive influence on the northern frontier of our county. In his youth he lived, as it was then more the fashion than it is now, at the seat of his ancestors, surrounded with Gothic grandeur, and compassed with feudal followers and dependents, all of whom could trace their connection, at a period more or less remote, with the family of their chief. Every domestic in his house bore the family-name, and looked on himself as in a certain degree partaking its dignity, and sharing its fortunes. Of these, one was in a particular manner the favourite of his master. Albert Bane (the surname, you know, is generally lost in a name descriptive of the individual) had been his companion from his infancy. Of an age so much more advanced as to enable him to be a sort of tutor to his youthful lord, Albert had early taught him the rural exercises and the rural amusements, in which himself was eminently skilful; he had attended him in the course of his education at home, of his travels abroad, and was still the constant companion of his excursions, and the associate of his sports.

On one of these latter occasions, a favourite dog of Albert's, whom he had trained himself, and of whose qualities he was proud, happened to mar the sport which his master expected, who, irritated at the disappointment, and having his gun ready cocked in his hand, fired at the animal, which, however, in the hurry of his resentment, he missed. Albert, to whom Oscar was as a child, remonstrated against the rashness of the deed, in a manner rather too warm for his master, ruffled as he was with the accident, and conscious of being in the wrong, to bear. In his passion he struck his faithful attendant; who suffered the indignity in silence, and retiring, rather in grief than in anger, left his native country that very night; and when he reached the nearest town, enlisted with a recruiting party of a regiment then on foreign service. It was in the beginning of the war with France which broke

out in 1744, rendered remarkable for the rebellion which the policy of the French court excited, in which some of the first families of the Highlands were unfortunately engaged. Among those who joined the standard of Charles, was the master of Albert.

After the battle of Culloden, so fatal to that party, this gentleman, along with others who had escaped the slaughter of the field, sheltered themselves from the rage of the unsparing soldiery, among the distant recesses of their country. To him his native mountains offered an asylum, and thither he naturally fled for protection. Acquainted, in the pursuits of the chase, with every secret path and unworn track, he lived for a considerable time, like the deer of his forest, close hid all day, and only venturing down at the fall of evening, to obtain from some of his cottagers, whose fidelity he could trust, a scanty and precarious support. I have often heard him, for he is one of my oldest acquaintances, describe the scene of his hiding-place, at a later period, when he could recollect it in its sublimity, without its horror.—‘At times,’ said he, ‘when I ventured to the edge of the wood, among those inaccessible craggs which you remember a few miles from my house, I have heard in the pauses of the breeze which rolled solemn through the pines beneath me, the distant voices of the soldiers, shouting in answer to one another amidst their inhuman search. I have heard their shots re-echoed from cliff to cliff, and seen reflected from the deep still lake below, the gleam of those fires which consumed the cottages of my people. Sometimes shame and indignation well nigh overcame my fear, and I have prepared to rush down the steep, unarmed as I was, and to die at once by the swords of my enemies; but the instinctive love of life prevailed, and starting as the roe bounded by me, I have again shrunk back to the shelter I had left.’

‘One day,’ continued he, ‘the noise was nearer than usual; and at last, from the cave in which I lay, I heard the parties bellow so close upon me, that I could distinguish the words they spoke. After some time of horrible suspense, the voices grew weaker and more distant; and at last I heard them die away at the farther end of the wood. I rose and stole to the mouth of the cave; when suddenly a dog met me, and gave that short quick bark by which they indicate their prey. Amidst the terror of the circumstance, I was yet master enough of myself to discover that the dog was Oscar; and I own to you I felt his appearance like the retribution of justice and of Heaven. Stand! cried a

threatening voice, and a soldier pressed through the thicket, with his bayonet charged.—It was Albert! Shame, confusion, and remorse, stopped my utterance, and I stood motionless before him.—‘My master,’ said he, with the stifled voice of wonder and of fear, and threw himself at my feet. I had recovered my recollection.—‘You are revenged,’ said I, ‘and I am your prisoner.’—‘Revenged! alas! you judged too hardly of me; I have not had one happy day since that fatal one on which I left my master; but I have lived, I hope, to save him. The party to which I belong are passed; for I lingered behind them among those woods and rocks which I remembered so well in happier days.—There is, however, no time to be lost. In a few hours this wood will blaze, though they do not suspect that it shelters you.’ Take my dress, which may help your escape, and I will endeavour to dispose of yours. On the coast, to the westward, we have learned there is a small party of your friends, which, by following the river’s track till dusk, and then striking over the shoulder of the hill, you may join without much danger of discovery.—‘I felt the disgrace of owing so much to him I had injured, and remonstrated against exposing him to such imminent danger of its being known that he had favoured my escape, which from the temper of his commander, I knew would be instant death. Albert, in an agony of fear and distress, besought me to think only of my own safety.—‘Save us both,’ said he, ‘for if you die, I cannot live. Perhaps we may meet again; but whatever becomes of Albert, may the blessing of God be with his master!’

Albert’s prayer was heard. His master, by the exercise of talents, which, though he had always possessed, adversity only taught him to use, acquired abroad a station of equal honour and emolument; and when the proscriptions of party had ceased, returned home to his own native country, where he found Albert advanced to the rank of a lieutenant in the army, to which his valour and merit had raised him; married to a lady, by whom he had got some little fortune and the father of an only daughter, for whom nature had done much, and to whose native endowments it was the chief study and delight of her parents to add every thing that art could bestow. The gratitude of the chief was only equalled by the happiness of his follower, whose honest pride was not long after gratified, by his daughter’s becoming the wife of that master whom his generous fidelity had saved. That master, by the clemency of more indulgent and liberal times, was again restored to the domain of his ancestors.

cessors, and had the satisfaction of seeing the grandson of Albert enjoy the hereditary-birthright of his race. I accompanied Colonel Caustic on a visit to this gentleman's house, and was delighted to observe his grateful attention to his father-in-law, as well as the unassuming happiness of the good old man, conscious of the perfect reward which his former fidelity had met with. Nor did it escape my notice, that the sweet boy and girl, who had been our guests at the Colonel's, had a favourite brown and white spaniel, whom they caressed much after dinner whose name was Oscar.

METHOD OF CURING SMOKY CHIMNEYS.

[In a Letter from Dr. Ruston to Dr. Franklin.]

THE subject of smoky chimneys, of which I had the honour of conversing with you at your own house last evening, is of so much importance to every individual, as well as to every private family, that too much light cannot be thrown upon it.

'A smoky house and a scolding wife,
Are (said to be) two of the greatest ills
in life.'

And however difficult it may be to remedy one of those ills, yet any advances we may be able to make towards removing the inconveniencies arising from the other, cannot fail to be favourably received by the public. As they are shortly to be favoured with your sentiments on that subject, possibly the following observations, which were in fact occasioned by necessity, and are the result of my own experience, may not be altogether undeserving of notice.

When I left London and went to live in Devonshire, in the latter end of the year 1777, it happened to be my lot to dwell in an old mansion which had been recently modernised, and had undergone a thorough repair. But as in most of the old houses in England, the chimneys, which were perhaps originally built for the purpose of burning wood, though they had been contracted in front, since coal fires came into general use, to the modern size, yet they were still, above, out of sight, extravagant-ly large. This method of building chimneys may perhaps have answered well enough while it was the custom to sit with the doors and windows open; but when the customs and manners of the people began to be more polished and refined, when

buildings and architecture were improved, and they began to conceive the idea of making their chambers close, warm, and comfortable, these chimneys were found to smoke abominably, for want of a sufficient supply of air. This was exactly the case with the house in which I first lived, near Exeter, and I was under the necessity of trying every expedient I could think of to make it habitable.

The first thing I tried, was that method of contracting the chimneys by means of earthen pots, much in use in England, which are made on purpose, and which are put upon the tops of them; but this method by no means answered. I then thought of contracting them below, but as the method of contracting them in front to the size of a small coal-fire grate has an unsightly appearance, as it makes a disagreeable blowing like a furnace, and as it is the occasion of consuming a great deal of unnecessary fuel, the heat of which is immediately hurried up the chimney, I rejected this method, and determined to contract them above, a little out of sight. For this purpose I threw an arch across, and also drew them in at the sides. This had some effect, but as this contraction was made rather suddenly, and the smoke, by striking against the corners that were thereby occasioned, was apt to recoil, by which means some part of it was thrown out into the room; I determined to make the contraction more gradually, and therefore run it up at the back, where the depth of the chimney would admit of it, and also shelving or sloping in a conical kind of direction at the sides; as high as a man, standing upright, could conveniently reach, and by this means brought the cavity within the space of about twelve by fourteen or sixteen inches, which I found sufficiently large to admit a boy to go up and down to sweep the chimneys. This method I found to succeed perfectly well, as to curing the chimneys of smoking, and it had this good effect, of making the rooms considerably warmer; as this experiment succeeded so well, since the only use of a chimney is to convey away the smoke, I determined to carry it still farther, in order to ascertain, with precision, how much space is absolutely necessary for that purpose, because all the rest that is shut up must be so much gained in warmth. Accordingly I laid a piece of slate across the remaining aperture, removable at pleasure, so as to contract the space above two thirds, leaving about three inches by twelve remaining open; but this space, except when the fire burnt remarkably clear, was scarcely sufficient to carry away the smoke, I therefore enlarged it to half the space,

that is, to about six by seven or eight inches, which I found fully sufficient to carry away the smoke from the largest fires.

When I removed into the Bedford Circus in Exeter, though the house was modern, and almost perfectly new, yet the chimneys were large; in consequence of which almost every room of it smoked. My predecessor, who was the first inhabitant, had been at great expence in patent stoves, &c. but without effect; but by adopting the method I have just now described, I not only cured every chimney of smoking, but my house was remarked for being one of the warmest and most comfortable to live in of any in that large and opulent city.

The house I now live in in Philadelphia, I am told, has always had the character of being both cold and smoky; and I was convinced, as soon as I saw the rooms and examined the chimneys, that it deserved that character; for though the rooms were close, the chimneys were large: and we shall ever find, that if our chimneys are large, our rooms will be cold, even though they should be tolerably close and tight; because the constant rushing in of the cold air at the cracks and crevices, and also at every opening of the door, will be sufficient to chill the air, as fast as it is heated, or to force the heated air up the chimney; but by contracting the chimneys I have cured it of both these defects. There was one remarkable circumstance attending the contraction of the chimney in the front parlour, which deserves to be attended to; which was, that before I applied the cast iron plate, which I made use of instead of slate, to diminish the space requisite for a chimney-sweeper's boy to go up and down, the suction or draught of air was so great, that it was with difficulty I could shut the door of the room, in so much that I at first thought it was owing to a tightness of the hinges, which I imagined must be remedied; but upon applying the iron plate, by which the space was diminished one half, the door shut with the greatest ease. This extraordinary pressure of the air upon the door of the room, or suction of the chimney, I take to be owing in some measure to the unusual height of the house.

Upon the whole, therefore, this fact seems clearly ascertained, viz. That the size or size of the chimney ought always to be proportioned to the tightness and closeness of the room: Some air is undoubtedly necessary to be admitted into the room in order to carry up the smoke, otherwise, as you justly observed, we might as well expect smoke to arise out of an exhausted receiver; but if the flue is very large, either the room is tight, and

the smoke will not ascend, or it is pretty open, and the consequence will be, that the air of your room will be so frequently and so constantly changed, that as fast as it is heated, it will be hurried away, with the smoke, up the chimney, and of course your room will be constantly cold.

One great advantage attending this method of curing smoky chimneys is, that, in the first place, it makes no awkward or unsightly appearance, nothing being to be seen but what is usual to chimneys in common; and, in the second place, that it is attended with very little expence, a few bricks and mortar, with a plate or covering to the aperture, and a little labour, being all that is requisite. But in this new country, where crops of houses may be expected to rise almost as quick as fields of corn, when the principles upon which chimneys should be erected ought to be thoroughly understood, it is to be hoped, that not only this expence, small as it is, but that all the other inconveniencies we have been speaking of, will be avoided, by constructing the flues of the chimnies sufficiently small.

HISTORY OF NED DROWSY.

(Continued from Page 176.)

I LEFT Constantia somewhat abruptly in my last paper; and, to say the truth, rather in an awkward predicament; but as I do not like to interrupt young ladies in their blushes, I took occasion to call off the reader's attention from her, and bestowed it upon other ladies, who are not subject to the same embarrassments.

Our party soon broke up after this event: Ned and I repaired to our apartments in the Poultry, Constantia to those slumbers, which purity inspires, temperance endears and devotion blesses.

The next morning brought Ned to my levee; he had lain awake all night, but no noises were complained of; they were not in the fault of having deprived him of his repose.

He took up the morning paper, and the play-house advertisements caught his eye: He began to question me about *The Clandesine Marriage*, which was up for the night at Drury-Lane: Was it a comedy? I told him, yes, and an admirable one: Then it ended happily, he presumed: Certainly it did; a very amiable young woman was clandestinely married to a very deserving young man, and both parties at the close of the fable were reconciled to their friends and made happy in each other.

And

And is all this represented on the stage? cried Ned:—All this with many more incidents is acted on the stage, and so acted, let me assure you, as leaves the merit of the performers only to be exceeded by that of the poet:—This is fine indeed! replied he; then as sure as can be I will be there this very night, if you think they will admit a country clown like me.—There was no fear of that:—Very well, is not this the play of all plays for Constantia? Oh! that I had old furly there too; what would I give to have her grand-father at her elbow! He was so possessed with the idea, and built his castles in the air so nimbly, that I could not find in my heart to dash the vision by throwing any bars in its way, though enough occurred to me, had I been disposed to employ them.

Away posted Ned—(*quantum mutatur ab illis*) on the wings of love, to Saint Mary Axe; what rhetoric he there made use of I cannot pretend to say, but certainly he came back with a decree in his favour for Mrs. Abrahams and Constantia to accompany him to the comedy, if I would undertake to convoy the party; for honest Abrahams, (though a dear lover of the Muse, and as much attached to stage plays, as his countryman, Shylock, was averse from them) had an unlucky engagement elsewhere; and as for Mrs. Goodison, Ned had sagaciously discovered that she had some objection to the title of the comedy in her own particular, though she flared none against her daughter's being there.

After an early dinner with Abrahams, we repaired to the theatre, four in number, and whilst the second music was playing, posted ourselves with all due precaution on the third row of one of the front boxes, where places had been kept for us; Mrs. Abrahams on my left hand against the partition of the box, and Constantia on the other hand between her admirer and me.

There is something captivating in that burst of splendor, scenery, human beauty and festivity, which a royal theatre displays to every spectator on his entrance; what then must have been the stroke on his optics, who never entered one before? Ned looked about him with surprisè, and had there not been a central point of attraction, to which his eyes were necessarily impelled by laws not less irresistible than those of gravitation, there might have been no speedy stop to the eccentricity of their motions. It was not indeed one of those delightfully crowded houses, which theatrical advertisements announce so rapturously to draw succeeding audiences to the comforts of succeeding crowds, there to

enjoy the peal of the loudest plaudits and most roaring bursts of laughter, bestowed upon the tricks of a harlequin or the gibberish of a buffoon; but it was a full assembly of rational beings, convened for the enjoyment of a rational entertainment, where the ears were not in danger of being insulted by ribaldry, nor the understanding libelled by the spectacle of folly.

Ned was charmed with the comedy, and soon became deeply interested for *Lovelace* and *Fanny*, on whose distressful situation he made many natural remarks to his fair neighbour, and she on her part bestowed more attention on the scene, than was strictly reconcileable to modern high-breeding. The representative of *Lord Ogleby* put him into some alarm at first, and he whispered in my ear, that he hoped the merry old gentleman was not really so ill as he seemed to be;—for I am sure, adds he, he would be the best actor in the world, was he to recover his health, since he can make so good a stand even at death's door. I put his heart to rest by assuring him that his sickness was all a fiction, and that the same old decrepid invalid, when he had washed the wrinkles out of his face, was as gay and sprightly as the best, aye, added I, and in his real character one of the best into the bargain: I am glad of it, I am glad of it to my heart, answered Ned, I hope he will never have one half the complaints, which he counterfeits, but 'tis surprisng what some men can do.

In the interval of the second act, an aged gentleman, of a grave and senatorial appearance, in a full-dressed suit of purple ratteen and a flowing white wig, entered the box alone, and as he was looking out for a seat, it was with pleasure I observed the young idlers at the back pay respect to his age and person by making way for him, and pointing to a spare place on our bench, to which he advanced, and after some apologies, natural to a well-bred man, took his seat.

His eyes immediately paid the tribute which even age could not withhold from the beauty of Constantia; he regarded her with more than a common degree of sensibility and attention; he watched for opportunities of speaking to her every now and then at the shifting of a scene or the exit of a performer; he asked her opinion of the actors, of the comedy, and at the conclusion of the act said to her, I dare believe, young lady, you are no friend to the title of this comedy: I should be no friend to it, replied Constantia, if the author had drawn so unnatural a character as an unrelenting father. One such monster in

in an age, cried Ned, taking up the discourse, is one too many. When I overheard these words and noticed the effect, which they had upon him, combining it also with his emotion at certain times, when he examined the features of Constantia with a fixed attention, a thought arose in my mind of a romantic nature, which I kept to myself, that we might possibly be then in company with the father of Mrs. Goodison, and that Ned's prophetic wishes were actually verified. When Fanny is discovered to be a married woman at the close of the comedy, and the father in his fury cries out to her husband—*Loverwell, you shall leave my house directly, and you shall follow him Madam*—Ned could not refrain himself from exclaiming Oh, the hardened monster! but whilst these words were on his lips, *Lord Ogleby* immediately replied to the father in the very words which benevolence would have directed—And if they do, I will receive them into mine, whereupon the whole theatre gave a loud applause, and Constantia, whilst the tear of sensibility and gratitude started in her eye, taking advantage of the general noise to address herself to Ned without being overheard, remarked to him—That this was an effusion of generosity she could not scruple to applaud, since she had an example in her eye, which convinced her it was in nature.—Pardon me, replied Ned, I find nothing in the sentiment to call for any applause; every man would act as *Lord Ogleby*, does, but there is only one father living, who would play the part of that brute *Sterling*, and I wish old Goodison was here at my elbow to see the copy of his own hateful features. It was evident that the stranger, who sat next to Ned, overheard this reply, for he gave a sudden start, which shook his frame, and darting an angry glance suddenly exclaimed—Sir!—and then as suddenly recollecting himself, checked his speech and bit his lips in sudden silence. This had passed without being observed by Ned, who turning round at the word, which he conceived to be addressed to him, said in a mild tone—Did you speak to me, Sir? to which the old gentleman making no answer, the matter passed unnoticed, except by me.

As soon as the comedy was over our box began to empty itself into the lobby, when the stranger seeing the bench unoccupied behind me, left his place and planted himself at my back. I was now more than ever possessed with the idea of his being old Goodison, and wished to ascertain if possible the certainty of my guess; I therefore made a pretence to the ladies of giving them more room and slept back

to the bench on which he was sitting. After a few words in the way of apology he asked me, if he might without offence request the name of the young lady I had just quitted; with this I readily complied, and when I gave her name methought he seemed prepared to expect it. He asked me if her mother was a widow; I told him she was—Where was she at present and in what condition? She was at present in the house of a most benevolent creature, who had rescued her from the deepest distress—Might he ask the name of the person who had done that good action? I told him both his name and place of abode, described in a few words as I could the situation he had found her and Constantia in, spoke briefly but warmly, of his character, and omitted not to give him as many particulars of my friend Ned as I thought necessary; in conclusion I made myself also known to him, and explained what my small part had been in the transaction: He made his acknowledgments for these communications in very handsome terms, and then after a short pause, in which he seemed under difficulty how to proceed, he spoke to this effect.

I am aware that I shall introduce myself to you under some disadvantages, when I tell you I am the father of that young woman's mother; but if you are not a parent yourself, you cannot judge of a parent's feelings towards an undutiful child; and if you are one, I hope you have not had, nor ever will have, the experience of what I have felt: Let that pass therefore without further comment! I have now determined to see my daughter, and I hope I may avail myself of your good offices in preparing her for the interview; I wish it to take place to-morrow, and, if you foresee no objections, let our meeting be at the house of her benefactor Mr. Abrahams; for to that worthy person, as you describe him to be, I have many necessary apologies to make, and more thanks than I shall know how to repay; for the present I must beg you will say nothing about me in this place.

To all these points I gave him satisfactory assurances, and settled the hour of twelve next day for the meeting; he then drew a shagreen case out of his pocket, which he put into my hand, saying, that if I would compare that face with Constantia's I could not wonder at the agitation, which so strong a family resemblance had given him; it was a portrait of his deceased wife at Constantia's age; the first glance he had of her features had struck him to the heart; he could not keep his eyes from her; she was indeed a perfect beauty; he had never beheld any thing to

compare with her, but that counterpart of her image in my hand, he begged to leave it in my care till our meeting next day; perhaps, added he, the sight of it will give a pang of sensibility to my poor discarded child, but I think it will give her joy also, if you tender it as a pledge of my reconciliation and returning love. Here his voice shook, his eyes swam in tears, and clasping my hand eagerly between his, he conjured me to remember what I had promised, and hastened out of the house.

(To be continued.)

PROCEEDINGS of the PRIVY COUNCIL relative to the HESSIAN FLY.

(Continued from page 172.)

No. 5. CONTAINS a resolution in Council,

THAT Sir Joseph Banks be desired to communicate, in writing, his opinion upon the mode of inspection which may best answer the object of ascertaining whether the grain be free from infection or not.

And that proper persons be sent down to inspect each cargo of corn, and report, after experiments made, whether the corn be free from infection, and any other circumstances that may tend to explain the danger of the mischief being propagated in this country, by admitting the said grain.

No. 6. REPORT of Sir Joseph Banks, Baronet, proposing the mode of making experiment on the American wheat, 6th July 1788.

IT is easy to discover, by simple inspection, whether or not corn has been infected by the flying weevil; the holes in the grains, through which the moths have issued, are very evident; and, as the progress of the insect is rapid, especially in warm weather, no danger is to be feared from corn of the last harvest, unless the animal has been preserved in it by passing through various generations, the traces of which must remain.

The business however will be much abridged by throwing the corn into water: If the whole quantity sinks readily to the bottom, it may be safely judged free from insects; for in the infested corn, a large proportion of that which either does contain, or formerly has been occupied by, the worm, will swim on the top.

These grains which swim should be carefully inspected, by breaking them gently with the point of a knife, in the direction of the slit, and examining their contents.

In some will be found the husk of a chrysalis, of a light brown colour, out of which the moth has proceeded, in others, the worm, in various periods of its growth; and some will be found to be empty of every thing except the excrements the insect has left behind it.

In all the samples that have been examined here, the worm appears to have been long dead; if in any cargo living ones should be discovered, that circumstance must be scrupulously noted, and information of it instantly communicated.

A gallon of corn may be a sufficient quantity from whence to estimate the quality of a cargo; the amount of the cargo, however, and the judgment of the person deputed to make the trial, who will be acquainted with its particular circumstances, must ultimately determine the quantity proper to be submitted to each experiment.

Whatever the quantity determined upon is, it should be taken out in small measures, from parts of the cargo as distant from each other as may be, in order to obtain an average; and when corn is discovered either to have been, or still to be infected, a half pint measure, if used, will be found convenient, as by that the proportion of sound and unsound corn, which always ought to be noted and communicated, will easily be obtained.

No. 7. CONTAINS an order in Council directing the experiment to be made.

No. 8. FURTHER account of the Hessian fly, by Sir Joseph Banks, Baronet; and, a statement of the printed accounts published in America, 6th of July 1788.

IN obedience to the Marquis of Carmarthen's command, received on the 30th of May, diligent enquiry was made, both by reading and conversation, into the nature of the insect which had been found pernicious to the culture of wheat in America; and it was quickly ascertained, that such an insect had from time to time committed dreadful ravages in many parts of the United States, and had spread by degrees from the Southern to the more Northern Provinces.

As no circumstance at that time had appeared, tending to give an idea that two sorts of insects existed there, similar in their

their progressive increase, and their depredations on the wheat harvest, though differing in many particulars of their natural history, it was concluded that the Marquis's letter referred to the flying weevil, and an account of that insect was returned for an answer; by a mistake, therefore, which may be considered as fortunate, the dangerous qualities of that insect, which might otherwise still have remained unknown, were brought under the consideration of his Majesty's ministers.

It is therefore humbly requested, that the words noted underneath may be struck out of that answer (which done, it will wholly refer to the flying weevil); and that the following account of the Hessian fly may be received, which is abridged from an American publication of the present year, and such other information as could be procured from people of observation and credibility.

Dreadful experience, says Dr. Mitchell, the author of this account, has for some years taught us the destructive powers of this insect, which has often so entirely cut off our harvest, that able farmers have not provided at harvest sufficient wheat for domestic use, and sometimes have failed to reap even the amount of the seed they had sown.

