

THE European Magazine,

For DECEMBER 1793.

[Embellished with, 1. A PORTRAIT OF ROBERT MERRY, Esq. And 2. A VIEW of the
CHAPEL at GALLION.

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The length of *Philo's Communications* prevents their immediate insertion. They shall, however, not be neglected.

Our *Poetical Correspondents*, also, are necessarily postponed from the importance of the Public News.

An Old Correspondent in our next.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN, from Dec. 7, to Dec. 14, 1793.

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STATE of the BAROMETER and THERMOMETER.

BAROMETER.	THERMOM.	WIND.	8—29	— 80	— 36	—	W.
NOVEMBER.							
27—30	— 20	— 44	N.	10—29	— 40	— 39	S.
28—30	— 19	— 41	N. N. E.	11—29	— 10	— 41	S.
29—30	— 30	— 38	N. E.	12—29	— 10	— 50	S. W.
30—30	— 29	— 36	N. N. E.	13—29	— 30	— 51	S.
DECEMBER.							
1—30	— 30	— 37	N. E.	14—29	— 40	— 52	S. W.
2—30	— 20	— 37	N.	15—29	— 40	— 46	S. W.
3—30	— 16	— 38	N.	16—29	— 44	— 44	S.
4—30	— 20	— 31	W.	17—29	— 73	— 38	S. W.
5—30	— 24	— 34	W.	18—29	— 50	— 48	S.
6—30	— 21	— 37	W.	19—29	— 40	— 49	S.
7—30	— 10	— 32	W.	20—29	— 50	— 37	W.
				21—29	— 40	— 38	S.
				22—28	— 90	— 37	S.
				23—28	— 91	— 38	S. W.

T H E
EUROPEAN MAGAZINE,
AND
LONDON REVIEW,
For DECEMBER 1793.

Some ACCOUNT of ROBERT MERRY, Esq.

[WITH A PORTRAIT.]

ROBERT MERRY, Esq. was born in London in April 1755, and is descended in a right line from Henry Merry, who was knighted by James the First, at Whitehall. Mr. Merry's father never followed any trade or profession, but was Governor of the Hudson's Bay Company. His grandfather was a Captain in the Royal Navy, and one of the Elder Brethren of the Trinity House. He established the commerce of the Hudson's Bay Company upon the plan which it now pursues. He made a voyage himself to Hudson's Bay, and discovered the island in the North Seas which still bears the name of Merry's Island. He also made a voyage to the East Indies, and was, perhaps, the first Englishman who returned home over land, in which expedition he encountered most inconceivable hardships. Mr. Merry's mother (who is still living) was the eldest daughter of the late Lord Chief Justice Willes, who presided for many years with great ability in the Court of Common Pleas, and was for some time First Lord Commissioner of the Great Seal. He was the friend of Addison and of Gay, and contributed several Essays to the Spectator, one of which treats of the Mohawks. Mr. Merry was educated at Harrow, under Dr. Sumner. The celebrated Dr. Parr was his private tutor. From Harrow he went to Cambridge, and was entered of Christ's College—a College congenial to a poetic imagination, as it has the honour of having been the College at which the immortal poet Milton was educated. He left Cambridge without taking any degree, and

was afterwards entered of Lincoln's-inn by his father, but was never called to the bar. Upon the death of his father he bought a commission in the horse-guards, and was for several years Adjutant and Lieutenant to the first troop, commanded by Lord Lothian. Mr. Merry quitted the service, and went abroad, where he remained nearly eight years, during which time he visited most of the principal towns of France, Switzerland, Italy, Germany, and Holland. At Florence he stayed a considerable time, enamoured (as it is said) of a lady of distinguished rank and beauty. Here he studied the Italian language, and encouraged his favourite pursuit, poetry, and was elected a Member of the celebrated Academy Della Crusca, the name of which Academy he afterwards used as a signature to many poems which have been favourably received by the public, and which excited a great number of imitators. When Mr. Merry observed this, he dropped his fictitious character, and has ever since published in his own name. Having passed the greater part of his life in what is called high company, and in the *beau monde*, he became disgusted with the follies and vices of the Noblesse, and is now a most strenuous friend to, general liberty, and the common rights of mankind. Mr. Merry very lately married Miss BRUNTON, a very amiable and deserving actress, who has been long, with good reason, a favourite of the public, no less for her great professional merit, than for the excellence of her private character.

Mr. Merry's principal publications are,
Some Poems in the Florence Miscellany.

Paulina; or, The Russian Daughter, a poem in two books.

Various poems with the signature of Della Crusca.

Diversity, a Poem.

Lorenzo, a Tragedy.

The Laurel of Liberty, a Poem.

An Ode on the Recovery of his Majesty, recited by Mrs. Siddons at a Gala given by the Subscribers to Brookes's Club.