It was first noticed about the year 1776, on Staten-Island, and the west end of Long-Island; since that time it has proceeded regularly through the southern district of the State of New York, and part of Connecticut, and has now got into New-Jersey.

Having appeared about the time when the Hessian troops arrived, an opinion prevailed that they had introduced it; but it is more probable that it is a native animal, nourished by some indigenous plant, but which then, for the first time, came among the wheat, and found it proper food.

It is an insect of the fly tribe, which passes through several metamorphoses.—Doctor Mitchell has seen the caterpillar, chrysalis, and fly, but never could find the egg, or discover where it is deposited.

The first appearance of the caterpillar is in autumn, soon after the wheat has risen above ground, when it voraciously devours the tender stalk of the delicate plant, and soon becomes a chrysalis, coloured

like a flax seed, which, being fixed between the leaf and the stalk; injures the plant by mechanical pressure; from this a fly proceeds, either able itself to endure the severe frost of winter, or laying eggs endowed with the power of sustaining it.

Early in the spring the caterpillar appears again, while the heat is scarce sufficient to make the wheat grow; its ravages therefore are at this period particularly destructive, and it passes through its different metamorphoses with such speed as to produce a third generation, while the wheat is still tender and juicy; however, as it has by this time grown considerably, the third generation is not so destructive as the second. It hurts chiefly by rendering the straw weak, and liable to break down, when loaded afterwards by the weight of a full ear; and sometimes, says Dr. Mitchell (though he does not explain how) it will be infested by the fourth swarm before harvest.

It attacks white and bearded wheat equally, and has damaged rye and timothy-grass; its mischief is entirely confined to the green herb, while that of the flying weevil, is in like manner limited to the grain.

No. 9. CONTAINS an account of wheat imported into England from America, since the establishment of the office of Inspector General of imports and exports.

No. 10. CONTAINS an account of wheat imported into Scotland from America, since the establishment of the office of Inspector General of imports and exports.

No. 11. CONTAINS a report of experiments made upon wheat imported from New-York.—One insect was found, and marks of several others. The insect, in the opinion of Sir Joseph Banks, was no other than the European weevil. Here, upon order was made in Council to admit the wheat to an entry.

No. 12. GENERAL Report of Sir Joseph Banks, respecting the Hessian Fly, and Flying-Weevil, 24th July 1788.

IN order the better to obey their lordships commands, it is necessary to premise a few general observations.

Both the insects on whose natures I am directed to report, and indeed the greatest number of those with which we are acquainted

* *The Hessian fly, or, as it is more generally called; and * but from Mr. Bond's letter, no doubt can remain that it is abundant in the Province of Pennsylvania, and probably throughout the whole extent of the Middle Colonies.*

quainted, pass through four distinct states, including the egg and the perfect animal.

For each of these separate states, nature has provided a peculiar protection against the kinds of danger it is most likely to encounter; and to some of them she affords a variety of precautions, on account of their being subject to a variety of exigencies.

Thus in climates where the winters are severe, the eggs of the most tender insects resist the force of the usual frost; in seasons of remarkable severity some indeed are destroyed, but enough always escape to continue the species.

The young caterpillar, if hatched before its proper food is ready, will generally survive even weeks before it perishes for want of nourishment, and in some few instances, when it is naturally hatched in the autumn, it is directed by instinct to spin a web in which it remains torpid and without food during the whole continuance of winter.

The chrysalis is endowed with a variety of powers, and consequently though deprived of loco motion, is capable of resisting various dangers, arising from heat, cold, wet, &c. and the length of time which the animal remains in this state is capable of very considerable extension.

The complete animal, tender as it appears, and intended to exist no longer than is necessary to fulfil the business of propagation, which in some species is gone through in a few days, is nevertheless capable in some instances of enduring the utmost variation of climate, and if by accidental circumstances the sexes are prevented from meeting, its short life is extended to many times the amount of its usual duration; a circumstance as curious perhaps as any that has been observed in the history of animated nature.

Having premised these general observations, I shall proceed to treat of the insects separately, beginning with the flying weevil: For an account of which, I must beg leave to refer to a letter sent by me to the most Honourable the Marquis of Carmarthen, dated June 4th 1788.

From that letter, corrected in some instances by better information procured since it was written, it appears, that the flying weevil first attacks the corn in the field, when it is nearly ripe; that it there lays its eggs on the grain, while in the ear; that these eggs, or the caterpillars they produce, are consequently carried with the corn into the rick, where they pass through all their states, and lay eggs again till stopped by the frost; that in the next spring the insects appear again; and that if the corn remains in the rick, their progress

cannot be stopped while a single grain remains undevoured.

The precautions used by the inhabitants are as follows:

If the corn is moderately affected, they stack it in a barn, leaving a space between the sides of the mow and the walls, which space they fill up with hay or chopped straw, trod down hard, in order to keep out the air, and they cover the whole in the same manner, and with the same materials; this they say checks the progress of the insect, but they do not pretend that it destroys it.

If it is much infested they leave all other work, howsoever necessary it may be, and thresh without the least delay; but the corn is not safe when in the granary, for the eggs hatch there, and the insects destroy all the grains that lie on or near the surface.

To lessen the damage then, they stow it in casks or deep bulk, that the surface may bear as small a proportion as possible to the contents; this, though it checks the growth of the caterpillars in the grains below, and prevents the hatching of some of the eggs, does not destroy them all, for if it is turned even a considerable time after it has lain, the caterpillars appear again in those grains which are by that means brought upon the surface, destroy the corn, and pass through all their metamorphoses.

Kiln-drying the corn is certainly efficacious, but as that method, besides its expence, renders it unfit for vegetation, and less proper for some domestic uses, it is very rarely practised.

Some other precautions are proposed, especially by Jefferson in his state of Virginia, but not one, either intended or executed, is hitherto asserted to be more than a palliative, attempting the destruction of the larger part, but never supposed capable of radically destroying the whole brood.

On the possibility of the animals being brought over in cargoes of wheat, which may easily be deduced from the foregoing observations, the following remarks have been made.

That nineteen years experience, for in so many years, since the fly was first observed; wheat has been imported here from the countries infested with it, is a sufficient experience to prove that it cannot be brought, or if it can, that it is incapable of being propagated here.

That the insects, in whatever state of metamorphosis they have been found in the cargoes hitherto examined, were universally dead.

That the climate here is not hot enough for their propagation, and consequent increase.

To these it may be answered, that although a certain degree of probability may be deduced from these circumstances, they do not on the whole amount to that degree of certainty, which in a matter of such material importance ought to be required; stowage in deep bulk, as is done in a Ship's hold, will destroy a great number of the insects, consequently the risk upon each cargo that has already been imported is greatly diminished, and the aggregate risk that has been run by admitting so many, a much less powerful argument than it seems to be; the dead animals will naturally be far more numerous than the living ones, and consequently more easily found, indeed it is more than possible that some of the living ones may remain unobserved in ships and warehouses, under the form of moths, in which state they may easily escape even a diligent search.

The progress the flies have hitherto made to the northward, and in the hotter climates, up the higher mountains, furnishes a powerful argument; from thence it appears that by degrees they inure themselves, in passing through successive generations, to colder and colder climates; the time therefore may not yet be arrived when they will be hardened sufficiently to endure the climate of England; but it may within a few years arrive, and in that case, boasting of security derived from experience, we may be the victims of our own credulity, in believing the experiment to have been already tried, while a physical impossibility of importing the insect in any of the cargoes already admitted has constantly existed.

Having now stated all, which from my present information I am able to do concerning the flying weevil, I shall proceed to the Hessian fly, on which subject I must beg leave to refer their lordships to a letter from Mr. Bond to the Marquis of Carmarthen, and a paper which I had the honour to deliver in, on the 8th of July last, by which it appears.

That the animal was first observed to infect the wheat of Staten and Long Islands, in places near the sea, about the year 1776.

That since that time it has extended its ravages slowly, in all inland directions, and is now in possession of the southern part of the State of New York, and parts of Connecticut and New Jersey.

That no one has been able with certainty to discover where, or in what manner it deposits its eggs.

That its eggs hatch in the beginning of spring, when the heat is scarce sufficient to make the wheat grow, and that its powers of destruction are so great, as to threaten a total abolition of the culture of wheat

in the lands of which it has got possession.

From an experiment related in Mr. Bond's letter, it appears, that he believes the eggs to be laid on the grain; from general analogy it is more probable that they are deposited on the straw, and being shaken off from thence by the strokes of the flail in threshing, are mixed with the corn, from whence it may be, and probably is, very difficult to separate them.

Hence an apparent and very considerable risk of importing the insect, with every cargo that arrives, is manifest, and from the degree of cold in which the eggs are hatched, nearly a certainty may be deduced, that if brought here and once fixed among a crop of wheat, it will establish itself in this climate.

In objection to this it is urged, that as wheat in that country will not bear to be shipped till after having been exposed to severe frost, no cargo can arrive till the month of January, and that the wheat seed-time being then over, there is no danger of its being used as seed corn.

And again, that it spreads regularly at the rate of about seven miles a year, which proves that it is extended merely by the operation of the fly, and not by the means of seed corn.

To both these the reply is evident, that as much spring wheat is grown in America, and the seed time of that grain here is not over till April, or even May, there is the utmost danger, if it is fair corn, of its being used for seed; and that if any people chose to be such rogues as to sell, none would be such fools as to buy seed corn, even suspected to be the seat of such a calamity, where every one is aware of the circumstance.

From these premises, and the general observations upon the natural history of insects, I think myself justified in forming, what I here state to be my opinion on the subject.

That as long as corn is permitted to be imported from places, in which it is infected with the flying weevil or the Hessian fly, we are in danger of one or both of those insects being brought with it alive, and propagated among our corn; and I have stated not my opinion only, but the reasons on which it is founded, in order that, if by better information than we have at present, they appear hereafter to be erroneous, it may be retracted.

I beg leave now, in a few words, to state some general observations on the subject at large.

The introduction of an insect capable of considerably diminishing the quantity of bread corn produced in a country, where the

the growth of provision, especially of that kind, meets with fewer obstacles, perhaps, than in any others, should be considered as a calamity of much more extensive and fatal consequences than the admission of the plague or the murrain; both these, after having afflicted us for a time, will cease, but the insect, once admitted, will continue an inmate of the country as long as wheat continues to be cultivated.

The ravages of the plague are confined to the extinction of a certain proportion of the human species, which may be, and generally is replaced in the next generation; and those of the murrain to the abstraction of a certain portion of food, which, however, is of a kind principally expended in the maintenance of the affluent and idle.

Those of the insects, as they diminish the actual quantity of bread-corn, extend themselves to a real diminution of population, and consequently of productive labour, from whence every resource of government must ultimately be derived.

In America, where the country is chiefly peopled with cultivators, it is of less consequence than it would be here; they can easily raise corn enough for their own subsistence, and that of the few unproductive hands among them, even though a large part of their crop is subtracted.

But in England, where increase of population and improvement of husbandry has gone hand in hand for several years, and where population has rather the start, as is proved by the importation of bread-corn, let us take a view of the consequences of the abstraction of even a small part of the produce of tillage.

Every man who tills the earth may be supposed to raise corn enough for the maintenance of ten people besides himself, and these may be supposed to consist of six manufacturers, and four of the affluent, the unproductive dependants, or the army.

If then, by the introduction of any species of calamity whatever, the mass of labour now employed was to produce one sixth part only less than it now does of food, the consequence must be, that as neither the affluent nor their dependants would eat an ounce less than usual, or consume less of the manufacture of home consumption, one sixth part of the manufacturers, all of the class who work for exportation, must cease to eat, and consequently to labour, to receive their food from abroad; in which case, instead of being the sources of that productive labour, upon the returns of which all taxes are levied, they would become brokers for the turning the corn of other nations into

manufacture, for the benefit of those who grew it; for it must be allowed, that in whatever shape manufacture is carried to market, food, and food only, is its creator, and that the whole of the honest gain it produces, must ultimately center in the country that produces the food.

From these considerations I cannot but believe myself fully justified in thinking, that in a matter of such serious consequences to the prosperity of Great Britain, a positive proof of danger is not requisite, on the contrary, a positive proof that no danger whatever exists should be exacted, and the more so, as the calamity, if incurred, would be so grievous, and the object for which the risk is hazarded is the importation of a species of merchandize, reported by the Inspector General of imports and exports, in his official capacity, as a matter of no serious importance to the permanent prosperity of the empire.

JOS. BANKS.

July 24th, 1788.

No. 13. AT the Council Chamber, Whitehall, the 5th of August 1788.

By the Lords of his Majesty's most Honourable Privy Council.

THEIR Lordships this day resumed the consideration of the reports from the principal officers of the customs at Liverpool, respecting several cargoes of wheat, the produce of the territories belonging to the United States of America, now lying at the port of Liverpool, together with the report of Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. President of the Royal Society, in relation to the said cargoes, and having been attended by Sir Joseph Banks—Their Lordships are of opinion, that it is not advisable that any of the cargoes of wheat, the produce of the countries of the United States of America, which are now arrived, or may arrive previous to the 15th of October next, and upon inspection have been found, or shall be found to have been infected with the flying weevil, should be admitted to entry; but that it may be expedient for government to purchase all the cargoes under those circumstances at a reasonable rate—And their Lordships do thereupon agree to recommend it to the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, to take such measures for that purpose as their Lordships shall judge fit.

Ordered, That copy of their Lordships resolution hereupon be transmitted to the Treasury, together with a list of the vessels now at Liverpool, whose cargoes have been reported to have been infected with the flying

flying weevil, and so much of the reports relating thereto as may be necessary for their Lordships further information.

No. 14. PORT of BRISTOL.

An account of the examination of a cargo of wheat, done in pursuance of an order of Council dated the 8th of July 1788, and the Honourable Commissioners directions, dated the 10th.

Coalition, John Atkinson, Master, from Virginia, arrived 29th July 1788.

When examined.

1788. July 31st. **T**HIS ship, being quite full, could only take the wheat from the hatchways, which was done in the following proportions; viz.

Seven half pints from the main hatchway.

Five half pints from the fore do.

Four half pints from the after do.

Which we threw into a pail of water, stirred up, and took off all that swam, which, upon inspection, appeared to be some that was not separated from the chaff, and the rest to be injured by some insect.

August 2d. Weighed what swam, when it was dried, and found that it was three ounces and three quarters.

4th. Separated the grain from the chaff, cheat, and garlick, the clean wheat weighed two ounces and three quarters; we threw it again into water, what swam was taken off, and when dried weighed one ounce.

5th. This being examined carefully with glasses, in some was found the husk of a chrysalis of a light brown colour, some perfect, others only part, in others the worm of various sizes, which appear to have been long dead, and many empty of every thing except the excrement of the insect.

JOHN POWELL, Collr.

C. HARFORD, D. Compr.

AS it is evident from the report of the officers of the port of Bristol, that the cargo of the Coalition, John Atkinson, Master, from Virginia, contains numbers of the flying weevil of that country, in a dead or torpid state, and as it is in my opinion impossible to ascertain with certainty whether some of them may not revive, on being again exposed to the air, I am of opinion that the said cargo should not on any account be admitted to an entry.

JOS. BANKS,

August 8th, 1788.

(To be continued.)

ACCOUNT of the MORAVIAN SETTLEMENT at BETHLEHEM, in NORTH AMERICA.

[From Capt. Anburey's Travels through the interior Parts of America.]

East Windsor, in Connecticut,
Sept. 2, 1781.

MY DEAR FRIEND,

DISTRESSING and humiliating as the scene was, when we commanded our men to pile up their arms and abandon them on the plain of Saratoga, still much greater was the separation of the officers from the men at Lancaster. On the morning it took place the regiments were paraded near the barracks, which are picketed in, and converted into a prison. At a small distance was drawn up a regiment of continental troops, the Colonel of which behaved extremely polite, saying, he should not march the British troops to the barracks, till their officers informed him they were ready. When the Colonel was informed he might march the men, the American troops, forming a square around the British soldiers, conducted them to the prison.

The sight was too deeply affecting, and we hastened from the spot. Could you have seen the faces of duty, respect, love, and despair, you would carry the remembrance to the grave. It was the parting of child and parent, the separation of soul and body—it effected that which the united force of inclement seasons, hunger and thirst, incessant barbarity, adverse fortune, and American insults heaped together, could never have effected—it drew tears from the eyes of veterans, who would rather have shed their blood. As far as sounds could convey, we heard a reiteration of 'God bless your honours.' It was such a scene as must leave an everlasting impression on the mind. To behold so many men, who had bravely fought by our side—who in all their sufferings looked up to us for protection, forced from us into a prison, where, experiencing every severity, perhaps famishing for want of food, and ready to perish with cold, they had no one to look up to for redress, and little to expect from the humanity of Americans.

It was extremely vexatious to be again disappointed in visiting Philadelphia, especially when in sight of it; but all intreaties to the Major who escorted us, for indulgence, were in vain. However we received some little compensation in passing through Bethlehem, at which place is a settlement of the Moravians.

The table at Bethlehem is upon an exceeding good plan, and well calculated for

the convenience and accommodation of travellers. The building, which is very extensive, is divided throughout by a passage of near thirty feet wide. On each side are convenient apartments, consisting of a sitting room, which leads into two separate bed chambers. All these rooms are well lighted, and have fire-places in them. On your arrival you are conducted to one of these apartments, and delivered the key, so that you are as free from interruption as if in your own house. Every other accommodation was equal to the first tavern in London. You may be sure our surprize was not a little, after having been accustomed to such miserable fare at other ordinaries, to see a larder displayed with plenty of fish, fowl and game. Another matter of equal surprize, as we had not met with such a thing in all our travels, was excellent wines of all sorts, which to us was a most delicious treat, not having tasted any since we left Boston; for notwithstanding the splendor and elegance of several families we visited in Virginia, wine was a stranger to their tables. For every apartment a servant is appointed to attend, whose sole business is to wait on the company belonging to it, and who is as much your servant, during your stay, as one of your own domestics. The accommodation for horses is equal, with servants to attend them. In short, in laying out the plan of this tavern, they seem solely to have studied the ease, comfort and convenience of travellers, and is built upon such an extensive scale, that it can with ease accommodate one hundred and sixty persons. General Philips was so much delighted with it, that after he quitted Virginia, not being permitted to go to New-York, on account of some military operations that were on foot in the Jerseys, he returned back near forty miles to take up his residence at it, merely on account of the accommodations.

The landlord accompanied us to the intendant, or the head of the society, who with great politeness shewed us every thing worthy of observation on the settlement.

The first place he conducted us to was the house of the single women, which is a spacious stone building, divided, similar to the tavern, into large chambers, which are, after the German mode heated with stoves. In these the young women pursue various domestic employments and some are employed in fancy and ornamental work; in all their apartments are various musical instruments. The superintendant of these young women conducted us to the apartment where they slept, which is a large vaulted room the whole dimensions of the buildings, in which were beds for every

woman. The women dine in a large hall, in which is a handsome organ, and the walls adorned with scripture pieces, painted by some of the women who formerly belonged to the society. This hall answers the purpose of a refectory and chapel: but on Sundays they attend worship at the great church, which is a neat and simple building.

The house of the single men is upon the same principle as that of the women; upon the roof of which is a Belvidere, from whence you have not only a most delightful prospect, but a distinct view of the whole settlement. We observed that the building was much defaced, which the superintendant informed us was occasioned by the Americans taking it from the young men, and converting it into an hospital for the sick and wounded, after the battle of Germantown; and, added he, 'it is incredible what numbers perished for want of proper care and attention, and the hospital being ill supplied with drugs.' Pointing to an adjoining field, he said, 'There lie buried near seven or eight hundred of the American soldiers, who died here during the winter.'

All manner of trades and manufactures are carried on in this place distinctly, and one of each branch; at these various occupations the young men are employed. Every one contributes his labour, and the profits arising from each goes to the general stock. These young men receive no wages, but are supplied with all necessaries from the various branches of trade: They have no cares about the usual concerns of life, and their whole time is spent in prayer and labour; their only relaxation being concerts which they perform every evening.

These people, who are extremely shrewd and sensible, in a manner foreseeing the ill consequences attending a civil war, had, before its commencement, laid in great quantities of European goods which they sent to their various farms interspersed around the settlement.

The Moravians are not only very assiduous, but ingenious too. They have adopted a sort of marriage, but from the manner of its celebration you cannot suppose that mutual tender endearments and happiness to subsist between the parties united as with us. A young man feels an inclination to marry, which does not proceed from any object he is enamoured with, for he never sees his wife but once before the ceremony takes place; it being contrary to the principles of their religion to suppose it is from the passions of nature, but merely to uphold the society, that it may not sink into oblivion. The young man communicates

communicates his inclination to their priest, asking of him a girl to make him a wife, who consulting with the superintendant of the young women, she produces her who is next in rotation for marriage. The priest presents her to the young man, and leaves them together for an hour, when he returns. If they both consent they are married next day. If there is any objection, both their cases are very pitiable, but especially the woman's, as she is put at the end of the list, which amounts to near sixty or seventy; nor does the poor girl stand the least chance of a husband till she arrives again at the top, unless the man feels a second inclination for marriage, for he never can obtain any other woman than the one with whom he had the first interview. This, I am induced to think, was the reason of there being such a number of old women among the single ones. Thus you see, my friend, that marriage and its inexpressible enjoyments are not the result of the passions, but a mere piece of mechanism, set to work by chance and stop alone by necessity.

When two parties meet and are united in marriage, a house is provided for them by the society, of which there are great numbers around the town; very neat habitations, with pleasant gardens. Their children of either sex, at the age of six, are taken from them and placed in the two seminaries, consequently they have little affection for them. When either of the parties die; if the woman, the man returns to the apartments of the single men, and if the man, the widow retires to a house that is built for that purpose.

The religion of the Moravians resembles more that of the Lutherans than the Calvinists; in one point it greatly differs from both, by admitting of music and pictures in their places of worship. Prayer constitutes almost a third of their employment; for exclusive of the daily public devotions in their great church, they attend service in their own chapels, morning, noon and evening.

Setting aside their ridiculous mode of entering into the marriage state, and which to them is of little moment, I could not but reflect, if content was in this life they enjoy it. Far from the bustle of a troublesome world, living in perfect liberty, each one pursuing his own ideas and inclination, and residing in the most delightful situation imaginable, which is so healthy, that they are subject to few, if any diseases.

As want is a stranger, so is vice. Their total ignorance of the refined elegancies of life, precludes any anxiety or regret that they possess not wealth to enjoy them. Nevertheless they possess what many are

entire strangers to, who are surrounded with what are termed blessings, those true and essential ones—health and tranquility of mind; and that you may ever enjoy them, though no Moravian, in a high degree of refinement, is the sincere wish of

Yours, &c

MEMOIRS of the late THOMAS SHERIDAN, Esq;

[From the Caledonian Magazine.]

THOMAS SHERIDAN was the eldest son of Dr. Thomas Sheridan, an eminent divine and schoolmaster, but more celebrated as the friend and companion of Dean Swift, by Miss Macpherson, daughter of a Scots gentleman. He was born at Quilca, a place which to future times will acquire a degree of importance, as the residence of Swift, and the birth-place of most of Mr. Sheridan's family, particularly of the author of the *School for Scandal*. The time of Mr. Sheridan's birth was in the year 1721, and he had the honour of having Dean Swift for one of his sponsors. Under his father, who was the most eminent schoolmaster of his time, he received the first rudiments of his education, and had the honour to be noticed for his proficiency in literature by his godfather. At the age of 13, in 1734, he was admitted of the foundation at Westminster school, at which seminary he continued two years, but was obliged to quit it on account of his father's circumstances. Dean Swift speaking of Dr. Sheridan says—'He had one son, whom the Doctor sent to Westminster school, although he could ill afford it. The boy was there immediately taken

^a *Biographia Dramatica*, article Sheridan.

^b See the List of Scholars admitted of Westminster School.

^c See his *List of Swift*, p. 333. Speaking of Swift, at a particular period, he says, 'his temper was peevish, fretful, morose, and prone to sudden fits of passion; and yet to me his behaviour was gentle, as it had always been from my early childhood, treating me with partial kindness and attention, as being his godson; often giving me instruction, attended with frequent presents and rewards when I did well. I loved him from my boyish days, and never stood in the least awe before him, as I do not remember ever to have had a cross look or harsh expression from him. I read to him two or three hours every day during his visit, and often received both pleasure and improvement from the observations he made.'

notice of, upon examination: Although a mere stranger, he was by pure merit elected a King's scholar.^d It is true their maintenance falls something short: The Doctor was then so poor, that he could not add fourteen pounds, to enable the boy to finish the year; which if he had done, he would have been removed to a higher class, and in another year would have been sped off (that is the phrase) to a Fellowship in Oxford or Cambridge; but the Doctor was forced to recal him to Dublin, and had friends in our University to send him there, where he hath been chosen of the foundation, and I think hath gotten an Exhibition, and designs to stand for a Fellowship.^e

It was upon his return to Ireland that the conversation passed between the Dean and Mr. Sheridan, which occasioned the latter to turn his thoughts to the study of elocution. Soon after his entrance into the College the Dean, says he, ^f asked me what they taught there? When I told him the course of reading I was put into, he asked me, Do they teach you English? No. Do they teach you how to speak? No. Then, said he, they teach you nothing.^g Having passed two years^h at Westminster, Mr. Sheridan returned to Dublin, was entered of the University there, and took his Degree of Arts. In the year 1738, he lost his father, and at that juncture it was his intention to follow his steps, and devote himself to the education of youth, which he observes he ever esteemed to be one of the most useful and honourable stations in life.ⁱ Having his father's reputation to build upon, and some very advantageous proposals made to him on that head, he had the most flattering prospect of success, and would certainly have entered upon the office immediately after taking his degree of Master of Arts but for one objection. He saw a deficiency in the early part of education, that the study of the English language was neglected, and that it could not be reduced to any rule, unless the art of speaking were revived. The revival of the long lost art of oratory became therefore the first necessary step towards his design.

At length (to use Mr. Sheridan's own words) I found that theory alone would

^d His name stands first on the list. It is worthy of notice, that the name of Dr. Markham, the present Archbishop of York, is at the head.

^e Swift's Works, vol. xviii. p. 10. 8vo. ed. 1766.

^f Oration, p. 19.

^g Ibid.

^h Ibid. Dean Swift was mistaken in saying only one year. ⁱ Ibid.

never bring me far on my way; and that continual practice must be added to furnish me with lights to conduct me to my journey's end. To obtain this there was but one way open, which was the Stage;—a way, indeed, so thorny, so dangerous, so full of precipices, that nothing but my eager pursuit of the point in view could have made me venture upon it. But to come to that precious ore, I scrupled not to dig myself in the mine. I would not here insinuate, that I think the profession of an actor in itself mean or contemptible; on the contrary, I know of few (the three great ones excepted) which might contribute more to public benefit, and which consequently should be more entitled to a proportionable share of public esteem. But the miserable state in which I found the Stage, and the meanness of the performers at that time, had brought the profession itself into such a degree of contempt as was sufficient to deter a young man of any spirit, who had gone through an entire course of liberal education, from entering into it. But, indeed, I pursued the point I had in view, with so enthusiastic a warmth, that neither danger nor difficulty, nor contempt nor ignominy itself, unmerited, could have frightened me from my purpose. That such was my motive for striking suddenly into a course seemingly so devious to all my friends, was known only to two persons. One of them, to my irreparable loss, is since dead, I mean the great and good Dr. Forester. The other, who was my tutor, (Dr. Henry Clarke) during the latter years of my residence in the College, is still alive, and can bear testimony to the truth of what I say.^k

In pursuance of the plan thus pointed out, Mr. Sheridan appeared on the Stage at Smock-alley, about the beginning of the year 1743, in the character of Richard III. and his success may be seen in a letter he wrote to Theophilus Cibber, on the 22d of March, 'I know not how it is, whether it be their partiality to their countrymen, or whether it be owing to the powerful interest of a number of friends that I have in this city, but there never was known such encouragement, such applause given to any actor, or such full houses, as since I appeared on the Stage.'^m His theatrical

^k Oration p. 20.

^l From Mr. Sheridan's own information.

^m 'So great was his influence over the Dublin audience, that Quin, who arrived in that city during the first warm glow of Mr. Sheridan's prosperity, was obliged to quit that metropolis with disgust, if not disgrace.'—Davies's Life of Garrick, p. 83.

career was, however, soon interrupted; for in the month of June he was obliged both to defend his own conduct, and repel the attacks of Cibber, who took an opportunity of involving him in a controversy, which was carried on with dignity and spirit by Sheridan, and with sippancy and pettnets by Cibber. The cause of the dispute arose from the robe in which Cato used to be performed being taken away by the Manager, and without it Mr. Sheridan refused to proceed in his part. On applying to Cibber for his advice, he was treated with impertinent negligence; and continuing his refusal, Cibber went on the stage, and offered to read the part of Cato, and perform his own character of Syphax. This offer was accepted by the audience; but Mr. Sheridan considered it as an officious and insidious interference, appealed to the Town, and was answered by Cibber; to whom a reply was printed, which was again answered by a rejoinder. In the progress of this controversy much virulence was displayed, and much abuse poured forth. Both parties lost their temper, and probably neither had reason in the end to applaud his own conduct. Cibber or a friend of his, collected all the papers published, and printed them in a pamphlet, entitled, 'The Buzkin and Seck; being Controversial Letters between Mr. Thomas Sheridan Tragedian, and Mr. Theophilus Cibber, Comedian,' 12mo. which seems to have ended the dispute.

The next year, 1744, Mr. Sheridan came to England, and appeared at Covent Garden Theatre, the 31st of March, in the

" It was during Mr. Sheridan's residence this winter in London that he published proposals, dated October 16, 1744, for printing in quavo the works of his father, which had never yet been published; containing, 1. A Translation of Puffor Fido from the Italian of the celebrated Guarini. 2d. Several Poetical Pieces on various Subjects. 3. A choice Collection of Apotegms, Bon Mots, &c. both of the Antients and Moderns. Most of these pieces were revised and approved by the Rev. Dr. Swift, who designed to have recommended them to the world had they been published whilst the author was living; but as he died at the time when he was preparing them for the press, these works for many years lay dormant in the hands of his executor, from whom they were obtained, and are now made ready for publication by his son, Thomas Sheridan, M. A. This Collection of Apotegms, &c. is mentioned by Dean Swift in his character of Dr. Sheridan, and would be surely worthy of publication if it is in being. Mr. Sheridan being asked a few years since after the fate of these manuscripts, could not recollect what was become of them.

character of Hamlet, and at the commencement of the winter season engaged at Drury-lane, where, in March 1745, he represented Siffredi, in Thompſon's Tancréd and Sigismunda, then originally performed. During this season a sort of competition or rivalry was set up between him and Mr. Garrick by officious friends: This occasioned a quarrel between them, which was unreconciled when Mr. Sheridan left London. On his return to Dublin he undertook the management of the Theatre there; and Mr. Garrick being then unemployed, he wrote a letter to him to this purpose, That he was then sole manager of the Irish stage, and should be very happy to see him in Dublin; and that he would give him all the advantages and encouragement which he could in reason expect. In short, he made an offer to divide all the profits with him, from their united representation, after deducting the incurred expences. He told him at the same time, that he must expect nothing from his friendship, for he owed him none; but all that the best actor had a right to demand, he might be very certain should be granted. Soon after the receipt of this letter Mr. Garrick arrived in Dublin, and had a meeting with Mr. Sheridan, who repeated the offer, and taking out his watch, which he laid on the table, said he would wait a certain number of minutes for his determination. The terms were agreed to, and during that season Mr. Garrick, Mr. Sheridan, Mr. Barry, and Miss Bellamy frequently acted in the same plays. It is remarkable, that with such a company, and in a parliament winter, with all their strength united, they were not able to exhibit plays oftener than two nights in a week, and could seldom insure good houses to both those nights, and that the receipt of the whole season did not exceed three thousand four hundred pounds. P

Mr. Sheridan continued in the management of the theatre, which before that time had been conducted in a very disorderly manner; and the abuses had continued so long as to be evidently a very arduous if not impracticable task to reform. He was, however, determined to attempt it; and an event soon happened which afforded him the opportunity of enforcing some new regulations. On the 19th of January 1746-7, a young gentleman inflamed with wine went into the Pit, and climbing over the spikes of the stage, very soon made his way into the Green-room, where he addressed one of the actresses in

o Davies's Life of Garrick, p. 85.

p Sheridan's Humble Appeal to the Public, p. 17.

such indecent terms aloud, as made them all fly to their dressing rooms. He pursued one of them thither, but being repulsed by the door, he made such a noise there as disturbed the business of the scenes. Miss Bellamy, whom he pursued, was then wanted on the stage, but could not come out for fear. Mr. Sheridan (who was then in the character of Æsop) went to the door, attended by the servants and a guard, and ordered them to take that gentleman away and conduct him to the Pit, from whence he came. This was done without the least bustle or obstruction on the part of the gentleman; but when he arrived in the Pit, he took a basket from one of the orange-women, and when the Manager came on the stage, he took the basket and could at him with the oranges; one of which taking place, Mr. Sheridan addressed the audience, (which happened to be but thin that night) for protection. As there were some gentlemen in the Pit who were acquainted with the rioter, they silenced him with some difficulty, but not till several abusive names had passed from him, such as scoundrel and rascal: And Mr. Sheridan was so much disconcerted as to say, 'I am as good a gentleman as you are;' and these words were the next day altered thus, 'I am as good a gentleman as any in the house.'

After the play, this young hero went out of the pit, and found his way to Mr. Sheridan's dressing room, and there to his face, before his servants, called him the same abusive names; which of course provoked him to give him some blows, which the gentleman took very patiently; and by means of another falsehood (that Sheridan's servants in the room held him while their master beat him) the club of his companions, to whom he went that night with his broken nose and other grievances, were so animated and incensed that a scoundrel player should beat a Gentleman, that a party was directly formed—a powerful fighting party—and the next day all persons were threatened openly in every coffee-house, that dared to look as if they were inclined to take the part of Sheridan.

His name being in the bills some days after to perform Horatio, several letters, cards, and messages, were sent to him, warning him not to leave his house that evening, and to take particular care to be well guarded even there. He followed that friendly advice; and when Mr. Dyer went on the stage to apologize for his not performing the part, and to acquaint the audience with his reasons, at that instant about fifty of the party, with the young hero at their head, rose in the Pit, and

climbing over the spikes in the stage, ran directly to the Green-room, from thence to all the dressing-rooms; broke open those that were locked; ran up to the wardrobe, and thrust their swords into all the chests and presses of cloaths, by way of treeling, they said, if Sheridan was concealed there. After many of these violences a party went off to his house; but finding he had provided for their reception, they thought proper to retire.

This transaction happened on a Thursday night, and from that time for several nights the theatre was shut up; but during the interval the friends of each side employed themselves in defending, and attacking each other from the press. The spirit of the most respectable people was by this time roused to oppose the licentiousness of the rioters. The chief inhabitants began at this juncture to assemble, and resolved to encourage and protect the Manager. Several citizens, who were seldom seen in the theatre, were so sensible of the importance of a well regulated stage, that they declared to Mr. Sheridan and his friends, that they would now more than ever appear there, and doubted not being able to protect the Manager, and the actors in general, in the discharge of their duty.

With assurances of this kind, and a consciousness of his being in the right, Mr. Sheridan consented to the performance of Richard. The house filled earlier than usual. The play opened with great quietness, but at the latter end of the first act, when Richard appeared, a confused noise was heard from different parts, but chiefly from the Boxes, of 'Submission, a submission, submission—off—off—off.' Mr. Sheridan advanced with respectful bows, but was prevented speaking by louder and more distinct sounds of 'No submission, no submission; go on with the play.'

It was in this conjuncture that the celebrated Dr. Lucas rose up in the Pit, and asserted the rights of the audience, and the freedom of the stage. He expressed his astonishment and detestation of men's bringing their private quarrels with Managers or Players into the theatre, and such he apprehended the present case to be; but since the dispute was introduced, it must, like other disputes there, be determined by the majority. He presumed every sober person in the house came to receive the entertainment promised in the bills, for which he paid his money at the door. The actors then he observed, were the servants of the audience, and under their protection during that performance; and he looked upon every insult or interruption given to them in the discharge of their duty

ty as offered to the audience. He apprehended the matter in dispute was no breach of the duty of the manager or actors cognizable by any person present; but whether it was so, or thought otherwise by the house the question might be easily determined. He therefore moved, that those who were for preserving the decency and freedom of the stage, should distinguish themselves by the holding up of hands; judging that when they should come to know their numbers and superiority, they would silence or turn out their opponents.

He was heard with great respect, and saluted with shouts of applause; but on the division the numbers were so great against the rioters, and withal appeared so animated for action, that the majority suddenly went off, and left the performance of that night in quiet.

Nothing was yet done decisively, but each party was by this time more exasperated against each other. At length matters came to a crisis. There was an annual play appointed before the riot began, the Fair Penitent, for the benefit of the Hospital for Incurables; and the Governors, who were all persons of consequence, demanded the performance of their benefit play; and sent the Manager west (who was to perform the part of Horatio) that they would take upon them to defend him that night; resting assured no set of men would oppose a charity play, especially as all the ladies of quality exerted their interest, and were to honour it with their presence. The bills were accordingly posted up, and the Governors went early to the theatre with their white wands: the boxes and pit would have been filled with ladies, if about thirty gentlemen had not taken early possession of the middle of two or three benches near the spikes of the orchestra. There were above an hundred ladies seated on the stage, and when the curtain drew up, nothing could equal the brilliant appearance of the house. At the entrance of Mr. Sheridan (who had the honour of being ushered in by the Governors) those thirty men, all armed, rose up in the Pit, and ordered him off; and they were joined by some few placed in both galleries. Mr. Sheridan withdrew, and then violent disputes and threatenings began between the Governors on the stage and the gentlemen in the Pit, and something very like challenges passed between several of them, as all the persons of both sides were publicly known. Among the Governors was a student of the college in his bachelor's gown, who behaved with some warmth against those who opposed the play, and a gentleman (near the spikes) in the Pit threw an apple at him, called him

scoundrel, and (as he declared) said they were all a pack of scoundrels. This exasperated the College, and the members of it were very eager to take their revenge, which in the end they obtained the next day. The play however, was not represented, and riot and confusion reigned during the whole of the night.

The Lords Justices now thought proper to order the Master of the Revels to shut up the Theatre by his authority, which was accordingly done. The young gentleman who began the disturbance was taken up for assaulting Mr. Sheridan, and for the mischief done at the theatre in his dressing-rooms and wardrobe; and the Manager was indicted for assaulting and beating the gentleman in the dressing-room. When the time of trial drew near, the Lord Chief Justice Marlay sent for the High Sheriff, and directed him to make out and bring a list of sufficient and able jurors to his Lordships. This was done to prevent any unfair practices being used.

On the day appointed for the trials, that of Mr. Sheridan came on first; when it appearing that the gentleman gave the Manager such provoking and abusive language in his dressing-room, as compelled him to beat him out of it, and that no other person touched him, the jury acquitted the prisoner without going out of the box.

The former prosecutor, now become the culprit, then appeared at the bar, and the facts charged on him were proved by many witnesses. In the course of the trial Mr. Sheridan was called, and during the course of his examination, one of the counsel on the part of the prisoner got up and said, 'He wanted to see a curiosity. I have often seen (continued he) a gentleman soldier, and a gentleman tailor; but I have never seen a gentleman player.'—Mr. Sheridan bowed, and said, 'Sir, I hope you see one now.'

The result of the trial was, that the gentleman was found guilty, and the sentence passed upon him was a fine of 500*l.* and three months imprisonment. After he had remained in confinement a week, he applied to Mr. Sheridan for his interference in his behalf, who instantly solicited the Government to relinquish the fine, which was granted him. He then became solicitor, and bailed himself to the Court of King's Bench for his enlargement, and succeeded in his application.

Thus Mr. Sheridan emancipated the stage from the abject and ignominious state in which it existed previous to his connection with it; and from this time regularity, order, and decency were introduced. Among other circumstances which
this

this event gave rise to, it was the means of his becoming acquainted with the lady whom he shortly after married. This was Miss Chamberlaine, who was born in Ireland in the year 1724, but descended from a good English family, which had removed thither. She was the grand-daughter of Sir Oliver Chamberlaine, and during the controversy occasioned by the riots, wrote a small pamphlet in defence of the Manager. So well-timed a work exciting the attention of Mr. Sheridan, he procured himself to be introduced to his fair patroness, to whom he was soon after married. She was a person of the most amiable character in every relation of life, with the most engaging manners. With her he lived in great domestic harmony above twenty years.

In the management of the theatre, Mr. Sheridan now passed several years with no more variety than usually attends the direction of so complicated a machine; with some broils with performers, and some complaints but more approbation from the public. Over his performers he soon obtained a complete ascendancy, from the firmness of his conduct as well as the impartiality of it. His success was various; in some seasons the theatre produced a considerable profit, in others his gains were but small. In this manner, however, he continued with the prospect of a firm establishment for life, and the means of competency, if not affluence, when another storm made shipwreck of his fortune, and drove him entirely from his post, to take refuge in England.

(To be continued.)

A N E C D O T E S.

Late King of Prussia.

OLD Frederick had a great opinion of the utility of experience.—A very young graduate presented a petition, requesting his Majesty would appoint him a supreme general. The King wrote under his petition—'Turn to your bible, and in the tenth chapter and fifth verse of the second book of Samuel, you will find it thus written: "Tarry at Jericho until your beard is grown, and then come again."

CROMINGSBURG Castle, where the unfortunate Matilda, Queen of Denmark, was long confined, is now the chief residence of the Queen Dowager, who, since the Prince has taken the executive part of the Government, is never permitted to appear at Court but on public days.

The Queen Dowager, it is said, complained of this confinement to the Prince, who observed to her, 'that the time had been when she herself had deemed it a fit residence for a Queen and my mother.'

WHEN George the Second proposed giving the command of the expedition against Quebec to General Wolfe, great objections were raised; and the Duke of Newcastle, in particular, begged his Majesty to consider, that the man was actually mad.—'If he is mad, so much the better,' replied the King; 'and if he is mad, I hope to God he'll bite some of my Generals.'

THE present King of France possesses a very benevolent turn of mind; and this was witnessed on many occasions in his late journey to Cherbourg. But the following anecdote of him would do honour to any monarch upon earth.

During the last winter, some wretched peasants dying with cold and hunger, had stolen the stakes placed round the glaciers. The King, on being apprized of this, apologized for them by remarking, that they must have suffered severely in consequence of the frost. The reply was, that wood had been distributed in each village. But his Majesty here apprehended that the quantity had not been sufficient. Shortly after he was applied to for money to procure articles for the sustenance of the royal game. 'How much will they cost?'—'Twelve thousand livres (see l. sterling), should the frost continue longer.'—'Well,' said the Monarch, 'I had rather see my game perish than my poor suffer: Take the twelve thousand livres, but carry them to the Philanthropic Society.'

M. Neckar executed this commission on the following day.

THE following anecdote, which reflects much honour on the late King, we have from a correspondent, who assures us he had it from a nobleman who was present.—In the presence of the late Marquis of Rockingham, the late Duke of Richmond, and some other noblemen, with whom his Majesty sometimes conversed with great familiarity; the subject of the legality of putting to death Charles the First was started; a subject of discussion, without doubt, very delicate for a royal ear. The greatest part of the company condemned it in the strongest terms. After hearing their reasoning some time, His Majesty said, 'Gentlemen, I do not know what you may think of this matter, but I do think that he was put to death by all de little law dat he had left dem!'

STATE PAPERS and POLITICS.

TESTIMONIALS IN FAVOUR OF Mr.
HASTINGS.

[The following testimonials, besides the effect which they must produce on every humane mind, cannot fail to amuse from their singularity.]

Copy Translation of Persian Address from Benares.

Translation of an Address marked A. under the Seals as under-written.

ALL we, residing, born, or on a visit at Benares, whether of the Hindoo religion, or Followers of Mahomet, have heard that the gentlemen in England are displeas'd with Mr. Hastings, on suspicion that he oppress'd us inhabitants of this place, took our money by deceit and force, and ruin'd the country; therefore we, upon the strength of our religion and religious tenets, which we hold as a duty upon us, and in order to act conformable to the decrees of God in delivering evidence, relate the praise-worthy actions, full of prudence and rectitude, friendship and politeness, of Mr. Hastings, possess'd of great abilities and understanding; and by representing facts, remove the doubts that have possess'd the minds of the gentlemen in England, that Mr. Hastings distributed protection and security to religion, and kindness and peace to us all.—He is free from the charge of embezzlement and fraud, and his heart is void of covetousness and avidity; during the period of his government no one experienced from him other than protection and justice, never having felt hardships from him, nor did the poor ever know the weight of an oppressive hand from him. Our characters and reputations have been always guarded in quiet from attack by the vigilance of his prudence and foresight, and preserv'd by the terror of his justice. He never omitted the smallest instance of kindness and goodness towards us and those entitl'd to it, but always applied by soothing and mildness, the salve of comfort to the wounds of affliction, not allowing a single person to be overpowered by despair. He display'd his friendship and kindness to all. He destroy'd the powers of enemies and wicked men by the strength of his terror: He tied the hands of tyrants and oppressors by his justice, and by his conduct he secur'd happiness and joy to us. He re-establish'd the foundation of justice; and we at all times during his government liv'd in comfort and pass'd our days in

peace. We are many of us satisfi'd and pleas'd with him: As Mr. Hastings was perfectly well acquainted with the manners and customs of these countries, he was always desirous of performing that which would tend to the preservation of our religion and of the duties of our sects, and guard the religious customs of each from the effects of misfortunes and accidents. In every sense he treated us with attention and respect. We have represent'd without deceit what we have ourselves seen, and the facts that happen'd from him.

The seals affix'd to this Address.

Seals of Caazes,	—	—	6
Of Multis,	—	—	7
Of learned men,	—	—	12
Of men of family, and holding offices,	—	—	45
Of the Rajah and his family,	—	—	19
Seals of Mahomedan inhabitants and residents in Benares,	—	—	67
Of respectable Hindoo inhabitants,	—	—	35
Of those who enjoy pensions and allowances,	—	—	89
Total seals,			273

Translation of a paper marked B.

The Persian translation of a paper, written by the Mahratta Nagur, and every other set of Pundits and Bramins, under their signatures, in the Sanscrit language and Deonagur characters. We, who are inhabitants and residents in the country and city of Benares, declare, That we are pleas'd and satisfi'd with the conduct and kindness of Mr. Hastings;—1st, For his exertions for the prosperity of Caashy (Benares), the residence of Bisheshjee, and the principal place of worship of all the Hindoos of Hindostan.—2dly, For the ease and credit we experienced during his government.—3dly, Because formerly there were great oppressions committed by Gunga Puthan (Bramins who officiate in the duties of religion) on the pilgrims; on which account few pilgrims came: These he remov'd, and consequently the number of pilgrims is now encreas'd from all parts of Hindostan: This treatment was never before experienced.—4thly, He appointed the Nawaub Ally Ibrahim Cawn for the protection and administration of justice in this city, because this magistrate possess'd abilities, is just and disinterested. He insert'd in the regulations deliver'd to him, that the decision of disputes between Hindoos or Mahomedans must be made according to their respective religious tenets.

nets. If Mahomedans, according to the rites of Islam: And nominated learned men to expound the laws of the Koran. If Hindoos, agreeable to the Shaster: and appointed Pundits to lay down the rules of it. And he also provided in the regulations for the peace and quiet of us. The magistrate exerts himself for our peace, and has stopt all taxes, bribery, or other expence, during his administration; and we enjoy, during his administration, more quiet than during those of Rajah Bulwant Sing and Rajah Cheyte Sing.—5thly, That during the time he resided in Benares, Mr. Hastings treated us all, on a visit to him, with kindness and respect, according to the rank of each; and pleased every one with his best ability, and at all times was anxious for our happiness.—6thly, For erecting, at his own expence, a Nabut Khana (a place for a kind of drum) at the door of the temple of Bilhesbur, which is the place of worship of all Hindoostan.—7thly, That at no time did he omit any particular tending to the protection of the inhabitants of this city; with respect to us, that he never was interested, nor ever was desirous of detriment or injury towards us. We have represented, with sincerity and truth, what pleasing and proper conduct Mr. Hastings observed towards us. The fame of the King and company is spread through Hindoostan; and we, who have experienced comfort and ease, offer up our prayers for the prosperity of his Majesty, and the success of the Company.

Written in the month of
Cartic Suddoe 6th, 1844,
Friday, by the inhabi-
tants of Benares (Caashy)
October 1787.

Total seals to this Address 172

c.

Translation of the paper marked C.