An Ode on the Fourteenth of July, performed at the Crown and Anchor in 1791.

Mr. Merry in his manners and conversation is easy, elegant, and good-humoured, uniting the knowledge of a scholar and a philosopher with the accomplishments of a gentleman. He possesses most certainly great poetical talents, and has a richness and a splendor of imagery, with a very ardent and glowing versification. He now and then, in his search after novelty of expression, is betrayed into obscurity. These specks, however, have been magnified into spots by some of the critics, but to so little purpose, that repeated editions of his poems are constantly called for.

In his Ode on the Fourteenth of July, there are flights of thought, and strength and poignancy of expression, that would not have disgraced Pindar or Tyrtaeus. The language of Lorenzo is extremely poetical:—how beautiful is this speech of Scraphina, meditating on her lover, supposed to be dead!

To the EDITOR of the EUROPEAN MAGAZINE.

S I R,

NO Nation is supposed to be so much troubled with what is called ENNUY as the English one is, and yet it seems strange that it must have recourse to the French for the name of its own peculiar complaint. The HYP, too, is a complaint supposed to be particularly common to the English, yet, perhaps, none of their Medical Writers have so well described this *Maladie sans Maladie* as the late learned Dr. SAUVAGES, of Montpellier. I trouble you with his description, to insert in your Magazine, if you think fit. The classicalness of the Latin, and the powers of description with which it is written, must be the apology as well for the length of the quotation, as for the language in which it is written.

Whither is flown thy spirit, lov'd
Lorenzo?

What are its dear delights? Thinks it
of me?

As thus I mourn in this sequester'd
grove,

Perchance 'tis wafted by the Zephyr's
wing

That fans my burning bosom, or it floats
Amidst these crystal beamings of the
moon,

To decorate the scene with silver glory.
Ah! 'twas thy soothing voice which
stole but now

From yon lone cypress, in the plaintive
song

Of Sorrow's favourite bird; for each
sad swell

Had such a heavenly and prevailing
sweetness,

It charm'd my heart. Methinks at
times I've seen thee

Melt into tears upon the flowers of
morn,

And I have trac'd thy visionary step
O'er the grey lake at eve's unruffled
hour.

Where'er thou art, cast one approving
look

On this cold urn, which an unwearied
love

Devotes to thy resemblance.—"

During the course of last winter Mr. Merry brought out a Comic Opera, under the title of "The Magician no Conjuror." It was acted four nights. Several of the airs in it were highly poetical. The difference made in one of them between the Eagle and the Nightingale, had great felicity of thought, and was quite original.

Your humble servant, HYPO.

EXTRACT FROM SAUVAGES' MORBORUM CLASSES.

ÆGRI imaginarii quos bellè derisit
Molierius, sunt illi qui corpore
bene valentes, se ob momentaneos

affectus in mortis periculo, versari con-
stanter judicant, inde mœsti queruli,
omnes medicos, suis consultationibus
diversant.

diversant, vel de forte suâ desperantes solitudini se addicant, ubi indefinenter, desunt vel ad abigendum morbum, prævum quoddam, & damnosum vitæ genus eligunt, & gravioribus morbis inde se exponunt. Differt ab hypocondriaci hæc melancholia quod, nullo morbo corpores laborant melancholia illi, at multiplici laborant hypocondriaci ut flatulentia, ructibus acidis, spasms, qui simul hanc melancholiam sibi adjunctam habent, unde vulgò, sed immeritò confunduntur.

Imaginarii ægroti nunc se tales præbent quales sunt, & cum vultu florido, viribus integris, indefessâ loquacitate, de vertiginosâ & fugaci cephalalgia, de fictitiis in capite aut pectore symptomatis, tanquam promptam sibi mortem allaturis, de debilitate summâ fortissimè, eloquentissimè, per totam diem conqueruntur, vel si ab eo quem consultit se deridendum fore expertus metuat æger, ille se firmum intrepidumque mortis contemptorem simulat, atque brevi stylo, vocisque sono familiari, symptomata sua enumerat, ita ut veram esse ægritudinem facillè incautus existimet; sed si facilem aurem præbeat auditor, jam narratorem personam fictam diù non sustinet, & ad luctus, mæroremque suum revertitur. Itaque hoc signo potissimum imaginarius morbus cognoscitur, quòd dum melancholicus de gravissimis capitis, cerebrique læsionibus conqueritur, ut de turbâ, vertigine vaporibus, hæc distinctè eloquenter, nitidè depingat; cum summam debilitatem si experiri affirmat, illud pectoris, vocisque robur exhibet, illum vultum & colorem præfert, quæ cum statu depicto minimè consistere possent.