The Persian translation of a paper written by the Bengal Pundits, in the Shawscrit language, under their signatures.—Representation from the inhabitants of the city of Benares, and pilgrims of the country, to the King of England and Company. We are satisfied with the conduct and friendship of Mr. Hastings; during his residence in this country, he always interested himself in our welfare, and in the protection of our reputation and credit. As from the effects of Mr. Hastings's kindness, we reside in the city of Benares with comfort and ease, and the promoters of disturbances are severely punished;

many people come from all quarters to reside here in consequence of knowing of this happiness. He has appointed the Nawaub Ally Ibrahim Cawn, from a conviction of his understanding, prudence, fear of God, and disinterestedness, to protect the good and to punish the bad men; and to adjust the causes between Mahomedans, according to the Koran; and between Hindoos, according to the Shaster: And Ally Ibrahim Cawn possessed those virtues, and acts conformable to their precepts; and in consequence thereof, our protection and safety is greater than during the government of former Rajahs. When Mr. Hastings came to Benares, every person who went to see him were received with attention and respect, according to their rank. And in order to please God (Bishwither), and to secure eternal protection, he established the Nubot, at his own great expence, on the door of the temple of Bishwither. During the time of his residence in these provinces, he cherished us as his children. He did not in the least instance occasion any injury towards us. On these accounts we have always lived in peace; and the King of England, who is our protector and the guardian of the poor, and the Company, have gained great fame, and we pray for their prosperity. This is the representation of the inhabitants of Benares.

Total signatures to this Address, 113.

d.

Translation of the paper marked D.

The Persian translation of a paper written by the Nopatty bankers, merchants, and others, under their signatures, in the Hindoo language, and Guzzeratty characters.

We are merchants, bankers, and residents in Benares; and represent, with faith and truth, that Mr. Hastings never plundered any man's property, never injured any one's character or reputation, never received any bribe, never possessed any man's territory or property by deceit, nor ever ruined the country; but, on the contrary, laboured at the prosperity and satisfaction of all mankind, pleased every one by his kindness and affability, appointed a man of respectable character for the protection of the city, and to administer justice in it, gave his assistance for the promulgation of the tenets of the Mahomedan and Hindoo religions, and held a conduct pleasing and satisfactory. As Mr. Hastings was possessed of abilities, and acquainted with the customs of Hindoostan to a great degree; he pleased every sect with

with his superior manners; he was in the highest sense desirous of justice, and protection of the Ryotts; we were very much pleased and happy at his conduct. We have represented what we knew.

The signatures of the Noputty bankers and merchants, &c. 405

E.

Copy letter from the resident at the Durbar; and of translation of Persian papers which accompanied it.

To Edward Hay, Esquire, Secretary to the Government.

Sir,

His Highness the Nabob Mobarek ul Dowla has sent me the accompanying papers, relating, as he informs me, to Mr. Hastings, desiring I will immediately forward them to the right honourable the Governor General.

I have numbered them 1 and 2; and am,

Sir,

Your most obedient,
humble servant,

(Signed) PETER SPEKE.
Resident Durbar.

Moradbaug,
14th Feb. 1788.

A true copy)

E. Hay,
Secy. to the Govt.

Papers received 16th February 1788, and translated, pursuant to an order from the Governor General in Council, dated 27th of April 1788, marked F.

It is written for the information and knowledge of the gentlemen in power under the King and Company of England, that we have at this time learnt by the news from Europe, that a few persons, not being fully acquainted with the real state and customs of this country; have represented matters with respect to Mr. Hastings contrary to truth and fact, have thrown the minds of the Ministers and people of England into a state of doubt; and have injured Mr. Hastings and aspersed his character. As Mr. Hastings, from the time of his arrival until his departure, administered the affairs of this country with great propriety and splendour, always sought the prosperity and welfare of the family of Nawaub Meer Mahomed Jaffer Khan, deceased; according to the purport of the treaties and engagements; laboured for the satisfaction for the preservation of the character and honour of every one, according to his rank and station; and avoided every circumstance which could occasion us distress or indignity; we

were and are pleased and satisfied with him. It is therefore incumbent on us to write, without diminution, and according to the truth, what we have seen and heard of the particulars of Mr. Hastings's conduct.

1st. The whole period of Mr. Hastings's residence in this country exhibited his good conduct towards the inhabitants. No oppressions nor tyranny was admitted over any one. He observed the rules of respect and attention to ancient families. He did not omit the performance of the duties of politeness and civility towards all men of rank and station, when an interview took place with them.

2dly. In affairs concerning the governments and revenues, he was not covetous of other men's money and property; he was not open to bribery. He restricted the farmers and officers in their oppressions, in a manner that prevented them from exercising that tyranny which motives of self-interest and private gain might instigate them to observe towards the Ryotts and helpless.

3dly. During his administration, no war or commotion arose in this country; no man's property was plundered, but every one of every rank lived in perfect ease and security.

4thly. When, from the great want of rain, there were appearances of a famine, and it was on the eve of happening, when thousands would have perished, he laboured with every exertion to prevent it; he brought grain from the inland districts; and, in order to relieve the people, he abolished the duties on grain. He severely threatened the dealers in grain, that no hardships might be felt by any one.

5thly. He established the civil and criminal (Dewanny and Fouzedarry) courts upon proper rules, so that the lives and properties of men were protected from the evil acts of thieves and murderers. He regulated punishments according to the rules of the Koran, and ordained that each sect should be tried according to its respective laws laid down in the Shaster and Koran.

6thly. He used great exertions to cultivate the country, to increase the agriculture and revenues. He transacted the business of the country and revenues without deceit, and with perfect prosperity and rectitude.

7thly. He respected the learned and wise men; and in order for the propagation of learning, he built a college, and endowed it with a provision for the maintenance of the students, insomuch that thousands, reaping the benefits thereof, offer up their prayers for the prosperity of the King of England, and for the success of the Company.

Shly. He was not haughty in temper, nor was he fond of state and luxury; he did not seek his own ease, but at all times laboured for the prosperity of the country, and the security of its inhabitants.

gthly. so great was the strength, and power and grandeur, and fame, and magnanimity of the government of his Majesty, of the Company, and the English nation, throughout all Hindostan, during his administration, that no one could establish the standard of rebellion. In short, he was incomparable for his disposition and virtues; and, from the length of his residence in this country, he was fully acquainted with the manners and customs of it, and transacted all affairs accordingly, and with credit and propriety.

Dated 29th Zeffar 1202,
or 10th of December 1787.

The seals upon this address,

Nawaub Motimin Mouk Mobrack ul Dowla Siep Mobrack Ally Khan Behadre Ferouze Jung, Nazim of Soubahs Behar and Orisa.

Nawaub Munny, Begum of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier Khan, deceased, and mother of Nawaub Nuzim ul Dowla, deceased.

Jurmab Rubboo Begum Soheba, widow of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier, deceased, mother of Nawaub Motimin ul Mouk Behadre Ferouze Jung.

Kyrum Nessa Begum, sister of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier Khan, deceased.

Nuffissaun Nessa Begum, sister of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier Khan, deceased.

Nawaub Meer Murtiza Khan, Bahadre Afud Jung, son of Sadue Ally Khan, deceased, and grandson of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier Khan, deceased.

Fetteh Ally Khan, son of Nawaub Sadue Ally Khan, deceased, and grandson of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier Khan, deceased.

Sultaun Mirza Daoud, son of Shah Selegah, late King of Iran, and son in-law to Nawaub Sadue Ally Khan, deceased.

Nawaub Istakhar ul Mouk Afadud Dowla Seid Khullez ulia Khan Behadre Ghuzenfer Jung, son of Sultaun Mirzah Daoud, and son in-law to Nawaub Motimin ul Mouk Behadre Feroze Jung.

Nawaub Imtiazul Dowla Sied Ahmed Ally Khan Behadre Gaub Jung, son of Nawaub Ihtaramul Dowla Behadre, who is brother of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier Khan, deceased.

Sied Baker Ally Khan husband of the sister of Nawaub Meer Mahommed Jaffier Khan, deceased.

Juggut Seet Hurk Chund.

Seet Ohy Chund, uncle to Juggut Seet Hurk Chund.

Sied Mahommed Hossier Khan, eldest brother of Nawaub Khan Khanna Behadre Mouzuffer Jung.

(A true translation)

(Signed) G. F. CHERRY.

Dep. Perf. Transf.

(A true copy.)

E. Hay,

Secy to the Govt

THIRD LETTER from Major Scott to
the Right Hon. CHARLES JAMES FOX.

Bromley, July 12, 1789.

S I R,

SOME words which appeared to be particularly directed to me, by Mr. Anstruther, on Wednesday last, compelled me, however unwillingly, to address you a third time on the story of Deby Sing. Having once had the honour to act with Mr. Anstruther, I entertain a high opinion of his talents and his industry; but upon this important subject I am not afraid to meet him, or the united abilities of his colleagues.

He has said, that he meant to go into the history of Deby Sing, with a prodigious variety of other revenue matter, and to bring the criminality of that man in a certain degree home to Mr. Hastings, notwithstanding the levity with which it has been treated out of doors. I have taken that story up in the House of Commons, and out of doors, not with levity, I am sure, but with the utmost gravity; because in my conscience, I believe it to be, without exception, the most scandalous and wicked misrepresentation that ever was uttered in a public assembly in any country upon earth; disgraceful to the man who uttered it; disgraceful to the House in whose name, and under whose authority it was related, and highly dishonourable to the British nation, which was rendered odious and contemptible in the eyes of all Europe, by such a dreadful account of the state of her Indian Government. Nothing that we have read of the cruelties practised by Cortez and Pizarro in America can exceed the horrid relations of Mr. Burke.

I am, therefore, in defence of my former assertions, to take care that the true point, the ground upon which I take up the business, is not lost to the recollection of the public. I have affirmed, that Mr. Burke, in detailing the story of Deby Sing, was guilty of cool, premeditated, and intentional

tional misrepresentation, that sufficient evidence was in his possession, (which, having reasoned upon, he must have read) to prove; that it every horrible fact charged against Deby Sing had been true, neither Mr. Hastings, nor any other Englishman, could have been implicated in the guilt; that if truth had been the object of Mr. Burke, by previous enquiry, he might have discovered whether the charges preferred against Deby Sing were true or false; that it was his duty at all events, to have made such enquiry, and more especially, because he had solemnly declared in Westminster Hall, that he would not make a single assertion which he was not prepared to prove by evidence; that it is now established by proof, that the most dreadful of the cruelties detailed by Mr. Burke, never were committed at all, or to use Mr. Shore's expression appear to have had no existence whatever.

These, Sir, are my assertions stated to the whole world, not with indecent levity, but with gravity, and in language as guarded and temperate as I could use; taking care at the same time, that it should convey my full meaning. Nothing that Mr. Anstruther can say, no evidence that he can bring, will, in the slightest degree, alter a tittle of my statement; and I am concerned, that by an allusion to what has passed elsewhere, that gentleman has reduced me to the necessity of again intruding upon you. Mr. Anstruther, I am confident, would not have told the tales which Mr. Burke related, while it remained within possibility that they were unfounded. Is it a slight matter to circulate through every village in every country in Europe, a scandalous falsehood, which deeply affects the national character? In every public street in London you may see a print of the High Court in Westminster Hall, in which the great orator appears detailing those detestable stories, that I have too much respect for decency to mention—next Mr. Fox and the Managers, with grief and horror upon their countenances—a peevish fainting (which by the by, was not the fact) and the whole Court, Commons, Spectators, and Judges, are faithfully represented, with such an expression in the appearance of each, as the situation of such horrible cruelties would naturally produce. Such was the general feeling; that early in the last year, before it was in the contemplation of any man living, that in these enlightened days the precedent should be established, of continuing a criminal trial, not only beyond one, but even beyond a second year, two of the first characters in this country, after quoting in the House of Lords these ex-

pressive words of Mr. Burke, 'that he would not make an assertion which he could not prove by evidence,' affirmed, that the articles before the Court sunk to utter insignificance, when compared with the matter stated by Mr. Burke in his opening, and that he would be a calumniator if he did not bring it forward in such a manner, as would enable Mr. Hastings to meet it. The session passed over, but not one word was said upon this business; a second year's proceedings (oh! strange to tell!) are closed and precisely at the moment that it was known we were on the point of finishing for the session, a manager in describing such a range as was certainly enough to alarm their Lordships, says, he shall go into the history of Deby Sing,—not as a substantive charge, but as a sort of episode, like the ridiculous nonsense of Munny Begums' gin shop. The story of Deby Sing, as it was applied to Mr. Hastings, is calumny of the grossest kind. I remember reading in Bengal some years ago, an account of a murder committed in Gloucestershire with every circumstance of savage cruelty. Had the judges who condemned the perpetrator of that murder to death, been afterwards impeached and had Mr. Burke been a manager of the impeachment he might have attempted to fix the crime of murder upon the judge with the same degree of common sense that he has attempted to fix criminality upon Mr. Hastings for any one act of Deby Sing. I mention this now, because if the same disgraceful contest with all the law of the land is to be continued, we may not hope to arrive at this story of Deby Sing, in less than twenty years. This is no idle assertion, but the truth of it may be inferred from the following fair account of what has hitherto been done. The House of Commons, in the exercise of one of its most important and valuable privileges, resolved that there was ground to impeach a man of high crimes and misdemeanors, who had held one of the most important offices Great Britain could bestow during thirteen of the most calamitous years she ever knew. The first circumstance which marked the proceeding as different from all others was this: The Committee appointed to draw up the articles consisted of gentlemen, who with one exception had invariably held language relative to India, directly opposite to that of a majority of the House. The articles were drawn up and they were voted upon confidence most undoubtedly, without a comment or an observation, except from one insignificant Member. The Minister and the whole Board of Control had voted originally against the revenue

charge, which you have declared to be the most important of the whole, but upon the report they chose to let it pass without remark. Thirteen of the twenty were actually passed without being read or even seen. The fact is, that after they were voted, when the question was, 'Whether Mr. Burke should carry them to the Lords,' the articles arrived wet from the press. This extraordinary fact I stated at the time in my place (as Mr. Sheridan says) and I have often mentioned it since as a fact of public notoriety, though you thought proper to select it, when it was related by a clergyman in a pamphlet, as a proper subject for a public prosecution. Thus were the articles sent to the Lords three sessions ago, and the defendant taken into custody. At the same time the Minister of India opened his first India Budget in this House of Commons. He called it a proud day for England; he affirmed with great truth that the British provinces were in a better condition, and the inhabitants infinitely more happy than those of any other country in Hindostan. It is not possible to reconcile this assertion with the revenue article the House voted, it is justice to Mr. Dundas to say, that all the King's Ministers voted originally against that article. Much had been said in all the debates that led to the impeachment of the fraud, perfidy, deceit, oppression, injustice, and robbery, by which an immense revenue had in a series of years been acquired in the East India Company. Mr. Dundas took credit for the whole, called it a proud day for England, and affirmed that our government was the best in India.

In the next year the trial began. Four days were spent by Mr. Burke in his general opening; which was in fact (including the two episodes, Deby Sing, and the three seals) a direct, unequivocal abuse of the whole of the Company's system, both at home and abroad. Provinces laid waste, establishments overturned, ancient families ruined, the nobility and gentry of a whole kingdom put up to sale—depopulation, depopulation and destruction marking our progress to Empire in India. These were in fact the topics upon which Mr. Burke and yourself had dwelt some years before, when the supposed miseries of India were displayed, to justify your celebrated bill. Then followed your speech, and Mr. Grey's, and in both the same miserable descriptions were continued. Mr. Anstruther, Mr. Adam, and Mr. Pelham, were, if not so eloquent, at least as gloomy in their representations. The session closed with Mr. Sheridan's celebrated speech of four days. Independent of

these flowers of oratory, it is a very remarkable circumstance, that though the town was full of gentlemen, who could have given most material and important information on the two charges, Benares and the Begums, the managers thought it wise, though they had summoned some, not to examine any of them. Mr. Dundas again opened his Budget in the House of Commons. In this year, he not only took credit for a revenue of more than five millions in Bengal, but he took it confidently; because, as he told us, the revenues for the three last years of Mr. Hastings's administration were still higher. Again he described the happy state of the natives of Bengal; and the House voted the resolutions that he moved, though their representatives in Westminster Hall had, in their name, described to the whole world the miserable and distressed state of Bengal, and the depressive, tyrannical, and felonious acts, by which such a revenue had been acquired. Thus ended contradiction the second.

In the third year, Mr. Burke made another speech of five days; in which he talked, as usual, of the miseries of the people of Bengal, of thumb screws, and the Lord knows what. In direct contradiction to the contents of an article drawn by himself to the Lords, he reduced the widow of Meer Jaffer, for so he had denominated her, to the state of a common prostitute, a wicked woman; but having proceeded a little too far, he received a rap from his constituents. In his own defence he thought proper to write a letter to Mr. Montagu, which that gentleman read in the House, and has since been published in the papers. Mr. Sheridan, at a former period, thought proper to publish a very curious pamphlet upon Indian affairs. I therefore hope, in following two such illustrious examples, I shall incur no censure for the freedom of my remarks.

Mr. Burke in his letter lamented that he had been arrested in his progress. 'If (adds Mr. Burke) the House will suffer me to go on, the moment is at hand when my defence, and included in it the defence of the House, will be made in the only way which my trust permits me to make it, by proving juridically on this accusing criminal the facts, and the guilt which we have charged upon him. As to the relevancy of the facts, the Committee of Impeachment must be the sole judges, until they are handed over to the Court, competent to give a final decision on their value. In that Court the agent of Mr. Hastings will soon enough be called upon to give his own testimony with regard to the con-

duct of his principal. The agent shall not escape from the necessity of delivering it; nor will the principal escape from the testimony of his Agent.

The House did permit him to go on; but as he had used expressions highly injurious to Mr. Hastings, and utterly unauthorized by the House, they thought it right to vote that they had given him no authority to use those expressions, and that they ought not to have been used.

The day after the vote, Mr. Burke returned to the charge, and spoke two days longer, making in the whole four complete days.

The moment that he promised was at a great distance, as I ventured to foretell at the time it would be. Days and weeks were spent in offering evidence which could not be accepted, and to the common sense of mankind it proved one of these two things: Either that Mr. Burke would not take the advice of the Counsel employed under the order of the House, or that the nation had been plundered by Mr. Burke's selection of inefficient men, which I am far from thinking is the case. At length, however, Mr. Burke did me the honour to examine me, but certainly upon a point so exceedingly trifling and ridiculous, that I am astonished how he could commit so respectable a gentleman as Mr. Montagu, by putting into his hands what was construed to be a pledge to the House for the discovery of some important matter.

Sir Walter Raleigh was tried, and had the mortification to be exposed to that sort of language which it was supposed by some silly people, prior to last year, could not be used in these days. After sentence he was taken from the Tower, employed upon foreign service, unfortunately failed, returned, and was executed upon his former sentence. As far as the analogy can be carried, the case of Mr. Hastings is ten times more unjust.

Mr. Hastings is merely accused in 1775 for acts supposed to be done in 1772. All that can be urged against him, is transmitted to the Court of Directors, and the King's Minister; all that Mr. Hastings thinks necessary to urge, he transmits to the same authority. He tells them, that he is ready to enter into further explanation, in any manner they shall prescribe. Factions run high; the whigs with Lord Rockingham, and those with whom Mr. Burke thus acted, supported Mr. Hastings. The Tories (I mean Lord North and his friends) with whom Mr. Burke has since acted, oppose him. The whole proceedings are published, and in every body's hands in 1776: They are referred to law-

yers of the first reputation. Mr. Hastings writes upon this and every other subject to the Minister. The brother of Sir Gilbert Elliot comes to England charged with letters from Mr. Hastings to Lord North. The father of Sir Gilbert Elliot, who had a considerable post in administration, takes a decided part in favour of Mr. Hastings. The Minister gives up his original intention of removing him. In 1778, the commission under which he acted, expired, The Minister himself, with full and complete knowledge of every fact, that Mr. Burke has spent this whole year in discussing, proposed to the Legislature, that Mr. Hastings should be re-appointed Governor General of Bengal. Why, Sir, I must have a more despicable opinion of that Minister, than you and Mr. Burke once professed to have for him, if I can conceive, for a moment, that he made such a proposition to Parliament, with a doubt in his mind of the integrity of Mr. Hastings. The proposition was brought forward, as Lord North himself has told us, in a season of war, of distress and of great difficulty and danger; and he knew that Mr. Hastings possessed vigour, abilities and the confidence of the East-India Company. The proposition was renewed again and again; that is, in three successive years; and the last Parliamentary appointment was for ten years: Yet, to the shame and disgrace of this nation, an entire year has been spent, the public money squandered, the regular administration of justice impeded, and an individual oppressed by an enquiry into a transaction that happened seventeen years ago, upon which it is not even assumed that the industry or ingenuity of man can possibly throw a new light. And here the case of Sir Walter Raleigh and Mr. Hastings differ most materially; the former, after trial, was taken from the Tower to serve his country, and afterwards executed upon a sentence passed previous to that service. Mr. Hastings never was tried; but the accusations preferred against him appeared so perfectly frivolous and contemptible, that though they had been much discussed in 1776, when his conduct was defended by the Whigs, and arraigned by the Tories; yet in 1778, in a season of war, of great difficulty, danger, and distress, they were completely consigned to oblivion, not even hinted at then by any human being, or mentioned at two subsequent periods, when the Legislature re-appointed him Governor General of Bengal; that they should now be brought forward, as a sort of make-weight, in order to consume one whole year, does, I own, appear to me an injustice so monstrous, that I am sure every true friend to this constitution will

revolt at it when it is fully explained to him.

There is not, believe me, Sir, one man in this kingdom so blind, as not to see the true cause of the studied delays of this year. In the midst of them, Mr. Dundas opens a third Indian Budget, takes credit for a revenue, as before, of more than five millions sterling from Bengal. Not one of the gentlemen, who in Westminster Hall have given so different a description of India, chose to say a syllable, and Mr. Burke and yourself were pleased to be absent.

Oude, Farruckabad, Rohilcund, Benares, Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, are governed precisely as they have been for many years past. The table of the House of Commons is covered with evidence, which, if true, most fully demonstrate that every thing uttered in Westminster Hall, is false. Not a tittle of the evidence is disputed, and it is virtually admitted by the resolutions we have voted, and who but an idiot will believe, that countries which, for the last seven years, have yielded upon an average considerably more than five millions annually, are in the situation that Mr. Burke, Mr. Grey, Mr. Sheridan, and yourself have represented them? Such descriptions no longer mislead the world; for while so strong a spirit of humanity prevails, a proposition would be made to lop off one half of our revenues in India; to restore to Cheyt Sing, to emancipate the Nabob Vizier, and to pay back five hundred and fifty thousand pounds to the Begum, provided credit was given to the right honourable gentlemen who manage the impeachment.

Mr. Sheridan has told us, that we want two millions annually to meet our expenditure; a melancholy truth indeed for this country if it be one. But, under such circumstances, the man who would risk the smallest part of our foreign commerce, before its injustice was fully proved, must upon that principle propose to withdraw every Briton from Hindostan, if he credits what has been said in the name, and by the authority of the House of Commons. Millions of the human race, men famed for all the arts of polished life, while we were yet in the woods, are said to be reduced to the lowest state of misery and distress, by the tyranny and oppression of Great Britain in India. I know that such descriptions no longer impose upon the world—men went this year to Westminster Hall, as to a farce, and Mr. Burke set off with a sort of apology, that they would not be so well entertained as they were in the last year; but, notwithstanding the minds of the public were made up upon the business, it is sincerely lamented by

every rational man that two accounts, the one so glaringly contradicting the other, should annually be given by the authority of the House of Commons. Pending this difference, a third party steps in from Hindostan, and, in support of the flourishing description that Mr. Dundas has given in three successive years, declares, 'That a few persons not being fully acquainted with the state and customs of this country, have represented matters contrary to truth and fact.'

I have the honour to be,

S I R,

Your most obedient,

Humble servant,

JOHN SCOTT.

The CONSTITUTION of SWEDEN and PARTICULARS of the late REVOLUTION.

[From a Tour through Sweden lately published.]

THE Diet of the State, which is fitting at this time, consists of the King and general estate of the kingdom, which are thus divided: First, the nobility. Secondly, the clergy. Thirdly, the burgers. And fourthly, the peasants. Every military person of rank, from a general to a captain, has the privilege of sitting in council and giving his vote. The clergy elect from their deaneries and separate parishes a certain number, who, with the bishops and inferior clergy, represent that body. Every corporation elects the burgers to represent them. From Stockholm, as it is the capital, and containing the largest number of inhabitants they have double the number, which, when united, form a large and considerable body. The peasants, who chuse one of their own people from every parish to represent them, take also their seat in Diet.

When the King convenes the Diet, which he generally does on particular and emergent occasions, the Assembly meet at Stockholm in a very elegant edifice built for this purpose. Their method of proceeding is this: His Majesty informs them by a speech from the throne of the cause of their convention; they then divide and separate into four different chambers, the nobles into a house of their own, the clergy into the cathedral, the burgers and peasants into another building across the market place. In their several chambers they consider the matter in question and give their assent or dissent. The vote is carried by a majority. Every chamber has a negative in passing a law. After each of the

the states has come to a determination they return in regular order from the separate chambers to the Diet-house, where the King sits and receives their decisive votes.

I could not but remark the pomp of their procession from the Council-chamber to the Diet-house. They are arranged in great form, and the town guard turns out under arms as they pass. The first noble, venerable in age and dressed in the court fashion, went first; the rest of the nobility in pairs after; then the Archbishop of Upsala, a man of a very reverend and apostolic appearance with a gold chain about his neck; the other bishops and clergy two and two; then the principal magistrate of Stockholm at the head of the burghers; and lastly, the poor peasants, the singularity of whose apparel and lank hair formed a remarkable contrast with those who went before. Yet though appearances do not favour those people, I was well informed that they are far from being deficient in the politics of their own country, and wonderfully skilled in the knowledge of their own national constitution. They are firm in opinion, neither to be bribed or biased, but adhere strictly to the welfare and credit of their nation.

These people are particular and most vigorously attentive to the actions and honour of the senate, which is composed of fourteen senators. Though the peasants themselves are excluded from voting for the election of a senator, yet the senate is always accountable to the Diet, of which they make a part, for every transaction of its administration. So that the peasants have the power of checking the irregularity or encroaching power of a presumptuous noble. Neither will they admit the most trifling infringement of any constitutional privilege whatever. Rights of such importance, though vetted as may be imagined, in an illiterate race of people, produce the good effects of decorum and a well regulated government.

A senator is appointed as president to every court of justice, and a council, to manage and regulate all boards established for the use of public revenues; such as military offices, marine-departments, and all other civil and commercial appointments. Their laws are comprized in a small compass, and seldom subject them to the disturbance of litigation; so that the profession of the long robe in Sweden is of small repute.

His Majesty's late animated and enterprising attempt for a revolution succeeded to a certain degree, but not so far as to introduce and establish an unlimited monarchy. He gained the soldiers, and many of his subjects joined his party, and took the oaths of allegiance in consequence of a

most nervous and spirited address which he made to his people. His elocution, affable manner, and great condescension, which indeed was only assumed to serve his turn, rendered him the idol of his country, and what added more to the patriotic zeal which they shewed for him, was, that he was a native of Sweden. His person is rather low but well-made and active. It is very singular that one side of his face does not at all resemble the other. He delights much in military exercises, and forms an annual camp at a small distance from Stockholm, where he dedicates his time to military improvements.

The want of population, which is very much the case in Sweden, and above all, the want of current coin, will always give a most effectual check to monarchical ambition. Though the King maintains, and personally inspects the most minute department of State, and attaches himself to every frugal system of regal management, yet all is not sufficient to effect his purposes. Necessity is a plea which even Kings cannot resist.

Whether this was the reason, or whether he suspected some imposition in the management of the public revenues, and particularly in that of distilled spirits, or whether he had an eye only to his own private emolument, certain it is, that His Majesty issued an edict for discontinuing every distillery of spirituous liquors throughout the kingdom. A second ordinance was immediately proclaimed for erecting distilleries of his own in every province and laying a severe penalty on those who dared to manufacture their own brandy. This expectation of increasing wealth soon vanished and proved but an additional calamity. Partly from his own injudicious management, and partly from the impositions of those he employed, he soon found the ill effects of his schemes. Doubtless, from such a precipitate misconduct, it was natural to imagine that many and great dissensions would have arisen among the people. Such discontents His Majesty was aware of, and to appease them ordered a reduction of the price from seven shillings per gallon to three shillings and sixpence. This still had not the desired effect, but on the contrary proved the consequence of more immediate ruin. His want of commercial knowledge plagued him in serious and unforeseen difficulties, till at length it determined him to an application to the Diet for relief. How far their aristocratical people complied with his desires, how far the exigencies of his situation were relieved, or whether any supply was granted, has not yet transpired.

THE CONSTITUTION OF SPAIN.

[From *Travels in Spain by the Chevalier de Bourgoing, lately published.*]

[At a time when a revolution so extraordinary has taken place in a neighbouring kingdom, and when we are assured that the spirit and enthusiasm of liberty has actually passed the Pyrenees, portending consequences not less singular, it cannot be displeasing to our readers to peruse, what can very rarely be found; a genuine and ample account of the present Constitution and Government of Spain.]

THE history of Spain sufficiently proves how great an influence the Cortes had in the most important affairs of government, in war, peace, and levying of taxes. These, for a long time past, have not been assembled, except for the sake of form. And the sovereigns, without violence, without formally rejecting their intervention, have found means to elude their authority. They promulgate from the throne ordinances under the name of *pragmaticques*, the preambles of which give us to understand, that they claim the same authority as if they had been published in the assembly of the Cortes; which are never convoked except at the accession of a new sovereign to the throne, to administer to him an oath in the name of the nation, and to swear to him fidelity. On this occasion, letters of convocation are sent to all the grandees, to all persons bearing titles of Castile, to all the prelates, and to every city which has a right to send deputies to the Cortes. The two first classes represent the nobility, the priests sit in the name of the clergy, and the cities which depute one of their magistrates, represent the people. Except on these occasions, of which there have been but two examples in the present century, the Cortes of the whole kingdom have not been assembled since 1713, when Philip V. convoked them to give their approbation to the pragmatic sanction which changed the order of succession to the throne.

They are still consulted, for the sake of form, in certain cases; but then the members of which they are composed correspond with each other, without assembling. A faint image of them, however, remains in an assembly, which constantly resides at Madrid, under the name of *Diputados de los Reynos* (deputies of the kingdom).

At their breaking up in 1713, it was regulated, that they should be represented

by a permanent committee, whose office it should be to watch over the administration of that part of the taxes, known by the names of *Millones*, and which had been granted under Philip II. with the formal consent of the Cortes, upon certain conditions, which the monarch swore to observe. They retained the administration of these imposts until the year 1718, when Cardinal Alberoni, whose ardent and imperious genius was irritated at such shackles, transferred it to the hands of the sovereign: From that time the assembly of deputies of the kingdoms, held no more of the state revenues than the small portion necessary to pay the salaries and defray the expenses of the members. There are eight in number, and are chosen in the following manner:

But first it will be proper to observe; that the division of Spain into kingdoms and provinces, as described in maps and geographical treatises, has scarcely any place in fact. The government knows but one division, the provinces of the crown of Castile, and those of the crown of Aragon. These two parts of the monarchy differ from each other with respect to the administration, form, and collection of taxes; a distinction which had its origin at the time when Castile and Aragon were united by the marriage of Isabella and Ferdinand the Catholic, and which since that time has undergone but few alterations. The crown of Aragon possessed only Aragon, properly so called, Catalonia, the Kingdom of Valencia, and that of Majorca composed of the ancient Balearic islands, Majorca, Minorca, and Ilica. The crown of Castile possessed the rest of the Spanish monarchy. The deputies of the kingdom are chosen according to this division. All the provinces of Castile unite to name six; Catalonia and Majorca one; and the regencies of Valencia and Aragon elect the eighth. These deputies sit but for six years, at the end of which a new nomination takes place in the same manner. As a relic of their ancient rights they still retain the privilege of being, by virtue of their peers, members of the council of finance, by which the sovereign communicates to the nation the necessity of levying any new tax; and the approbation they are supposed to give to the royal resolution is a shadow of the consent of the Cortes, without which taxes could not formerly be either levied or augmented. But it is easy to perceive how feeble this rampart of liberty must be, which is only formed of a small number of citizens, who possess but little real power, are under the controul of government from which they expect favour, and preferments, and who

after

after all, represent only the people, the most numerous but the least respected part of the nation. The provinces of Biscay and Navarre, which have assemblies and particular privileges, send also, on some occasions, deputies to the throne, but they do not make a part of the body of the deputies of the kingdom, and their constituents fix at pleasure the object and duration of their temporary mission.

We may perceive from this sketch how little the sovereign authority is limited in Spain. The will of the monarch is also carried into execution by several permanent bodies, under the name of Councils, who are the interpreters and keepers of the laws, and of which we shall speak more particularly after having conducted the reader to Madrid.

Before we quit the residence of the sovereign, it will be proper to say something farther concerning the ministers who are constantly near his person; and with whom alone, at present he shares the weight of royalty. Their authority was formerly counter-balanced by the council of state, which was consulted on all important occasions; which still subsists and forms the most distinguished body in the monarchy; but which, since the administration of Cardinal Alberoni, has not been permitted to assemble or exercise its functions. The place of counsellor of state is now only honorary, with a considerable salary annexed to it, and furnishes the sovereign with the means of rewarding those of his subjects who have deserved well of the state, in the most distinguished employments. The various offices of administration generally lead to this appointment at the end of a few years, and formerly the ministers had not the title of excellence until they were thus promoted. But at the recent nomination of M. de Valdéz to the marine department, the king ordained that from that time all his ministers should bear that title, even before they became counsellors of state.

As there are still important cases in which the sovereign, modest enough to distrust his own discernment, wishes to receive the advice of those whom he honours with his confidence, he supplies the want of the assemblies of the counsellors of state, by uniting his ministers in a committee.

The administration of the kingdom is divided into six principal departments. The minister of foreign affairs is in many respects the directing minister, and receives, as a mark of distinction, the title of secretary of state. The minister of war has but a circumscribed authority. He is president of the council of war, which is rather a tribunal than a board of administration;

but the inspectors of the infantry, and those of the cavalry, dragoons, and provincial regiments, draw up a statement of whatever relates to the corps of which they have the direction, and the minister at war has only to present the memorials they give in to the king.

The marine minister has no associates. The chiefs of the three departments, and the inspectors of the marine are named by the king on the representation of the minister; the marine ordinances prepared by him alone require only the sanction of the sovereign.

The minister of finances should be properly under the inspection of the superintendent general of that department; but these two offices were some time since united, and will probably be so continued as the separation of them would multiply without necessity the springs of government, and the interests of the state require they should be simplified as much as permanent forms, those sacred bulwarks of justice and property, will admit. Besides, when the sovereign believes he has found in a subject the capacity and integrity required for the administration of his finances, why should he put over him other inspectors than his own conscience; and the zealous wish to justify so flattering a choice? The animadversion of a censor could, in such a case, produce nothing but divisions and mistrust, which would operate to the disadvantage of the service. The event has justified these reflections, in the persons of three ministers who have governed the finances of Charles III. These ministers are, besides, by their office, presidents of the council of finance.

The minister of the Indies has the most extensive department in all the monarchy, for in him is centered the civil, military, ecclesiastical and financial government of Spanish America, and it may be said, that in the whole political world there is no minister whose department comprehends so many different objects. Had Augustus committed to one single minister the government of the whole Roman empire, his power would only have extended to a small part of modern Europe, the coasts of Africa, and some provinces of Asia; for the Roman empire at the time it was most extensive, was not to be compared to that immense country which, from the north of California, stretches to the straits of Magellan, and forms the dominions of the Spanish monarch in America, and the department of the minister of the Indies.

The minister of favour and justice has his department in the judiciary and ecclesiastical affairs; but his authority is circumscribed by the great chamber (*Camara*)

of the council of Castile, of which we shall treat in another place; and with respect to the nomination to benefices by the intervention of the king's confessor. The latter, however, is not constitutional, but depends upon the will of the monarch, and the confidence with which he honours the director of his conscience.

These six offices are usually filled by six different persons; but until the year 1776, the same minister held those of the marine and the Indies, which are so connected, that the good of the nation will, perhaps, require them to be again united. They are at present separate; Don Joseph de Galvez possesses that of the Indies, which was conferred upon him in the year above-mentioned. Europe and America may judge whether or not this administration has been successful, and whether the active genius of the minister has contributed to render flourishing the most extensive colony that ever a mother country had under its dominion. Don Antonio de Valdez has presided over the marine department since the year 1783, and began his administration under the most happy auspices. At the death of Don Miguel de Musquiz, who was minister at war and of the finances, these two departments were confided to Don Pedro de Lerena, intend-ant of the four kingdoms of Andalusia. I quitted Spain about that time, and have not since had an opportunity of learning the public opinion of the new minister.

The department for foreign affairs since the resignation of the marquis of Grimaldi has been in the possession of the count of Florida Blanca, whose talents were displayed at Rome under the pontificate of Clement XIV, and in the most delicate circumstances. He has since united to this department that of favour and justice, the superintendency of the post-stages, with that of the royal roads and public magazines. I have been assured that nothing was wanting to this respectable minister but better health to qualify him for the great task he has imposed upon himself.

PETITION of Lord GEORGE GORDON to the NATIONAL ASSEMBLY of FRANCE.

The following is an authentic copy of the Petition which the National Assembly of France ordered to be deposited among their archives, as an original paper:

TO THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY OF FRANCE.

The Petition of the Right Honourable Lord GEORGE GORDON, Brother to the Duke of GORDON,

Humbly Sheweth,

THAT a sentence of two years imprisonment among the felons and transported convicts in Newgate, with a fine of five hundred pounds sterling, has been passed upon your petitioner for a publication in favour of liberty in France, in which the names of the Queen of France, le Comte de Breteuil, and le Marquis de Launay, were mentioned as a party supporting arbitrary power, Lettres de Cachet, and the Bastile.

That this publication was made with a view to succour the oppressed, and from the best information, which he received from several of the Nobility and Gentry of France, who were in London at the time of the publication, and who requested your petitioner's assistance in the cause of freedom.

That your petitioner has received great satisfaction (in the midst of his suffering) to find that the good people of France have hitherto succeeded in their endeavours to regenerate their Constitution; and he prays the Almighty to crown your patriotic exertions with liberty and peace.

The request, therefore, of your petitioner is, that your most Honourable Assembly, in your wisdom and sympathy, will apply to the Court of London, to relieve your petitioner from the above-mentioned sentence and imprisonment.

G. GORDON.

*Felton Side, Newgate Prison,
London, July 23, 1789.*

NEW BOOKS.

De la Littérature des Turcs, i. e. On the Literature of the Turks. By M. L'Abbé Toderini. Paris Edition. 3 Vols. 8vo. about 260 Pages in each Volume. 1789.

[We present our readers with a very full account of this publication, taken from the Appendix to the eightieth volume of the Monthly Review, not as a piece of criticism, but as containing the most curious and authentic information relative to Turkish literature that we remember to have seen.]

THE religious bigotry and the pious animosities which have subsisted, during many ages, between the Christian and the Mahomedan nations, have kept those of the former persuasion as ignorant of the manners, character, and literature of the Turks, as they were of the Antipodes before the discovery of the mariner's compass. It is fortunate for the cause of science in general, that, in the present day, prejudices begin to lose much of their pristine obstinacy; that cultivated minds, which increase in number, see the folly and infamy of those national predilections, and of those artificial barriers, which ignorance and priestcraft have erected against the nobler principles of humanity. Beings of the same species, and children of the same universal Parent, now begin to follow the genuine propensities of their nature; and are better disposed to embrace each other as men and brethren. Commerce also, that bridge which unites nation to nation, demonstrates that local advantages, and the prosperity of an individual country, do not consist in spreading desolation, but in the reciprocal communication of benefits. The harsh features and terrific countenances which a cowardly imagination gave to the Frenchman, the Spaniard, and the Turk, are softening and vanishing away like phantoms; and we are learning this important lesson, that notwithstanding the distinctions of dress and manners, human nature appears, under every disguise, essentially the same in its virtues and defects.

In consequence of this happier state of things, several writers have of late favoured the public with much information respecting the Turks. The rank, sex, and accomplishments of the late Lady W. Montagu have been able to open the doors of the Harems, and give to Infidels a peep at those scenes which were always hidden from faithful Musulmans themselves. Baron De Tott, Messrs. De Peyssonnel, Sessini, and others, have made us much better ac-

quainted with the manners, customs, military force, form of government, &c. of the Ottoman Empire, than we have been at any former period. But the honour of communicating to these western parts of Europe a complete and full account of the literature of the Turks, was reserved for the Abbé TODERINI, who has rendered us this service, in the very valuable publication before us; in which his laudable and enthusiastic zeal for the cause of literature, his indefatigable industry in acquiring genuine information, and his fidelity and accuracy in conveying it, are conspicuous in every chapter.

The Abbé was preceptor to the son of his Excellency Signior Garzoni, Envoy from the republic of Venice to the Ottoman Porte. He passed several years at Constantinople (from October 1781 to May 1786) in the family of this illustrious personage; and eagerly seized every advantage which his station gave him, to make himself acquainted with the literary state of the Turkish nation. He was assisted in his pursuit by the influence which the accomplishments and exquisite taste of the lady of the Ambassador, gave her at the Court, and by the kindly offices of Sir Robert Anstie, the English Ambassador. As the merit of this work rests on its authenticity, it is proper that we lay before our readers a more particular account of the plan which the author followed, and of the sources whence he obtained his information: which we shall do in his own words.

‘As I found that the circle of my acquaintance was daily enlarged, and that my researches into the manuscripts possessed by the Turks, their sciences, writers, and illustrious men, multiplied, I formed the design of directing and confining my principal attention to their studies; and to treat of the Academies, Libraries, and Printing-office of Constantinople. I immediately procured a translation of a manuscript which treated, in Turkish verse, of the sciences cultivated by them; which I compared with the information I obtained from Turkish masters, concerning whatever related to their academies, I consulted also many authors, not to mention the Franks and Drogmans, who were the best acquainted with the erudition of the Musulmans. I visited their academies, and cultivated the friendship of several learned Ottomans, particularly of the Muderis or Principal of the College of Valide. I frequented their libraries, procured many catalogues of manuscripts and memoirs, large portions of which I caused to be translated. I was

assisted in this work by a very extensive reading of translations from the Oriental languages, and of European authors conversant in the languages, and learning of the Musulmans, philologists, historians, travellers, and biographers, who are very numerous at Constantinople. Nor did I stop here. I also procured, through the channel of my friends, publications from Vienna, Rome, Florence, and Venice. When it happened that the learned men whom I had consulted, entertained different sentiments on a subject, it was discussed before me; and if any difficulties remained, I had recourse to the Musti himself, to obtain a *setfa* or definitive sentence.* In short, I have spared neither pains, nor fatigue, nor study, nor money, to the extent of my capacity, in order to avoid as many imperfections as possible, continually employing the most severe and attentive criticism, to discover truth in the midst of obscurities.

Nothing can be more satisfactory to those who wish for information concerning the various subjects discussed by the author, than the above presentation: and in consequence of his indefatigable industry, the learned will not only find the nature and extent of Turkish literature minutely and accurately stated, but many embarrassing obscurities explained, and several errors, that have been currently received, corrected. As the Turks have never distinguished themselves in the republic of letters, and as general science is beginning merely to dawn on them, these volumes cannot be supposed to be replete with that kind of erudition which will greatly increase the stock of these more enlightened parts of Europe. But men of sense will contemplate with pleasure the evidences laid before them, that the Turks are far from being so barbarous and uncultivated, as our ignorance has hitherto represented them. They will observe, that there is scarcely a branch in the arts or sciences that is not cultivated with a considerable degree of success; that men of letters from Christian countries, properly introduced, may obtain free access to sources of information, without embracing or professing the Mohammedan creed; and that Constantinople, if it be not the chief seat of the muses, is not altogether forsaken by them. The

Turkish nation having advanced to its present state of literary knowledge, by means of the Arabic and Persian languages, the account of the literature of these two nations is necessarily interwoven with that of the Ottomans; which will enhance its value in the opinion of every Orientalist. We must, however, apprise our readers, that by his extreme precision, and by his pursuing, through all their *minutiae* and obscurities, questions which will appear trivial to those who have no taste for scientific novelties, M. TONZANI has chiefly devoted the work before us to the use of the learned. Yet he has occasionally enlivened it with anecdotes and remarks which will be universally acceptable. He manifestly aims at the character of an accurate observer and a faithful historian. If he be more diffuse than many may think necessary, it is because the subject is novel, and because his sources are abundant: nor could his end be obtained, which was to gratify the curiosity of the learned, concerning the present state of Turkish literature, without details, which would appear uninteresting in any other point of view.

The above remarks will convey some ideas of the general nature of the work; we shall now descend to a few particulars.

It has been generally supposed, that the cultivation of the sciences was expressly forbidden by Mohammed, as being inimical to his religion. This opinion, probably, owes its rise to the conduct of the Calif Omar, who burnt the Alexandrian library, and waged open war against every species of literature. But the Koran expressly declares that it is permitted to Mohammedans to possess all the sciences. The sentence placed over the door of the Sultan's library at Constantinople, is a further confutation of this error: *The study of the sciences is a divine command to true believers.* They have two difficulties to surmount, which render their love of knowledge the more meritorious. No one can write with elegance in the Turkish language, or prosecute any science to advantage, without a tolerable acquaintance with the Arabic and Persian, which differ from each other as much as the German and Italian. The pride of their own knowledge, and the superstition of the Musulmans, which make them despise every species of instruction conveyed in the language of infidels, is a farther impediment to the general advancement of science. This prejudice begins however to abate. I know (says the Abbé) two Turks of distinguished rank, who are men of letters, who read and write Italian; and several others who wish earnestly to learn

* At the gates of his palace are scribes, to whom the question is presented, which is to be given into the hands of the Musti; and, a few days afterwards, it is returned, on paying a small gratuity, with the *setfa* or decision written by himself. All such as are contrary to the law, are rejected.

It. I was desired by a French engineer, to procure a treatise on algebra written in Italian, for an Ottoman who was familiar with the language. Several other instances of the kind are given; and he unites with *M. De Peyssonel* in condemning the ignorance of the *Baron De Tott*, and also of *M. Savary*, concerning the state of Turkish literature.

The first volume of this interesting work is devoted to the different branches of science cultivated by the Turks. These are again divided into two parts: the *sciences* which have an immediate reference to their religion, or are closely connected with it; such as the explanations of the Koran, the revelations of Mohammed, metaphysics, or scholastic theology, jurisprudence, the art of dividing inheritances, and their political government. Their other studies, which are common to Europeans, are next particularly examined: grammar, logic, rhetoric, geometry, natural history, medicine, &c. &c. The Koran, being the foundation of the religion, and of the civil laws of Musulmans, is the first object of their study. Men of letters apply themselves to this study, as the surest road to reputation and influence. The number of their commentaries is infinite; but the most celebrated is that of *Calef*, who died in the year 355, of the Mohammedan era. This sagacious prince ordered men, the most distinguished for their learning, to correct the text, and collate the commentaries on the Koran; which amounted, according to some authors, to a hundred volumes, at that period. The revelations of Mohammed were of two species; the one consisted in immediate communications from the angel *Gabriel*, the others were simply prophetic. The celerity of the prophet in evasions is well known; the following may be placed among the most effectual. The *Coraites* reproaching him that he spake of *Moses*, who struck the rock, and water flowed in the wilderness, and of *Jesus*, who raised the dead, but that he had worked no miracle to authenticate the divinity of his own mission; "Pray to God," said they, "that the mountain *Safa* before us be turned into gold, and we will immediately embrace your doctrine." The prophet had recourse to prayer; and *Gabriel*, to extricate him from his embarrassment, revealed to him that God *did* employ such prodigies to prove the divine authority of his prophets, but the conditions were terrible: for if they continued in unbelief, after the miracle which they had demanded was wrought, they would be exterminated, and their country reduced to ashes, as in the days of *Heber* and *Salth*. *Chuse*, says the angel

to the prophet, either to work a miracle, which threatens ruin, or exhort the *Coraites* to repentance without it. Mohammed did not hesitate to prefer the latter as the safest, and most conformable to the dictates of his heart; not being willing to expose the *Coraites*, whom he loved, to such a dreadful chastisement.

Under the article *Metaphysics*, *M. Toderini* informs us, that as much of this science relates to the theology of the Musulmans, they give it the name of *scholastic theology*, and sometimes term it the *divine science*. Several points are treated with sense and metaphysical acumen. The Musulmans have written much on the unity of the Supreme Being, and of Necessity: But they abound with sophisms, and attack the mystery of the Holy Trinity, as if we were Polytheists. The *Abbé* refers us to *Father Maracci* for a full confutation of all their subtilties. The names of God, or rather the titles of the Deity, which are mentioned in the Koran, and respected by the Musulmans as canonical, amount to ninety-nine. Our indefatigable author procured them, written in Arabic, after having, with difficulty, surmounted their scruples; these being among the mysteries which ought to be concealed from Infidels. They express the attributes and characters of the Deity, benignant, venerable, and tremendous. These are repeated at different times in their prayers. Each Musulman has a *tespib*, a species of rosary, composed of ninety-nine small balls of agate, jasper, &c. destined to this use. The Ottoman jurisprudence, considered in its utmost extent, is theocratical; but regulated in certain points by the legislation of the prince, and by despotism. This theocratical jurisprudence is founded on the Koran, the written law, and the *Sunket*, or oral law, which comprehends those words and actions of the prophet that are not contained in the Koran; but, being preserved by tradition, have been finally committed to writing. The contradictions, doubts, and obscurities which abound between the oral and written laws, demanded, in an earlier period, the explanations of the companions of Mohammed; and, afterwards, of the most celebrated masters. Among these are the four *Imans*, founders of as many different sects, but all within the pale of orthodoxy. *Hanifah*, the most distinguished of all, died in the year 150 of the Hegira; *Malek* in 175; *Schäfeî* and *Hambal* in the years 204, 241. These, according to the Musulmans, have developed and interpreted the spirit of their law both written and oral. Thus the different nations of Mohammedans follow them as their unerring guides,

guides, according to the different rites which they have embraced. Hanisafvis the grand apostle of the Turkish nation. In matters which have no connexion with their religion, and where the Koran, Sunnah, and the doctors of law, are silent, the jurisprudence is established by the cannemek, or legislation of the prince. Ancient customs are also considered as having the force of a law. M. TODERINI is of opinion that the government of the Ottoman empire cannot be considered as absolutely despotic; its being so intimately blended with theocracy, is a powerful check to the despotism of the sovereign. A restraint is laid on the caprice or the ferocity of the prince by his being subject to the Musulman's legislation, to which he binds himself by a solemn oath, when he girds on the sword; a custom equivalent to that of coronation. So that, if the mandates and government of the sultan do not coincide with the theocratic constitution, the Musti hath the power of interfering; and after three admonitions, given in the name of the people and of the law, he is solemnly deposed, imprisoned, and perhaps put to death. His grand object, therefore, if he means to be a tyrant, is to keep in favour with the Musti.