Sunt qui ut curas abigant, rationem exuere conantur, & idcirco se vino, veneri, ignavia, ludo, vel alicui vehementi affectui se dedunt. Sunt qui morosi, contentiosi, desperabundi, milles mutatis et medicis & remediorum generi-

bus morbum suum obstinatè silent, interrogati renuunt mortisque certæ, ut putant & imminentis formidinem altâ mente recondunt, isque ut plurimum insanabiles sunt, & ad maniam vergunt.

Huic morbo divites, otiosi, iactè viventes, ingeniosi; rarissimè verò, pauperes, laboriosi, negotiosi, hebetes, obnoxii sunt; pueri nunquam rarò senes, sæpius ætatis consistentis viri ac mulieres.

Prædisponunt ortus a parentibus hypocondriacis, studia immodica, educatio effeminata.

Excitant verò hunc morbum acres & attentæ meditationes circa suam valetudinem, philautia nimia, pulsus sui frequens exploratio, levis anatomix & medicinæ cognitio, medicaminum ab incauto medico suavorum usus, quæ omnia ideam morbi imaginarii excitant, revocant, fovent.

Curatio hujus morbi frequentissimi & permacissimi ingeniosum & prudentem exigit medicum, qui èo tantùm collimet, ut animi attentionem à morbo dimoveat, aliòque distrahat; verum difficillimum est persuadere illis ægrotantibus morbum ab imaginatione læsâ, a præjudicatâ opinione pendere: sæpe medicus, ut èo deveniat, ægri erroribus assentiri se fingat, ut fortius eos errores impugnet; imò ægram astutè debet adducere ad ea, quæ ideas novas à morbo longe remotas excitant, adeoque ab omni medicaminum genere eum dimovere: suadent itaque festiva spectacula, amicorum colloquia, ludicræ concertationes, exercitia corporis jucunda ut ambulatio, cantus concertus musice, venatio, sed potissimum peregrinatio facta equitando, vel vectura ex navi, rhedâ, concurrente simul sobrietate; et denique is ea omnia inutilia fuerint, utile erit ægro, si, gravi quodam superveniente negotio, vitæ, honoris, fortunæ discrimine, priorem ideam demittere cogatur.

For the EUROPEAN MAGAZINE.

DR. BARNES presents his respects to the EDITOR of the EUROPEAN MAGAZINE, and sends him a Letter which appeared lately in a Manchester Newspaper. It relates a fact which, perhaps, it may not be amiss to record more permanently than in a Newspaper. It is, however, referred to him, whether it would be proper to insert it in his excellent miscellany.

S I R,

IN your last Paper you mentioned the death of Mr. ADAM CROMPTON, of Little Lever, Paper Manufacturer;

adding an honourable testimony to the integrity and generosity of heart which strongly marked his character. That he possessed these qualities in a very eminent

eminent degree, every one who knew him will, I verily believe, bear witness. His integrity was put to the fullest proof by an employment, which certainly offers opportunity and invitation to deceit, in order to evade the Excise duties: but his honour "was never impeached," nor suspected, for it was known to be inflexibly firm and pure. Of the generosity of his heart you justly say, "his poor neighbours had long and large experience." But there was one instance of it, which regard to his feelings alone prevented me from giving to the public long ago, because it deserves to be generally known and recorded. And this is, that he was probably the first person in England who formed the plan of a Sunday School, and supported it at his own charge. This was done in so secret a manner, that his own family was at the time ignorant of it, and cannot now, therefore, fix exactly the year when it was begun. But from my own knowledge I can state, that for several years before the institution of Sunday Schools by that good man, Mr. RAIKES, of Gloucester, Mr. A. Crompton maintained a school of this description in Little Lever, under the care of James Heyes, to whom he paid a regular salary for teaching poor children at his own house on that day. I lived for many years a near neighbour to this poor man, and admired, what I then thought to be, his disinterested kindness in devoting every Sunday, when by infirmity disabled from attending public worship, to so charitable an office. It was not till long after that I discovered the plan and the support of it to be the work of Mr. Crompton, who had concealed this, as he wished to do his other charities, even from his nearest friends and relations, among whom I had the pleasure of being numbered.

This circumstance will not be considered as any diminution to the praise, nor will it lessen the satisfaction, of the worthy man before mentioned, since Mr. Raikes did not borrow the hint from hence, or from any other quarter. He, in the generosity of his own soul, did, like Mr. Crompton, conceive and execute the plan; and he has had the noble pleasure of seeing it adopted, extended, and patronized in such a manner, as to gratify the warmest feelings of his heart. This fact proves, however, that good men, whose aim is to serve mankind in the best manner, will