For a particular account of their progress in those studies which are common to Europeans, we must refer the inquisitive reader to the Abbé's treatise, as we could not possibly satisfy his curiosity without transcribing too large a portion of it; and must content ourselves with slightly touching on those articles which, if not the most important, will be more generally acceptable.

There are few grammars of the Turkish language. Those of the Arabic are very numerous; this language being studied scientifically by men of learning, as it is the principal channel through which their learning flows. Nor do they see the necessity of acquiring their native tongue by the aid of a grammar, while they have the superior advantages of early habits and perpetual exercise. Their logic is taken from Aristotle. They have also, in their libraries, the works of Porphyry, Avicenna, and many other Arabian authors. The *Adab fil Bab*, a work in great esteem among the Turks and Arabs, teaches the manner of disputing in general company with sense and politeness united. It derives its name from the Arabic *Adab*, which signifies method, custom, duty, moral philosophy, and urbanity. It is a treatise of logic, adapted to familiar discourse, as well as to oratory. Examples are given of the manner of answering to the propositions of another, with propriety of reasoning joined

with politeness. Some may think that a treatise of this kind is much wanted among us. It might have been particularly serviceable when polemical divinity was more in vogue, *i. e.* when abusive language and uncharitable epithets were considered as essential marks of *contending earnestly for the faith*. With respect to rhetoric, they value it as an art in which they have made the greatest proficiency. The best informed Turks, though they will readily yield the palm to other Europeans, in every other branch of science, or of the arts, strenuously assert their superiority in this. *Courtesy* is interwoven with their ideas of moral philosophy; and the Abbé speaks of the courtesy of their manners in the highest degree of praise. He represents them as wonderfully expert in *arithmetic*; but their proficiency in algebra is not very considerable; perhaps through the want of proper treatises in the Arabic language. Several young Turks begin, however, to cultivate this science by the aid of European authors. They are tolerably good geometers; for that science is cultivated by them, as being necessary to their favourite study of astronomy, to navigation, forming of their calendars, solar quadrants, and their geographical charts, which are valuable. We are obliged to pass over in silence their progress in natural history and experimental philosophy, chemistry, and medicine. Under the latter article, the author corrects a small inaccuracy into which Lady W. Montagu seems to have led the public, by ascribing the practice of inoculation to the Turks. Even in the present day, it is not much practised by the *European* Turks, though it is more general in *Asiatic* Turkey. The practice would be, with difficulty, established at Constantinople, as it is repugnant to their religion and to their doctrine of predestination. But it is common among the Greeks, Armenians, and Franks, who reside in the Ottoman empire, and who are the principal physicians of the country; and from them her Ladyship acquired the knowledge of this useful discovery. With an air of triumph, M. TODERINI corrects an error of the same kind in Voltaire; at whom he occasionally throws his darts. 'We learn hence a blunder committed by Voltaire, who in the eleventh of his *Lettres Philosophiques* (written at a period when inoculation was less practised by the Ottomans than even at present) asserts that *the Turks had the good sense to adopt the custom with eagerness, and that there is not a Bacba at Constantinople who does not inoculate his children, even before they are taken from the breast.*'

(To be continued.)

P O E T R Y.

L A L I B E R T A. L I B E R T Y.

[Translated from *Metastasio*.]

THANKS, Nicé, to thy treacherous arts,

At length I breathe again ;
The pitying gods have ta'en my part,
And eas'd a wretch's pain :
I feel, I feel, that from its chain
My rescued soul is free,
Nor is it now I idly dream
Of fancied liberty.

Extinguished is my ancient flame,
All calm my thoughts remain ;
And artful love in vain shall strive
To lurk beneath disdain.
No longer, when thy name I hear,
My conscious colour flies ;
No longer, when thy face I see,
My heart's emotions rise.

I sleep, yet not in every dream
Thy image pictur'd see ;
I wake, nor does my alter'd mind
Fix its first thought on thee :
From thee far distant when I roam,
No fond concern I know ;
With thee I stay, nor yet from thence
Does pain or pleasure flow.

Oft of my Nicé's charms I speak,
Nor thrills my stedfast heart ;
Oft I review the wrongs I bore,
Yet feel no inward smart,
No quick alarms confound my sense,
When Nicé near I see ;
Even with my rival I can smile,
And calmly talk of thee.

Speak to me with a placid mien.
Or treat me with disdain ;
Vain is to me the look severe
The gentle smile as vain.
Lest is the empire o'er my soul,
Which once those lips possessed ;
Those eyes no longer can divine
Each secret of my breast.

What pleases now, or grieves my mind,
What makes me sad, or gay,
It is not in thy power to give,
Nor canst thou take away :
Each pleasant spot without thee charms,
The wood, the mead, the hill ;
And scenes of dullness, even with thee,
Are scenes of dullness still.

Judge, if I speak with tongue sincere ;
Thou still art wondrous fair ;

Great are the beauties of thy form,
But not beyond compare :
And, let not truth offend thine ear,
My eyes at length incline
To spy some faults in that lov'd face,
Which once appear'd divine.

When from its secret deep recess
I tore the painful dart,
(My shameful weakness I confess)
It seem'd to split my heart ;
But, to relieve a tortur'd mind,
To triumph o'er disdain,
To gain my captive self once more,
I'd suffer every pain.

Caught by the birdlime's treacherous twigs,
To which he chanc'd to stray,
The bird his fasten'd feathers leaves,
Then gladly flies away :
His shorten'd wings he soon renews,
Of snares no more afraid ;
Then grows by past experience wise,
Nor is again betray'd

I know thy pride can ne'er believe
My passion's fully o'er,
Because I oft repeat the tale,
And still add something more :—
'Tis natural instinct prompts my tongue,
And makes the story last,
As all mankind are fond to boast
Of dangers they have past.

The warrior thus, the combat o'er,
Recounts his bloody wars ;
Tells all the hardships which he bore,
And shews his ancient scars.
Thus the glad slave, by prosperous fate,
Freed from the servile chain,
Shews to each friend the galling weight,
Which once he dragg'd with pain.

I speak, yet speaking, all my aim
Is but to ease my mind ;
I speak, yet care not if my words
With thee can credit find ;
I speak, nor ask if my discourse
Is e'er approv'd by thee
Or whether thou with equal ease
Dost talk again of me.

I leave a light inconstant maid,
Thou'st lost a heart sincere ;—
I know not which wants comfort most,
Or which has most to fear :
I'm sure, a swain so fond and true,
Nicé can never find ;
A Nymph like her is quickly found,
False, faithless, and unkind.

ODE for the NEW YEAR, 1787.

[By the Rev. T. Warton, B. D. Poet-Lau-
rest.]

I.

In rough magnificence array'd,
When ancient chivalry display'd
The pomp of her heroic games ;
And crest'd chiefs and tissued dames,
Assembled, at the clarion's call,
In some proud castle's high arch'd hall,
To grace romantic glory's genial rights :
Associate of the gorgeous festival,
The Minstrel struck his kindred string,
And told of many a steel-clad king,
Who to the turney train'd his hardy
knights ;
Or bore the radiant red cross shield
Mid the bold peers of Salem's field ;
Who travers'd pagan climes to quell
The wizard see's terrific spell ;
In rude affrays untaught to fear
The Saracen's gigantic spear—
The listening champions felt the sabling
rhime
With airy trappings fraught, and shook
their plumes sublime.

II.

Such were the themes of regal praise
Dear to the bard of elder days ;
The songs, to savage virtue dear,
That won of yore the public ear !
Ere polity, sedate and sage,
Had quench'd the fires of feudal rage,
Had stemm'd the torrent of eternal strife,
And charm'd to rest an unrelenting age.—
No more, in formidable state,
The castle shuns its thundering gate ;
New colours suit the scenes of soften'd
life ;
No more, bestriding barbed steeds,
Adventurous valour idly bleeds !
And now the bard in alter'd tones,
A theme of worthier triumph owns ;
By social imagery beguil'd,
He moulds his harp to manners mild ;
Nor longer weaves the wreath of war alone,
Nor hails the hostile forms that grac'd the
Gothic throne.

III.

And now he tunes his plausible lay
To kings, who plant the civic bay ;
Who choose the patriot sovereign's part,
Diffusing commerce, peace, and art ;
Who spread the virtuous pattern wide,
And triumph in a nation's pride :
Who seek coy science in her cloister'd nook,
Where Thames, yet rural, rolls an artless
tide ;
Who love to rule the vale divine,
Where revel nature and the Nine,

And clustering towers the tufted grove
o'erlook ;
To kings who rule a filial land,
Who claim a people's vows and prayers,
Should treason arm the weakest hand !
To these, his heart-tell praise he bears,
And with new rapture hastes to greet
This festal morn, that longs to meet.
With luckiest auspices, the laughing spring ;
And opens her glad career, with blessings
on her wing !

THE PELICAN AND THE SPIDER.

[From the Oeconomy of Beauty.]

THE sphere of mild, domestic life,
A daughter, mother, mistress, wife,
Who fills approv'd, shall live in story,
And gain the height of female glory.
To you,—believe an honest song—
The *Charities* of life belong ;
Those gentler offices, that bind
The social ties of human-kind :
All praises, but for these, decay ;
And Fame is blating infamy.
But chief o'er all, ye wiser Fair,
The MOTHER'S sacred charge revere.—
Pure, heart-ennobling, blest employ !
Which saints and angels lean with joy
To view from Heaven ;—which can dis-
pense
O'er all the soul their own benevolence.
Hail, holy task !—'Tis thine impart
More virtues to the melting heart :—
Such heights of moral grace to reach,
As proud philosophy could never teach.
Maternal love !—The iron soul'd
Melt at thy touch ; the coward, bold
Become at once ;—through rocks will
force,—
Nor flood, nor fire can stop their course ;
Will brave the Lybian lion wild,
Should danger threat the favourite child:

¹ *The coward bold become*—The great
Poet of Nature has touched this sentiment
with exquisite beauty :

'Unreasonable creatures feed their young ;
And though man's face be fearful to their
eyes,
Yet in protection of their tender ones,
Who hath not seen them (even with those
wings,
Which sometimes they have used with
fearful flight)
Make war with him that climb'd unto
their nest,
Offering their own lives in their young's
defence ?

Is there, whom fashion, pride, or pleasure,

Tempts to forget the living treasure?
Who to her own indulgence grants
That care, or cost, her infant wants?
What wonder should the sage insist
She yields in *Storge*^b to a beast.
The good abhor, the wits deride her,
And read her history in the *Spider*.
Who trusts her nursing to another,
A Parent she;—but not a Mother.

Beneath a venerable shade,
The pious PELICAN had made
Her humble nest;—with rapture there
Incessant plied the Mother's care.
From night to morn, from morn to night,
Not more her duty, than delight,
To watch the tender, chirping brood,
Protect them, and provide their food.
At dewy eve, at morning's spring,
Soft-canopied beneath her wing
They slept secure;—herself sustains,
Patient, the cold, and drenching rains,
Nor felt, nor fear'd the furious storm,
Her callow nestlings dry and warm.
Whate'er her early search supplies,
Denied her own necessities,
She gave her young, and prov'd from
thence

The luxury of abstinence.
In vain the *concert* in the grove,
In vain the wing'd *assembly* strove
To tempt her from the nursery's care,
Her music and her mirth were there.

Thus liv'd she, till one fatal day,
Doom'd all her virtues to display,
What time the morning's with'd supply
Eludes her utmost industry.
She fish'd the brook;—she div'd the
main,
Search'd hill and dale, and wood in
vain;

Not one poor grain the world affords,
To feed her helpless hungry birds.
What should she do?—Ah! see they faint;
With unavailing, weak complaint,
These dearer than her vital breath,
Resign to Famine's lingering death?
The thought was frenzy.—No;—she
press'd
Her sharp beak on her own kind breast,

^b *Storge*—*Natural love and affection.*] The tender and most careful nursing of children, is the first and most natural duty incumbent upon parents: And there cannot be a greater reproach to creatures that are indued with reason, than to neglect a duty, to which Nature directs even the brutes.—It cannot be neglected without a downright affront to Nature:

Tillotson, Vol. I. 606.

With cruel piety, and fed
Her wondering infants as she bled.
'Accept, she cried, dear, pretty crew!
This sacrifice to love and you.'
'Mad fool, forbear,' exclaim'd a *SPIDER*
That insolently loung'd beside her;
'This horrid act of thine evinces
Your ignorance of courts and princes.
Lord, what a creature!—Tear thy neck
fast,
To give thy peevish brats a breakfast!
Hadst thou among the great resided,
And mark'd their manners well, as I did—
The Mother's milk, much less her blood,
Is ne'er the well-born infant's food.
Why there's my Lady *OSTRICH*^d now,
Who visits in the vale below,
Knows all the fashion on this head:
Soon as her La'ship's brought to bed,
She,—else the birth would prove her curse,
Gives it the elements to nurse.
'Tis true, some accident may hurt it,
Its limbs be broken, and distorted,
Admit there's chance it does not live—
Pleasure is our prerogative.

^c *Fed her wondering infants, &c.*] In every place we meet with the picture of the Pelican, opening her breast with her bill, and feeding her young ones, with the blood distilling from her. This hath been asserted by many holy writers, and was an hieroglyphic of piety, and pity; among the Egyptians; on which occasion they spared them at their tables *Pseudodox. Epidem.*

The Pelican has a peculiar tenderness for its young, and is supposed to admit them to suck blood from its breast. *Calmet.*

^d *Lady OSTRICH*—] On the least noise, or trivial occasion, she forsakes her eggs, or her young ones; to which perhaps she never returns; or if she does, it may be too late either to restore life to the one, or to preserve the lives of the others. The *Arabs* often meet with a few of the little ones, no bigger than well-grown pullets, half starved, straggling, and moaning about, like so many distressed orphans for their mother. *Shaw's Travels.*

^e *Gives it the elements to nurse.*] She leaveth her eggs in the earth—and forgetteth that the foot may crush them, or that the wild beast may break them. She is hardened against her young ones, as though they were not hers; her labour is in vain without fear; because God hath deprived her of wisdom, neither hath he imparted to her understanding. *Job. xxxix.*

They have so little brains, that *Heliogabalus* had six hundred heads for his supper. *Dr. Young.*

And brooms and brushes be my ruin!
 Ere in a nest I'd sit a stewing—
 Or, for my duty's sake forsooth,
 To nursing sacrifice my youth;—
 Ere let my brats my flesh devour;
 I'd eat them up a score an hour.

Foul fiend—the lovely *Marry* cried,
 Avail! thy horrid person hide;
 Folly and vice thy soul disgrace,
 'Twas these, not *Pallas*, spoil'd thy face,
 And sunk thee to the reptile race.
 Yes, thy own bowels hung thee there—
 A felon, out of Nature's care—
 'Twixt heaven and earth, abhorr'd of both,
 Emblem of selfishness and sloth.

Ye *Cateritans!* who profess
 No business but to dance and dress,
Pantecists! who no God adore,
 Housewives, that stay at home no more,
 Wives without husbands, mothers too,
 Whom your own children never knew,
 Who less the blessed sun esteem
 Than lamps and tapers' greasy gleam;
 Ye morning gamesters, walkers, riders,
 Say, are you *Pelicans* or *Spiders*?

[—*Not Pallas, spoil'd thy face.*] See
 Ovid's *Metamorphosis*, beginning of Book
 VI. the transformation of *Arachne* into a
 Spider, translated by Dr. Creech.

This race of beings may be easily distinguished by their pride, self conceit, and utter impatience of all advice. Ovid intrudes one of them answering the goddess of Wisdom herself in this manner:

Thou doting thing! whose idle babbling
 tongue
 But too well shews the plague of living
 long;
 Hence! and reprove with this your sage
 advice
 Your giddy daughter, or your awkward
 niece;
 Know, I despise your counsel, and am
 still—
 A Woman ever wedded to my will.

Creech.

What then must a poor poet expect from
 the modern *Arachnes*?—if there be any
 such among us.

[*Cateritans, Pantecists, &c.*] It is impossible to guess what particular people are here addressed by the Author. The geographical dictionaries, antient and modern, have been searched in vain. It has been thought, when we are favoured with fuller accounts of the island of *Otabiti*, and its inhabitants, the difficulty may be removed. For my own part, however, judging from the singularity of their manners, I am apt to suspect they are particular calls of those very extraordinary people, the *Hottentots*. *Slawkenbergius.*

ODE TO CONTENTMENT.

[By Mr. Roderic. Author of the Tragedy of
Alfred, &c.]

CHARM'D with those pleasures by the
 rich possess,
 Their gaudy splendor, and their pow'r's
 increase,
 An envious wish lay mantling in my
 breast—
 A wish destructive to domestic peace:
 But heav'n-horn Reason watch'd the
 kindling fire,
 Repell'd its fatal growth, and breath'd
 this warm desire:

Hail, mild Contentment! lovely maid!
 In smiles benignly sweet array'd;
 Free from corroding grief and care;
 Great object of my constant pray'r;
 Take me! O take me to thy arms,
 And feast my soul with heavenly
 charms;
 Let me no longer sigh in vain,
 But ease my throbbing heart from pain:
 Absorb my cares in harmless glee,
 And let my days be spent with thee.

The lovely goddess heard my ardent
 pray'r,
 And darting from the bright ethereal skies
 Esc'd groveling thought, replete with
 envious care,
 From scenes, which active fancy fraught
 with joys
 Grateful sensations in my bosom sprang,
 As thus instruction flow'd serenely from
 her tongue:—
 Go view the lofty mansions of the great,
 Their rooms of pleasure, and their halls
 of state;
 Explore the useless treasures they unfold;
 The marble floor and canopy of gold—
 Mansions, where artists with each other vie,
 To gratify the taste, and charm the eye;
 Where living pictures crowd the painted
 wall,
 And attic splendor fills the statu'd hall;—
 Yet even here, how frequently we find,
 With real cares, far fancy'd ills, combin'd:
 Here oft, when Sol withdraws his genial
 light,
 Yielding old Albion to the shades of
 night,
 Nocturnal riot holds unrivall'd sway,
 While radiant tapers light another day,
 Here blooming beauty woos thee to her
 arms,
 And sweet variety displays her charms;
 Here sensual pleasure flows from bound-
 less wealth,
 And dissipation drains the fount of health.

Say,

Say, is it here eternal sweets reside,
Midst noise unmeaning, and imperious
pride?

No, thus the mind impartially declares,
Their joys are far o'erbalanc'd by their
cares.

Or, dost thou sigh for an immortal name,
A warrior's laurels, or a poet's fame?

Think then, to check the growth of envi-
ous pride,

How Otway liv'd, and how great Cæsar
dy'd.

If Wolsey's riches charm, or Wolsey's
state,

Let these be thine, but think on Wolsey's
fate.

Or, if a statesman's pow'r provoke thy
prayers,

Be thou a statesman, with a statesman's
cares.

Expell'd from these I seek an humbler
lot,

This hermit's moss-grown cell, or rural
cot:

There, oft I revel with my vot'ries blest,
A much approv'd, and much approving
guest;

There, oft my pleasing influence impart,
And nil with jocund mirth, the peasant's
grateful heart.

Next, let thy thoughts to poverty descend,
Where pining want seeks a relieving
friend;

Where wretched fathers, robb'd of health
and ease,

Suffer the tortures of acute disease;—
While helpless infants lift their hands for
succour,

And weeping mothers watch their starving
brood;

O! think what wounds the parent-heart
must feel—

Wounds which the hand of opulence
should heal:

Let scenes like these thy gratitude create,
For might not these have stamp'd thy
wretched fate.

If free from slavery's oppressive chains,
And from some dire disease's tort'ring
pains,

No more repine; but let thy feeling heart,
With extacy, its gratitude impart.—

While thus she spoke, the list'ning ear,
With pleasure, caught th' instructive
sound:

Thus mild Contentment heard my
prayer,

And with her blessings zon'd me round,
No more, with envious eyes, I view

Another's splendor, wealth, or fame;
No more such fancy'd joys pursue,

Deluded by a meteor flame;

But learn my own unenvy'd state to prize,
And fix the ardent wish on more exalted joys

THE BIRTH OF FASHION.

[From the New Bath Guide.]

SURE there are charms by Heav'n
assign'd
To modish life alone,
A grace, an air, a taste refin'd
To vulgar souls unknown.

Nature, my friend, profuse in vain
May ev'ry gift impart,
If unimprov'd, they ne'er can gain
An empire o'er the heart.

Dress be your care, in this gay scene
Of pleasure's bless'd abode,
Enchanting dress! if well I ween,
Fit subject for an ode.

Come then, nymph of various mien,
Vot'ry true of beauty's queen,
Whom the young and aged adore,
And thy different arts explore,

Fashion, come.—On me awhile
Deign, fantastic nymph, to smile,
MORIA * thee in times of yore,
To the motly PROTEUS bore.

Fill'd with thee she went to France,
Land renown'd for complaisance,
Vers'd in science debonnaire,
Bowing, dancing, dressing hair;
There she chose her habitation,
Fix'd thy place of education.
Nymph, at thy auspicious birth
HERE strew'd with flow'rs the earth;
Thee to welcome, all the graces,
Deck'd in ruffles, deck'd in laces,
With the god of love attended,
And the CYPRIAN queen descended.
Now you trip it o'er the globe,
Clad in party-colour'd robe,
And, with all thy mother's sense,
Virtues of your sire dispense.

Goddeß, if from hand like mine
Ought be worthy of thy shrine,
Take the flow'ry wreath I twine,
Lead, oh! lead me by the hand,
Guide me with thy magic wand:
Whether thou in lace and ribbons,
Chuse the form of Mrs. GIBBONS,
Or the Nymph of smiling look,
At Bath yeleft JANETTA COOK.
Bring, O bring thy essence pot,
Amber, musk, and bergamot,

* The Goddess of Folly.

Eau de Chipre, eau de Luce,
 Sans pareil, and Citron juice,
 Nor thy band-box leave behind,
 Fill'd with stores of ev'ry kind;
 All th' enraptur'd bard supposes,
 Who to FANCY odes composes;
 All that FANCY'S self has feign'd,
 In a band-box is contain'd;
 Fainted lawns, and checquer'd shades,
 Crape that's worn by love-lorn maids,
 Water'd tabbies, flower'd brocades;
 Vilets, pinks, Italian posies,
 Myrtles, jessamine, and roses,
 Aprons, caps, and kerchiefs clean,
 Straw-buil'd hats, and bonnets green,
 Catgut gauzes, tippets, ruffs,
 Fans and hoods, and feather'd muffs,
 Stomachers and Paris-nets,
 Ear-rings, necklaces, aigrets,
 Fringes, blonds, and mignonets,
 Fine vermilion for the cheeks,
 Velvet patches à la Grecque.
 Come, but don't forget the gloves,
 Which, with all the smiling loves,
 VENUS caught young CUPID picking
 From the tender breast of chicken;
 Little chicken, worthier far
 Than the birds of JUNO'S car,
 Soft as CYPHEREA'S dove,
 Let thy skin my skin improve;
 Thou by night shall grace my arm,
 And by day shalt teach to charm.

Then, O sweet Goddess, bring with thee
 Thy boon attendant Gaiety,
 Laughter, Freedom, Mirth, and Ease,
 And all the smiling deities,
 Fancy spreading painted sails,
 Loves that fan with gentle gales.—
 But hark—methinks I hear a voice,
 My organs all at once rejoice;
 A voice that says, or seems to say,
 "Sister, hasten, sister gay,
 Come to the pump-room,—come away."

THE BLUSH OF SIMPLICITY.

[By Polwhele.]

WHILE Charlotte conscious that the
 loves,
 Would hide the crimson's transient hue;
 She veils the blush, which only proves
 A heart to love and Corin true.
 In orring maids that fondly stray
 A tinge as bright as thine we see;
 Yet clouded looks its source betray
 Unknown to innocence and thee.
 No cloud thine eyes of candour know
 To shade their sweet expression o'er;
 But to the soft suffusing glow
 They kindle quick, and sparkle more.
 Ah! may such glances ever speak
 The simple blush on Charlotte's cheek!

To the EDITOR of the NOVA-SCOTIA
 MAGAZINE.

SIR,

I AM a great admirer of the antients, and
 I think them the only safe models where-
 by to form our taste. I send you a transla-
 tion from ANACREON; not that I prefer
 him to the other Greek poets; but, know-
 ing how little justice my translation would
 do the original, I selected him for the
 sufferer; remembering a common saying,
 almost proverbial—That it is no sin to mur-
 der a song. If you judge this trifling deser-
 ving of a place in your useful and enter-
 taining Miscellany, it is probable I may
 trouble you with more of the like sort.

I am, Sir, your most humble Servant
 MINIMUS.

Translation of the seventeenth Ode of
 ANACREON.^a

VULCAN, potent God of fire,
 Grant thy poet's fond desire;
 Make me, of thy silver bright,—
 No suit of panoply for fight,^b
 In battles I have no delight.—
 But form a goblet round and fair;
 The source of joy, the bane of care.
 And as your skilful tool you sweep,
 With all your might O sink it deep.

Copy there no star of heaven;—
 Orion and the sisters seven,
 Boötes and the shining Wain
 Would shed their lustre all in vain.
 But carve for me my favourite vine;
 Clusters rich in generous wine;
 Cupid, prompting soft desires;
 Bacchus, feeding Cupid's fires.—
 And, these dear images among,
 Carve Bathylla fair and young.^c

^a This ode of Anacreon is commended
 in elegant terms by Aulus Gellius, in the
 nineteenth book of his *Noctes Atticæ*, chap-
 ter 9.

*Obletati autem sumus, præter multa alia,
 versiculis lepidissimis Anacreontis senis: quos
 equidem scripsi; ut interea labor hic vigiliarum
 et inquietæ suavitatis paulisper vocem atque mo-
 dulorum acquisceret.*

Ton arguræ terebas, &c.

^b The poet here alludes to the story of
 Thetis applying to Vulcan for a suit of ar-
 mour for her son Achilles, which makes
 such a figure in the eighteenth book of the
 Iliad. The ornaments of the shield, there
 described, (see particularly v. 485, 486,
 487, 488.) have suggested some of the fol-
 lowing thoughts in Anacreon's ode.

^c The reason for departing from the
 original in this last line will easily suggest
 itself.

CHRO,

CHRONICLE.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Bengal, March 9.

A Great fire broke out this morning in the square of the fort, where the artificers work, which consumed the whole building; but the progress was stopped by the indefatigable endeavours of Colonel Pearse, the commandant, otherwise the whole garrison might have suffered.

The square was about three hundred feet on each side—the lower part of the building was work-shops, and the upper store-rooms for tents, fixt ammunition, gun-carriages, and small stores. The fire communicated to all the sides nearly at the same instant; it began at the painter's shop, and run through the carpenter's to the place where the carriages were; many of which are saved, with a quantity of fixt ammunition; but all the tents, amounting in value to about one lack, together with stores and gun-carriages, tumbrils, &c. in the whole to three lacks, are destroyed; likewise some stores, arms, and clothing, belonging to the 73d regt. valued at sixty thousand rupees. The building cost about one lack; but as the articles are chiefly country made, except the tents, they will be easily replaced.

The supreme court on Saturday last decided an equity cause, in which Mr. Humphreys, the painter, who sometime ago resided in this country, was complainant, and Sir John Macpherson, defendant.

The suit was brought against Sir John for the supposed value of some paintings, in which the defendant had been employed by the recommendation and introduction given him by Sir John, at the Durbar of Oude—an act of friendship which was seconded by assurances of procuring him payment.

Mr. Humphreys painted five pictures at Lucknow, and received 5000s Rs. for his labour, but not thinking this sufficient, he made an estimate of the value of his time which he computed at 2000 rupees per week for 23 and an-half weeks from the time of receiving his credentials at Calcutta, to the period of his departure from Lucknow—this sum amounted to 47,000 rupees, which he demanded of Sir John Macpherson in consequence of his letters.

Golaum Kadir, who put out the eyes of the Great Mogul, after having been taken prisoner by Scindia, has through his orders had his eyes pulled out, and his legs and arms cut off alive; but he did not

survive this terrible and just execution long.

Accounts have been received from Vizagapatnam of the loss of the India trader, Captain Kepling, in a heavy gale, bound for Pegu, and of the miraculous escape of the captain and four of the crew.

Sixteen men, including the captain, lashed themselves to a raft, on which they did not, however, commit themselves, till about a minute before the vessel went down. In this situation, without rest, and with little food, they continued for nine days, the sea frequently washing over them, and, for a great part of the time, within sight of land, though they were not discernible from the shore.

Despair, famine, and fatigue, drove most of them distracted, when they plunged themselves into the ocean and put an end to their sufferings.

At length the five fortunate survivors made Vizapatam, where they were treated with the greatest care and humanity.

The captain alone bore his fate with fortitude, and his strength was the least exhausted of any of the survivors.

Vienna, July 25. The Emperor's fever is considerably abated, and yesterday his Majesty was so well as to be able to take an airing with an open carriage.

August 10. We have accounts from the frontiers of Turkey, that no sooner was the deposed Grand Vizier returned to Constantinople than he was put under arrest in his palace, and was soon given to understand that his possessions, which are valued at 20,000 purses, or two millions of ducats, were confiscated, and on the 19th he received orders to go to the Palace of the Kaimakan, at the door of which the Sultan's guard seized him, and caused him to be beheaded. His head was exposed to public view for three days with this inscription over it, 'This is the fate of Traitors.' Shortly after this his brother, mother, and wives were brought to the torture, to make them confess where the treasures of their relation was to be found. This family, who enjoyed the entire confidence of the late Sultan Abdül Hamed, is accused of having designed to poison the reigning Sultan. Such severity on the part of Selim, makes him rather feared than loved.

Tirelmont, July 26. A very serious insurrection in this city gives great disturbance to the government. The occasion is as follows; the Mayor having received orders from government to arrest a patriot refugee, who was formerly a Major of the patriotic militia, he found means under

some pretext, to draw him to his house, and had him seized by the militia. Some persons attached to the prisoner, hearing the news, came to the Mayor, and demanded the reason of his arresting a citizen without a previous judgment, which the Mayor ought to know was contrary to their charter. The Mayor answered, that it was abolished. This answer of the Mayor being reported to the people, a tumult immediately arose, and it was resolved to rescue the prisoner from the detachment to whose guard he was committed; they succeeded in their attempt, after killing two of the soldiers; they then fell upon the houses of those who were called Royalists, 34 of which were pillaged and razed to the ground in less than an hour. The prisoner is retired to Maestricht, followed by many of his partizans.

This afternoon a battalion of infantry arrived here from Ghent, which to-morrow morning will continue its route to Tirelmont.

To prevent for the future any pillaging or commotion, Government has published the following ordinance:

‘Joseph, by the grace of God, Emperor of the Romans, &c. &c. Our intention being to put a stop to the pillaging which has been committed of late in our province of Brabant, and to prevent those excesses by protecting, in the most efficacious manner, the lives and property of our faithful subjects, we have, by the advice of our Royal Council, thought proper to enlarge the laws against commotions and pillaging, and to resolve, as appears by the present edict, upon the following points and articles—

1st. Whoever shall have pillaged the house of another by force, or with a mob, shall suffer death.

‘We authorise and empower the Magistrates and common Judges to prosecute and try whoever are guilty of, or accomplices in any riot or pillaging; and that those taken in the fact shall be prosecuted and tried in the quickest manner, upon the spot, by the common Judges; and their sentence (by way of example) be put in execution immediately after their condemnation.

‘4th. Whoever informs the Law-Officer of the place of the pillage of his house, dwelling, or property, and sufficiently proves the act, and swears to the amount of his loss within a fortnight after, shall have the whole made good to him, by the commonalty of the place where the crime was committed, or by the district, in case the commonalty is not able to pay that loss, &c.

Levein, July 31. After what happened at Tirelmont we were in fear of something similar taking place here; and, in fact, our Commandant received accounts that a number of peasants had formed a plan of entering this place on the 26th, upon ringing of the alarm-bell, whilst the people within would find enough to employ the troops; however, the Commandant took the necessary precautions to preserve good order; each battalion was furnished with a piece of cannon, the guns of the place were pointed up the high streets, and the patrols and guards doubled, with orders to stop all whom they should meet armed: In the afternoon some of the military were ill used by the populace, but upon the appearance of a strong detachment the mob dispersed; however, between eight and nine o'clock they began plundering in some of the bye corners of the town, all the bells rang, and the garrison assembled under arms; but were saluted with a volley of stones and musquet shot, which they answered pretty warmly, and the people dispersed, but assembled in other places, and opposed the troops; in short, the confusion became general, and was increased by accounts that a number of peasants were approaching the town. A party of troops was immediately sent against them, upon whom the peasants fired; on which the troops began to fire, which they continued till the mob was dispersed. The firing lasted in the town four hours, and numbers were killed. This day a number of armed peasants were seen on the road to Tirelmont; but a party of Dragoons drove them away, after killing several. Tranquility is now restored, and the preservation of this place was entirely owing to the wise measures taken by our Commandant.

Warsaw, July 22. It is thought that the affair of Prince Poninski will have some consequences, either as to the violation of the Prussian territory on which he was retaken, or as to a number of ecclesiastical and secular persons who were concerned with him in occasioning the misfortunes of Poland at the famous partition of the kingdom, and of the Diet of Delegation, which was established at the desire of some foreign powers to the detriment of this country.

The Marquis of Luchefini, the Prussian Minister, has sent a note to the foreign department, intimating his sorrow that the seizure of Prince Poninski and his son was made in the village of Rubinkowo, thereby violating the Prussian territory.

Prince Poninski is strictly guarded in his prison, and neither his son nor his brother are suffered to come near him.

Paris, August 1. The world will be shocked to hear that the venerable Marshal de Mailly has been butchered by the people.

This nobleman, after having spent more than half a century in the military service of his country, and acquired the greatest reputation as an officer, saw all his merits rewarded with the highest military honour in the power of his Sovereign to bestow—the staff of Marshal of France.

From the noise and bustle of the Court and of the world, he retired to his country seat at La Roche de Vaux, where, at the age of four-score, he was preparing, under the shade of his laurels, for the conclusion of a life which had passed without stain or blemish.

The mob assembled in his neighbourhood, went in a large body to his Chateaux, and with vociferation commanded him to come forth.

The venerable General, with the same calm firmness with which he had often marched up to a battery, or entered the breach, went forth to the enraged multitude, and asked what was the meaning of their tumultuous meeting.

They told him that as he was a General, they presumed he was a friend of the Court, and consequently an enemy to the people;

But that there should be no room for them to doubt, they presented him with a National cockade, and desired that he would immediately put it in his hat, threatening at the same time, that his refusal should cost him his life.

He smiled when he heard this menace. 'Good people,' said he, 'you seem to know but little of the character of a soldier, or you would not attempt to move by threats, a man whose profession has taught him to look death in the face, and despise every danger that might threaten his life. I have often braved death in the career of glory, and I will not stoop so low as to purchase, by a base compliance of a requisition supported by a menace, the few days or months of life that might yet remain to an old man of four-score. It is now too late in the day for me to think of changing my principles.'

The people, who were in earnest when they threatened his life, hearing this speech, rushed in upon him, and seizing him, cut off his head.

Thus a man who bravely fought sixty years in the service of his country, fell by the hands of a lawless mob.

4. The Viscount de Noailles rose in the National Assembly, and in a glowing speech said, now was the time for the Assembly to prove their genuine patriotism to the

people by shewing themselves their affectionate and disinterested Representatives, devoid of every motive but the common good; and by giving a great example to nations and to ages, in the sacrifice of every abusive right and privilege whatever, incidental to all the Orders, Provinces, Cities, and Communities, raise the French name to a height unparalleled in history and consecrate their memory as worthy of representing the enlightened knowledge, the courage, the virtues of so great and generous a people. No sooner had he made a motion for the abolition of the Seigniorial Rights, than the whole body of Nobles and Clergy rose as it were by one common impulse to express their warmest approbation; and the most sublime struggle took place for several hours, of who should be the foremost in pointing out some fresh offering to liberty. The Deputies of the Provinces, such as Franche Comte, Burgundy, Britanny, Dauphine, Artois, &c. &c. and the cities under similar circumstances of possessing peculiar privileges and exemptions, joined in the general burst of Freedom; and after an enthusiastic conversation, not debate, which lasted from seven o'clock till three in the morning of yesterday, the following articles were unanimously agreed on.

Art. I. Equality of taxes, to commence from the present moment.

Art. II. The renunciation of all privileges for Orders, Cities, Provinces, and Individuals; a general uniformity to take place through the whole kingdom.

Art. III. The redemption of all feudal rights.

Art. IV. Suppression of mortmain and personal servitude.

Art. V. The produce of the redemption of the estates of the Clergy to be applied to the augmentation of the salaries of Parish Priests.

Art. VI. The abolition of the Game Laws and Captaineries.

Art. VII. The abolition of Seignioral Jurisdctions.

Art. VIII. The abolition of the venality of offices.

Art. IX. Justice to be rendered gratuitously to the people.

Art. X. The abolition of privileged dove coes and warrens (a dreadful and serious grievance to the French peasant).

Art. XI. The redemption of tithes and field rents.

Art. XII. It is forbidden to create in future any rights of the same nature, or any other feudal rights whatever.

Art. XIII. The abolition of the fees of Parish Priests, for births, marriages, or deaths, except in the cities.

Art. XIV. A speedy augmentation of the benefices of Parish Priests.

Art. XV. The suppression of the *droits Annates*, or first fruits. The sum paid by France to the Pope on this head, amounted annually to 357,133l. sterling.

Art. XVI. The admission of all ranks of citizens to civil and military employments.

Art. XVII. The suppression of the duties of removal paid by the Parish Priests to the Bishops in certain provinces.

Art. XVIII. The suppression of the Corporation and Wardships.

Art. XIX. The suppression of the Plurality of Livings.

Art. XX. A medal to be struck to commemorate this memorable day, expressive of the abolition of all privileges, and of the complete union of all the provinces and all the Citizens.

XXI. *Te Deum* to be sung in the King's Chapel, and throughout all France.

Art. XXII. Louis the XVI. proclaimed the Restorer of the Public Liberty.

These resolutions to be printed, and immediately circulated through the kingdom.

There are several other articles; such as, the abolition of all unmerited pensions; all Artizans to be exempt from taxes, who employ no journeymen; all suits for feudal and royal rights now pending in the Courts, to be suspended till the Constitution is completed, &c.

7. Yesterday a large decked boat was stopped upon the river, loaded with gunpowder and small shot; the Commander, or Captain, produced a passport, signed by the Marquis De La Fayette, and countersigned by the Marquis De La Salle, second in command.

The populace immediately inferred there was some plot against their liberty, ran to the Hotel de Ville to call on the Marquis La Fayette for an explanation concerning the powder, and loudly demanded his head.

The Marquis pacified the incensed multitude, by signing his name several times before them, and making them remark, that it bore no resemblance with that upon the passport, and that it was a snare designedly laid to avert from him the affections of the people. The populace, thinking then it must be the Marquis of Salle, went to his house, broke it open, searched all papers, and put a seal upon all his effects. He luckily was not within.

While they were gone there, M. Le Fayette assembled some militia to guard all the avenues of the Hotel de Ville, in order to prevent the multitude from returning there. The project remains in a style of mystery, as it is not possible the

gentlemen above mentioned could be concerned in the proceeding; if they had, the populace would readily have been appeased, by their avowing the powder to be intended for the defence of the People.

12. The sad events which so rapidly succeed each other in our Provinces affect us greatly. In the inaccessible mountains of Haut. Vivarais and Cevennes there are above 30,000 men armed, not to preserve order, but to create confusion.

13. The following is the speech of M. Neckar to the National Assembly on proposing the loan:—

I come, Sirs, to lay before you the present state of the finances, and the indispensable necessity of finding immediate resources.

On my return to the Ministry, in the month of August last, there were only four hundred thousand franks, in money or bills, in the Royal Treasury; the deficit between the revenues and the ordinary expences of the State was enormous, and the operations prior to that period, had destroyed the public credit.

Under the pressure of these difficulties, it was necessary to conduct affairs without trouble or convulsion, till the period should arrive when the National Assembly, having taken into consideration the state of affairs, should restore tranquility to the nation, and establish on a permanent foundation the government of this country.

That period was procrastinated beyond our expectation; and meanwhile extraordinary expences, and unexpected diminutions in the produce of the revenues have augmented the embarrassment of our Finances.

The immense succours in grain, which the King was obliged to procure for his people, have occasioned not only considerable advances, but have also caused a very great loss; because the King could not sell this grain at the price at which it was purchased, without exceeding the ability of the people, and by that means exciting a spirit of tumult and revolt.—Public disorder however, continued to increase, and pillages were daily committed, which the public force was unable to repress, at length the general misery, and the defect of labour, obliged his Majesty to issue out succours of immense magnitude.

Extraordinary works and manufactures were established about Paris, merely with a view of giving employment to a multitude of people who could not get work otherways; and the number of these has increased in such a manner that at this moment they amount to upwards of 12,000 men. The King pays them twenty sous per day; an expence independent of the cost!

costs of tools, and of the salaries of the superintendants.

I will not take up your time by the detail of other extraordinary expences which the necessity of the time has occasioned; but I must not omit to give you an account of a circumstance of the greatest moment; that is the palpable diminution of the revenue, and the daily progress of that evil.

The price of salt has been reduced one half by constraint, in the districts of Caen and Alençon; and this disorder begins to prevail in Maine. The sale of illegal salt and tobacco is carried on by convoys, and by open force in part of Lorraine, of Trois Eveches, and of Picardie. Soissons, and the district of Paris, begin to feel the same disorder.

All the barriers of the capital are not yet re-established; and one only being open is sufficient to occasion a great loss to the Revenue. The recovery of the Droits d'Aides is subjected to much opposition. The offices have been pillaged, the registers dispersed, and the collection of the taxes has been stopped or suspended in many places; every day, in short, brings with it some new disaster.

Delays are also experienced in the payment of the Tailles of the Vingtiemes (twentieths) and of the Capitation Tax, inasmuch that the Receivers General and the collectors of the Taille are reduced to the last extremity, and several of them are unable to make good the conditions of their contract.

I have therefore, Sirs, no doubt that you will feel the necessity of examining, without a moment's delay, the state which I present you of the succour indispensably necessary to prevent a suspension of payment; and the King makes no doubt that you will then give your sanction to the Loan, which the security of the public engagements demands, as well as the indispensable expences for the space of two months; a space of time that will suffice, if not to finish, at least to advance greatly the glorious business in which you are engaged; to establish a permanent coalition, such as France had reason to expect from your enlightened zeal, and from the just and beneficent disposition of his Majesty.

It is probable that with Thirty Millions it will be possible to supply the public necessity during the above-mentioned period; but there is no time to be lost to procure this sum. It will not in my opinion, be necessary to endeavour to obtain credit by holding out the lure of exorbitant interest; it is not from the hands of frigid speculation that we must expect assistance in the present situation of affairs, but from the

generous and patriotic sentiment of Frenchmen, and that sentiment would spur at the idea of accepting more than the usual interest.

I will therefore, Sirs, propose, that the loan shall be raised simply at five per cent. for a twelvemonth, to be reimbursed to the lender at the next meeting of the States General after that period.

That this reimbursement shall be placed in the first line of the arrangements which you will make for the establishment of a sinking fund.

But as it is highly probable, that in consequence of your wise regulations, the affairs of the nation in general, and especially the finance, may arrive at a high degree of prosperity; and as five per cent. will then become a very considerable interest, I propose, for the advantage of the lender, that the sum borrowed shall not be reimbursed without his consent.

I propose that this loan shall be in bills, payable to the bearer, or in contracts, as the lender shall think fit.

I propose that a list shall be made out of all who shall subscribe to this patriotic loan; and that this list shall be communicated to the National Assembly, and preserved, if you think proper, in your registers.

You cannot, Sirs, refuse your sanction to this loan. Instructions, no doubt, from some of your constituents, demand that the constitution should be formed before you give your consent to any tax or loan; but was it possible to foresee the difficulties that have retarded your endeavours?—Was it possible to foresee the unprecedented revolution that has taken place in the course of three weeks?—Your constituents would exclaim, if they could make themselves heard in this assembly, 'Save the State, save our country; for our repose, for our welfare you are accountable!' And how much, Sirs, are you accountable at this moment to your country—at this moment that government has lost totally its power, and that you alone possess some means to resist the tempest! As for me, I have fulfilled my task. I have put in your hands the knowledge of affairs; and whatever mode you may chuse to adopt, I shall think it my duty to respect your opinion, and to give you to the last moment of my life every proof of zeal and of attachment to your service.

It must be confessed, that in the midst of the troubles which agitate this nation, the success of the Loan is by no means ascertained. A first Loan, however, guaranteed by the representatives of a nation the most attached to the laws of honour and the richest in Europe, cannot possibly

excite any real diffidence in the lender. It is obvious also, that independent of the generous and patriotic sentiments which shall favour the success of this Loan, there are many motives of policy sufficient to determine men of property to subscribe. It is plain that every one has an interest to prevent public confusion, and to give you time to digest and carry your plans into effect. Ah! Sirs, how necessary, how pressing is that duty become! You are witness to the disorders that prevail in every part of the kingdom. Those disorders will increase, if you do not speedily apply a salutary, and a saving hand. The materials of structure must not be dispersed or destroyed at a time that the ablest architects are employed in forming the design.

Notwithstanding the evils that press us on all sides, the kingdom remains entire, and the association of your talents and abilities will soon restore the State to more than wonted vigour and raise the Nation to a degree of prosperity at which it has never yet arrived. Let nobody, therefore either in this Assembly or in this Nation, be discouraged; the King is sensible of the truth, the King wishes the welfare of his subjects, his subjects have preferred for his person an affection which the restoration of public tranquillity will fortify and augment.—Let us then Sirs, abandon ourselves to this happy prospect.—One day, perhaps, amidst the sweets of a wise and well-tempered system of Liberty, and of a confidence unequalled, by the clouds of suspicion, the French Nation will efface from her memory this season of calamity, and in the enjoyments of blessings which we shall owe to our generous efforts, she will never separate from her gratité the name of a Monarch on whom, in your affection, you have bestowed so glorious a title.

14. A letter from Boulogne, dated the 9th instant, informs us, that the inhabitants have armed themselves, to the number of 2000, and forced the citadel; the Commandant of which place, the Duke de Fitz-james, had very narrowly escaped with his life.

20. On Monday Monsieur Mirabeau made the report of the Committee for the declaration of the rights of man. This declaration consists of the nineteen following Articles, preceded by a preamble:

The representatives of the French people, constituted in a National Assembly, considering that the ignorance, the forgetfulness, or neglect of the rights of men are the only cause of the public misfortunes, and of the corruption of government, have resolved to re-establish, in a solemn declaration, the rights, natural, unalienable, and sacred, of man; in order

that this declaration, constantly presented to all the members of the social body, may, without ceasing, remind them of their rights and duties; in order that the acts of the legislative and executive power, being at every instant compared with the end of every political institution, may be the more respected; in order that the claims of the citizens, founded hereafter on simple and incontestible principles, may turn to the support of the constitution, and the happiness of all:

In consequence, the National Assembly, acknowledges and declares the following articles:

1. All men are born equal and free; none has more right than another to make use of his faculties, natural or acquired; this right, common to all, has no other limit than the conscience of him who exercises it, and which forbids him to make use of it to the detriment of his fellow-creatures.

2. Every political body, expressly or tacitly, receives the existence of a social contract, by which each individual places, in common, his person and faculties under the supreme direction of the general will, and at the same time the body receives every individual as a part of it.

3. All powers to which a nation is subject arising from itself, no body, no individual, can have any authority which is not derived from it. Every political association has the unalienable right to establish, to modify, or to change the constitution, that is, the form of its government, the distribution and the bounds of the different powers which compose it.

4. The common good of all, and not the particular interest of any man, or class of men whatever, is the principal end of all political associations. A nation ought not to acknowledge other laws than those which have been expressly approved, and consented to by itself, or its representatives often renewed, legally elected, always existing, frequently assembled, acting freely according to the forms prescribed by the constitution.

5. The law, being the expression of the general will, ought to be general in its object, and always tend to insure to all the citizens, liberty, property, and civil equality.

6. The liberty of the citizen consists in being subject only to the law, in obeying only the authority established by the law, in being able, without fear of punishment, to make every use of his faculties, which is not forbid by law, and consequently to resist oppression.

7. The citizen, thus free in his person, can be accused only before the tribunals established

established by law; he cannot be arrested, detained, or imprisoned, but in cases where these precautions are necessary to insure the reparation or punishment of a crime, and according to the forms prescribed by the law; he is to be proceeded against publicly, publicly confronted, publicly judged. No pains should be inflicted but those determined by the law before accusation: these pains are to be proportioned to the nature of the crime, and equal to all citizens.

8. Thus, free in all his thoughts and in his expressions, the citizen has the right to divulge them by speech, by writing, by printing, with the express reserve not to attack the rights of others. Letters in particular are sacred.

9. Thus, free in his actions, the citizen may travel, change his abode wherever he pleases; even quit his country, except in cases indicated by the law.

10. It would be to attack the rights of citizens, to deprive them of the power of assembling in a legal form, to consult on public affairs, to give instructions to their representatives, or to demand redress for their grief.

11. Every citizen has a right to acquire, to possess, to fabricate, to trade, to employ his powers and his industry, and to dispose of his property as he pleases. The law alone can molest this liberty for the general interest.

12. No one can be obliged to give up his property to another: The sacrifice is due only to the whole society, and only in case of public necessity; and in that case society owes to the proprietor an equivalent indemnity.

13. Every citizen without distinction, ought to contribute to the public expenses, in proportion to his wealth.

14. Every contribution hurts the rights of man, if it discourages labour and industry, if it tends to excite cupidity, to corrupt morals, and deprive the people of the means of subsistence.

15. The receipt of the public revenues ought to be strictly accounted for, by fixed rules, easy to be known, so that the contributors may obtain speedy justice; and that the salaries of the collectors of the revenues may be strictly fixed.

16. Oeconomy in the administration of the public expence is an indispensable duty: The salary of the officers of the state ought to be moderate; and recompences should be granted only for real services.

17. Civil equality is not equality of property, or of distinctions; it consists in making every citizen equally obliged to submit to the law, and in giving him an equal right to the protection of the law.

18. All citizens are equally admissible to all employments, civil, ecclesiastical, and military, according to their capacity.

19. The establishment of the army belongs only to the legislature, who is to fix the number of troops; their use is the defence of the state, they are always to be subordinate to the civil authority, they can do nothing relating to the internal tranquility, but under the inspection of magistrates appointed by the law, known to the people, and responsible for the orders they give.

After reading this declaration, Monsieur Bergasse reported from the Committee of Constitution some general principles of a code of civil and criminal laws, which we shall give in our next.

Lisbon, Aug. 2. His Majesty has made many promotions in his land forces; amongst others, that of a Camp Marshal, and of 16 brigadiers; Don Sebastian Correa de Sa has been appointed Camp Marshal.

To encrease our commerce in India, the Brasils, and on the Coasts of Africa, his Majesty has published a decree, dated the 27th of May last, by which all the merchandize from Malabar, which has remained there for some years, without being sold, is to pay no exportation duty, let it be exported under any flag whatever; and those which shall be sent to the Brasils in any private vessels shall be exempt from paying entrance duty. Those merchandizes which come from Goa and Malabar are to pay the usual entrance duties at Lisbon, on which they will be allowed ten per cent. drawback, if exported.

Genoa, August 3. On the 30th ult. his Excellency Ellerame Pallivico was elected Doge of this Republic, with the usual formalities.

Stockholm, Aug. 4. Accounts received from Finland mention a very smart action, which took place on the evening of the 20th of July, near Parkumaki, between the corps commanded by Brigadier General Steding, and the Russian troops under Lieutenant-General Schultz, in which the Russians were forced to retreat, with the loss of two hundred killed, and between four and five hundred taken prisoners, with the cannon, ammunition, and baggage.

Munheim, Aug. 14. The Count d'Artois, who arrived here on the 9th inst. is departed for Italy. The day before yesterday the Prince of Conde arrived here, together with the Dukes de Bourbon and d'Enghein, the Princess Louisa de Conde, the Marquis and the Marchioness d'Antichamp, and the Marquis de Lamberti, the Count de Choiseul, &c. in all 46 persons.

Brussels, Aug. 18. The fermentation in this country increases every day. On the 14th inst. a tumult happened at Tournay, where a person having bought a considerable quantity of corn at the market, was taken into custody as a monopolist. The alarm bell having been rung, the populace assembled, and pillaged five houses; but the few troops that were in the town, assisted by the Bourgeois, and a party of the regiment of Murray, which had arrived from Mons, soon restored tranquility, though not without firing upon the insurgents, by which five of them were killed.

A great number of young men having received passports from the Magistrates of this Town, are gone towards the frontiers; but this morning orders are issued out by the Government to prohibit the Magistrates from granting any more passports, unless to persons well known.

Dunkirk, Aug. 23. Last night the Duke of Fitz-James experienced the most unwarrantable and disrespectful insults from the populace of this city; as he was passing by the cathedral to the Grand Place, he was met by a large mob, who so severely pelted him with dirt, brick bats, &c. that had he not retreated into the house of the Intendant, he probably would have fallen a victim to their fury. A Burgher's guard, consisting of the principal inhabitants, protected him there; and about ten o'clock escorted him to Gravelines, where the Duke's regiment has remained in garrison ever since they were driven out of Boulogne by a similar rising of the people.

BRITISH NEWS.

London, Aug. 8.

THE King has been pleased to constitute and appoint the Right Honourable William Pitt, the Honourable Edward James Ellet, the Right Honourable Richard Earl of Mornington of the kingdom of Ireland, Knight of the illustrious order of St. Patrick, the Right Honourable John Jefferies Pratt, commonly called Lord Viscount Bayham, and the Right Honourable Henry Bathurst, commonly called Lord Apsley, to be Commissioners for executing the office of Treasurer of His Majesty's Exchequer.

15. The King has been pleased to constitute and appoint the Right Honourable John Earl of Chatham, Richard Hopkins, Esq; the Right Honourable Charles George Lord Arden, and Samuel Lord Hood, Vice Admiral of the Blue, both of the Kingdom of Ireland, Sir Francis Drake, Bart. Rear-

Admiral of the Red, the Right Honourable Robert Grosvenor, commonly called Lord Viscount Belgrave, and the Honourable John Thomas Townshend, to be His Majesty's Commissioners for executing the office of High Admiral of the Kingdoms of Great-Britain and Ireland, and the Dominions, Islands and Territories hereunto belonging.

The King has been pleased to constitute and appoint the Right Honourable Constantine John Lord Mulgrave, of the Kingdom of Ireland, and the Right Honourable James Graham, commonly called Marquis of Graham, to be Receiver and Paymaster General of His Majesty's Guards, Garrisons and Land Forces.

18. The King has been pleased to grant the dignity of a Marquis of the kingdom of Great-Britain, to the Right Honourable James Earl of Salisbury, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name, stile, and title of Marquis of Salisbury, in the County of Wilts.

The King has been pleased to grant the dignity of a Marquis of the kingdom of Great-Britain, to the Right Honourable Thomas Viscount Weymouth, Knight of the Most Noble Order of the Garter, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name, stile, and title of Marquis of Bath, in Somerset.

The King has been pleased to grant the dignity of an Earl of the kingdom of Great-Britain, to the Right Honourable George Viscount Mount Edgecombe and Vallerott, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name, stile, and title of Earl of Mount Edgecombe.

The King has been pleased to grant the dignity of Viscount and Earl of the kingdom of Great Britain, to the Right Honourable Hugh Lord Fortescue, and the heirs male of his body lawfully begotten, by the name, stile, and title of Viscount Ebrington, of Ebrington, in the county of Gloucester, and Earl Fortescue.

22. A letter from Rotterdam advises, that notwithstanding the rigorous coercion of the press throughout Brabant, printed papers are almost daily circulated at Brussels of the most inflammatory nature; one of them, just published, conjures the Burghers to follow the example set them by the people of France, and by one spirited effort destroy the fabrick of arbitrary power and tyrannical dominion, which, if they neglect the present opportunity to effect, they must in the eyes of all Europe be considered as degenerate descendants of their brave Belgic ancestors. Government has offered a reward of 10,000 guilders for a discovery of the author or printer of this paper.

A horrid event has just happened in France, which proves the necessity of establishing, as soon as possible, their Municipal Laws: it is the assassination of M. de Rocher, Exempt of the Marechaussee of Pally. There are various accounts of this affair; but the one most credited is, that he received a mortal stroke from a scree, as he was endeavouring to prevent the Swifs from taking their standard out of the place where it was kept.

The following is said to be the most authentic and minute account of the action between the Russian and Swedish fleets, which has yet been communicated to the public:

Admiral Czyczagoff, with 20 ships of the line (having left two at Revel) besides frigates, &c. arrived on the 25th of July in sight of the enemy's fleet, between Høborg and Kefershøft, at 27 leagues and a half N. E. by E. of Hørnholm. The Swedish fleet consisted of 21 ships and ten frigates. Night coming on, they lost sight of each other. The next day, the 26th, the Swedes made an attack. The Russian fleet extended from South-West to North-East. M. de Mouffin Ponschkin's division on the west, the Admiral's in the centre, the Rear-Admiral Spiridof was on the east; the wind was N. E. and the Swedes went before it. Some time after one o'clock, the van, and part of the centre, began to fire at the distance of about half a league.—Very few shots took effect on either side, and the Russian Admiral gave orders to cease firing. At four o'clock the Swedish Admiral tacked, though still remaining at the same distance as before; they placed themselves on a parallel line with the other fleet, yet so as to have the centre at a greater distance than the van and rear. The Swedish Admiral's ship was in the centre, having before him his six seconds, and so well surrounded and covered, that if he had even been closer, he neither could have fired nor have been annoyed by the enemy. Mr. de Czyczagoff still reserved his fire; and out of contempt to the Swedes, ordered some of the crew to undress and swim round the ship.—Mr. de Mouloufsky, who commanded the leading ship of Mr. Siridof's division made incredible efforts to approach the enemy, and had got a little nearer, as did also five other ships; they sustained the enemy's fire till eight o'clock in the evening, with little damage. The Russians had about fifty men killed and wounded. By the bursting of some of the guns on board the Derys (a Russian ship), about 20 men were killed, and the ship was set on fire four times.—The Russians have suffered a great loss in their brave Capt.

Mouloufsky, who was wounded by a random shot almost at the beginning of the action, and three quarters of an hour after he expired, bravely animating his crew. The Swedes were seen towing their second ship of the line, and a frigate. The three following days, the weather being calm, the fleets were mostly in sight of each other. On Thursday the 30th a brisk North-East wind sprung up; and the Admiral Czyczagoff endeavoured to bear to; but he perceived that the Swedish fleet disappeared by degrees, and had entirely retired into Carlscrone towards the evening of the 31st. As soon as Mr. de Kossainoff's squadron had received intelligence of Mr. Czyczagoff's arrival, the wind being favourable, he weighed anchor to join the Russian fleet, which he accomplished on the 31st of August. The Russians are now masters of the sea.

29. In Poland the Commission of War is still assiduously occupied in the organization and interior discipline of their army. Their plan is, first, to ascertain the number of troops that Poland ought to keep on foot, their division into different corps, their pay, &c. According to the accounts presented to the Commission, 60,000 men will cost them 34 millions of florins; 100,000, 47 millions. They are yet ignorant what the amount of the imposts lately established will be; it is, however, concluded on, that should the funds be insufficient, they must be immediately augmented, so as to complete 100,000 effective men.

The Porte has signified that the restitution of the Crimea and Oczakow must precede any negotiation respecting peace.

According to letters of a very recent date from Madrid, his Catholic Majesty has taken the precaution of drawing a line of troops from St. Sebastian to Gironna, which is across the kingdom where it communicates with France. Instructions have also been sent to the dock-yards, and to every seaport in the kingdom, to be very particular in examining strangers, and obliging such as have no real business to depart the kingdom.

IRISH TRANSACTIONS.

Dublin, Aug. 12.

THIS day being the anniversary of the birth of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, the flag was displayed on Redford Tower, the great guns at the Salute battery in his Majesty's park the Phoenix were fired three rounds, and answered

answered by volleys from the regiments in garrison, which were drawn up in the Royal Square at the Barracks. In the evening a play was given by their Excellencies the Lords Justices to the Ladies; and at night there were bonfires, illuminations, and every other demonstration of joy throughout the city.

His Majesty, by his Royal Letters, having appointed Arthur Wolfe, Esq; to be one of His Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council of Ireland, he this day in Council took the usual oaths, and his place at the Board accordingly.

His Majesty's Royal Letters being received, granting the following dignities, Letters Patent are preparing to be passed under the Great Seal of this kingdom accordingly.

To Henry-Smith, Earl of Clanrickarde, Knight of the most illustrious order of St. Patrick, and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of Marquis of Clanrickarde, in the county of Galway.

To Randal-William, Earl of Antrim, Knight of the most honourable order of the Bath, and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of Marquis of Antrim, in the county of Antrim.

To George-de la Poer, Earl of Tyrone, Knight of the most illustrious order of St. Patrick, and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of Marquis of Waterford.

To Wills, Earl of Hillsborough, and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of Marquis of Downshire.

To Francis-Charles, Viscount Clerawly, the dignity of Earl Annesley, of Castlewellan, in the county of Down, to him and the heirs male of his body, and in default of such issue, to his brother, the Honourable Richard Annesley, and the heirs male of his body.

To William-Willoughby, Viscount Enniskillen, and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of Earl of Enniskillen, in the county of Fermanagh.

To John Viscount Erne, and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of Earl Erne, of Crum-castle, in the county of Fermanagh.

To John-Joshua, Baron Carysfort, Knight of the most illustrious order of St. Patrick, and the male heirs of his body, the dignity of Earl of Carysfort.

To John Lord Earlsfort, Chief Justice of his Majesty's Court of King's Bench in this kingdom, the dignity of Viscount Clonmell, of Clonmell, in the county of Tipperary.

To John Newport, of New-Park, in the county of Kilkenny, Esq; the dignity of a Baronet to him and the heirs male of his body, and in default of male issue, to

his brother, William Newport, Esq; of Waterford, and the heirs male of his body.

To Robert Batefon Harvey, of Kiloquin, in the county of Antrim, Esq; the dignity of a Baronet to him and the heirs male of his body, and in default of such issue, to the heirs male of his father, the late Richard Batefon, of Londonderry, Esq.

To Samuel Hayes, of Drumboe Castle, in the county of Donegal, Esq; and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of a Baronet.

To Robert Hodson, of Hollybrook, in the county of Wicklow, Esq; and the heirs male of his body, the dignity of a Baronet.

14. Letters Patent have been passed under the Great Seal of this kingdom, constituting and appointing the Right Honourable John Earl of Glandore, and the Right Honourable John Joshua Lord Carysfort, K. S. P. Guardians and Keepers of the Rolls, Records, &c. of the High Court of Chancery in this kingdom.

Letters Patent have also been passed, granting unto the Right Honourable Arthur Wolfe the office and place of his Majesty's Attorney General; and

To John Toler, Esq; the office and place of his Majesty's Solicitor General in this kingdom.

19. Letters Patent have been passed under the Great Seal of Ireland, granting unto the Honourable Joseph Hewitt, the office and place of his Majesty's second Serjeant at Law, in this kingdom.

Letters Patent have also been passed granting unto Henry Duquero, Esq; the office and place of his Majesty's third Serjeant at Law, in this kingdom.

Letters Patent have been passed under the Great Seal of this kingdom, granting unto the Right Honourable George Henry Laws, Earl of Carhampton, the office and place of Lieutenant-General of his Majesty's Ordnance, in this kingdom.

BRITISH AND IRISH MARRIAGES.

June 30.

AT Bath, at the Square-chapel, Mr. Treal, to Mrs. Du Barry, eldest daughter of Sir George Colebrook.

Lord Newberg to Miss Webb.

At Edinburgh, John Cheape, Esq; of Rossie, to Miss Elizabeth Dalvell, fourth daughter to the deceased John Dalvell, of Lingo.

July 2. At Great Horkley, near Colchester, Richard Thomas Timms, Esq; Captain

Captain of the 44th regiment, to Miss Emma Purvis, eldest daughter of the late George Purvis, Esq; of Sheerness.

A few days since, Mr. Phillips, of Bristol, to Mrs. Ireland, his sixth wife.

At St. George's, Hanover-square, Henry Lefanu, Esq; to Miss Sheridan, sister of B. Sheridan, Esq.

At Liverpool, Captain Clay, of the 40th regiment of foot, to Miss Charlotte Pole, second daughter of the late Major Pole, of Liverpool.

A few days ago, Mr. Robert Barry Fitzgerald, to Miss Isabella Fitzgerald, daughter of Robert Fitzgerald, Esq; of Mount Tallent, in the county of Dublin.

8. At Greenwich, Adam Ogilvie, Esq; of Hardwoodmyres, in Scotland, to Miss Elliot, youngest daughter of the late Gavin Elliot, Esq.

Fitzwilliam Barrington, Esq; second son of Sir Fitzwilliam Barrington, Bart, to Miss Marshal, daughter of Samuel Marshal, Esq; Captain in the royal navy, and one of the Commissioners of the victualling.

10. George Douglas, Esq; of Cavers, to Lady Grace Stewart, daughter of the right honourable the Earl of Mora.

Lately, at Castle Driscoll, in the county of Tipperary, in Ireland, Mr. Egan, aged 38, to Miss Driscoll, aged fifteen!

23. At Minchinghampton, in Gloucestershire, Mr. Nath, Cambridge, aged 75, to Mrs. Mary Wheeler, a brisk widow of 23.

25. At Manchester, Arthur Miller, Esq; of Manchester-hall, Warwickshire, to Miss Christiana Scholey.

26. At St. James's church, Charles Drummond, Esq; son of Robert Drummond, Esq; of St. James's-square, to Miss Lockwood, third daughter of the rev. Edward Lockwood, of Portman-square.

29. At Glasgow, the rev. Mr. John Henderson, minister of the gospel at Monkwearmouth, in the county of Durham, to Miss Mary Haly, daughter of the late rev. Mr. John Haly, minister of the gospel at Clackmannan.

At Margate, Mr. Tomlin, jun. of North Down, to Miss Cramp, with a fortune of at least 60,000*l.* Taking their ages together, two and thirty will be the amount.

On the 30th ult. at Edinburgh, John Yuille, late of the University of Edinburgh, M. D. physician in Kendal, to Miss Catharine Campbell, daughter of the deceased John Campbell, Esq; late of the royal bank of Scotland.

Aug. 3. By special licence, at the house of John Stanley, Esq; member of parliament for Hastings, in Queen Ann-street, Cavendish-square, the honourable William

Finch, brother of the Earl of Aylesford, to Miss Boucher, daughter of the late Henry Roucher, Esq; of St. Christopher's.

6. At the Countess of Errol's, Charles Cameron, Esq; banker, in London, to the honourable lady Margaret Hay, daughter to the late Earl of Errol.

7. By special licence, by the rev. Robert Park Welland, A. M. Fellow of Exeter college, Oxford, at Lady Darnley's, in Berkley-square, Lawrence Park, Esq; member of parliament for Ashburton, and only son of Sir Robert Park, Bart. to Lady Bligh.

8. Mr. M. A. Taylor, by the reverend Mr. Hume, to Miss Fame, daughter of the reverend Sir Henry Fame, prebendary of Durham.

10. At Greenwich, Charles Stirling Esq; of the royal navy, youngest son of Sir William Stirling, to Miss Charlotte Grote, second daughter of the late Andrew Grote, Esq; of Blackheath.

14. Sir Patrick Blake, Bart. of Laugham hall, Suffolk, to Miss Phipps, of Bury.

Lately at Lintz, in Upper Austria, George Sheldon, Esq; to the Countess Dowager of Daun, daughter of Charles Prince of Aversperg, and widow of Leopold Count Daun, Count of the sacred Roman empire, and Prince of Tiano, in Naples, and son of Field Marshal Count Daun.

In Dublin, Henry Cavendish, Esq; eldest son of the right honourable Sir Henry Cavendish, Bart. to Miss Cooper, niece to the Bishop of Killaloe.

17. Colonel Hamilton St. George, to Miss M. Calender, of Craigforth.

DEATHS.

JUNE 1. At Park, in Ireland, the seat of Sir Richard de Bourgh, Bart. Nehemiah Donnelan, Esq; late lieutenant-colonel of his Majesty's 38th regiment.

20. At Lewisham, William Campbell, Esq; one of the commissioners of the navy.

Lately, at Kingston, Surry, Capt. Price, commander of the Ceres Indiaman, lately arrived from China.

23. At his house in Lincoln's-inn-fields, of an apoplexy, William Ewer, Esq; one of the members for Dorchester, and a director of the Bank of England.

26. At Southampton, (where he was for the recovery of his health) Arthur Baynes, Esq; in the 65th year of his age, surgeon major to the garrison of Gibraltar, and director of the hospitals there during the last siege.

28. At Bath, Colonel Slaughter. This gentleman made a temporary retreat from this

this country, on account of the fatal event of the duel between Col. Roper and Lieut. Purefoy, and in which he was second to the former. Retiring on that occasion to Lisle, he had a fall from his horse, by which his skull was fractured, and this injury was followed by a temporary delirium—His native air promised much in the first instance; but in the end he fell a victim to the accident.

29. Lady Middleton, in child-bed. It was her first child—she was in her 47th year. Lady Middleton when she married Mr. Munday, had 90,000*l.* and 11,000*l.* a year—she had been married 18 months.

30. At Coltness, the right honourable Lady Frances Stewart, relict of Sir James Stewart Denham, of Coltness and Westfield, B^{arr}. and sister of the present Earl of Wemyss.

July 15. At Kenilworth, Mrs. Craven, widow of the late rev. Mr. Craven, of Staunton Lacy, and mother to the present Lord Craven.

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS.

Halifax, Oct. 15.

ON Saturday the 3d inst. was held a *Visitation* of the Academy near Windsor. His Excellency Gov. Parr was pleased to attend on this occasion; as did Gov. Wentworth, the Bishop of Nova Scotia, and a large number of other Gentlemen; when the Students of the several Classes in the Latin and English Schools were examined.

It is no more than justice to say, that the Students acquitted themselves with honour in the several parts of this last examination, and manifested a considerable degree of improvement, as well in Latin, as in Composition, Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, &c. &c.

In this Seminary, peculiar attention is paid to the instruction of the young Gentlemen in the rudiments and principles of Grammar, which is of the utmost consequence to attain a competent knowledge of the dead languages, and to speak and write English correctly. The good effects of this attention were discovered by a long and severe examination of the Students in various parts of Grammar; during which, they gave satisfaction to the audience by their prompt and judicious answers to many intricate questions. Among several Speakers who deserved great commendation, two were rewarded with premiums, viz.—Master *John Inglis*, who spoke a Sa-

lutatory Oration; and Master *John Bretherton*, who delivered the *Beggar's Petition*.

The Governors of the Academy will shortly purchase a tract of land on which a College is to be erected; and there is a flattering prospect that this seminary will fully answer the expectations of its Benefactors and Friends, and become a lasting monument of their zeal for literature and virtue, as well as an extensive blessing to this and other British colonies.

MARRIED.

Aug. 8. Mr. Obed Clark, master of a whaling ship, to Miss Sarah Bunker, of Dartmouth.

22. Mr. Peter Waterman to Miss Lydia Bunker, of the same place.

Oct. 4. At Charlottown, island St. John's, Captain F. Gartiorth, of the 211th regiment, nephew to the Right Honourable Lord Middleton, of Great Britain, to Miss Johannah Nibbet, niece of the Hon. John Patterson, Esq.

5. The Reverend Mr. Twining, of Cornwallis, to Miss Weeks, daughter of the Reverend Mr. Weeks, of this town.

NAMES OF SUBSCRIBERS

Received since our last.

St. John's, (New-Brunswick).

Honourable JONATHAN BLESS.
Lieut. BEAVER, Royal Artillery.

Sydney.

JAMES EDWARD BOISSEAU, Esq;

Shelburne.

Mr. WM. ROBERTSON.
Capt. PATRICK HARE.

Halifax.

JAMES ROLLINSON, Esq; Major of his Majesty's 20th regiment.

Mr. C. C. HALL, Merchant.

NOTIFICATION TO CORRESPONDENTS.

THE verses signed *Pollis* came too late to appear in this month's Magazine, but shall have a place in the next.

A *Farmer* from Cornwallis, will probably be admitted; meanwhile, to prevent delay, we readily agree to the manner in which he proposes to pay his subscription; being heartily disposed to give every encouragement to agriculture.