naturally fall into the same train of thought; and it may tend to abate a little of that wonder, which doubtless many have felt, that such a plan was not sooner thought of by some of the numerous friends of religion and of mankind. The same idea has, probably, suggested itself to others; but, through want of particular circumstances necessary to encourage and ripen it, has lain in that state, in which I acknowledge with astonishment it lay in my own mind, even after I had seen it attempted and executed. For though, as I have said, the instance here related was in a manner under my own eye for many years, the scheme did not appear to me in half its real magnitude or importance, till the attention of the public was so forcibly and successfully excited by Mr. Raikes's admirable institution. But is not this the case with many excellent designs, which lie in the mind in a kind of half-formed embryo state, till by some favourable circumstances they are called into birth? and then, perhaps, we are ready to wonder, what could have been an obstacle to their execution. The proper lesson to be learned from hence is, that we are not to be too soon discouraged, if present appearances do not seem to favour our schemes of usefulness. No good attempt can ever be in vain. We shall at least sow the seeds of what may hereafter vegetate and ripen into maturity. A small beginning may, like the little cloud in the horizon, extend itself to amazing magnitude, and produce consequences, which the most sanguine hope would have once looked upon as almost impossible.

I remain, Sir,

Your humble servant,

THOMAS BARNES.

New College, Manchester, Nov. 7, 1793.

N. B. The paragraph in a former paper which had contained an account of Mr. Crompton's death, and which is referred to in the first sentence of this letter, was as follows:

"On Wednesday last, October 30, died Mr. Adam Crompton, of Little Lever, Paper-manufacturer, aged 72. Few men have been more respected for strict integrity, and great generosity of heart. The former was never impeached; and of the latter his poor neighbours had long and large experience."

To the EDITOR of the EUROPEAN MAGAZINE.

SIR,

He that is first in his own cause, seemeth just, but his neighbour cometh and searcheth him. SOLOMON.

A MAN endowed by nature with good abilities, employing them either through error or design in a bad cause, is an object which in the one case demands our pity, in the other excites our contempt. I cannot but consider in the latter point of view that person who, subscribing himself MENTOR, has made in your last Magazine so very severe an attack on the mode of Private Education. By substituting declamation for argument he has shewn the weakness of his cause, and has made it less difficult to expose that want of candour which characterises the whole of his paper.

Simplicity and honesty, when joined to good sense (and I believe no one will dispute their union in the amiable Plutarch), will generally enable us to form a sounder judgment of things than the most profound learning, or the keenest ingenuity; and I will venture to say, that had Plutarch heard Mr. Bayle declaiming in the language of MENTOR against Private Education, the sage discerner of character would have answered him to the following purport, though in language which none knew like him to dress in the charms of sweetness, simplicity, and truth.

It were very unfair to draw any argument detrimental to the mode of Private Education, from the number of men eminent for their talents, their knowledge, or their virtue, which seminaries of public instruction have produced to the world. The number which issue from the latter, when compared with those from the former, is so infinitely superior, perhaps in the proportion of an hundred to one, that any inference drawn from such reasoning must be unfounded and unjust. From the great seminaries of public education which have long flourished the boast and ornament of this kingdom, young men are daily poured forth into the world, and by their talents and worth do honour to those sources whence they derived them, and to those preceptors under whose hands their characters have been formed.

From the smaller channels of private education a pupil of less notoriety is

now and then launched; and if once in a century such a character, like the present illustrious pilot at the helm, blaze forth conspicuous for all the splendid abilities of public, and all the amiable and useful virtues of private life, such a character is equally as strong an argument in favour of a private, as the more frequent ones, out of infinitely greater numbers, can be in favour of a public mode of instruction.

Much stronger reasoning than that adduced by MENTOR must persuade me to think with him, "that the system of private education threatens to annihilate the sense, the learning, the spirit, and the virtue for which the inhabitants of this country have been so long and so deservedly renowned." Will the bare assertion of MENTOR, that in this system no boy is required to exert his understanding, or to inform it by experience, pass for proof? Or will the little story of the strawberry (a delicious morsel for criticism), which we are told the understanding is to eat, and not to exceed, demonstrate the danger of the sense of our countrymen?

I should rather conclude, that it might be more especially in the power of the private tutor, "from his continual attendance upon this very thing," to watch the dawning of genius in the youthful mind, to prevent its being suppressed by an indolent disposition, which never fails to meet with assistance in a public school, to force it as it were *into exertion*, to point it to that part of science to which it seems by nature inclined, to lend it all the aids of experience, to stimulate it by noble examples, to encourage it by honourable rewards, till it shine forth a glorious proof "*quid mens ritè, quid indoles, nutrita saustis sub penetralibus possit.*"

With as little reason does MENTOR dread "the annihilation of that learning for which we have been famed," from this system, and the character of those persons by whom it is conducted. His whole Paper, weak as it is, does not afford any thing more frivolous or indecent than his illiberal attack of these persons. Perhaps I should be suspected of appealing to the passions of the reader, were I to observe how very ill a compliment this writer pays to the good sense of those parents or guardians

who he supposes are led, *by mere chance*, to place a confidence and repose a most important trust in men of whose learning, temper, or *discretion*, they have not the least reason to be assured.

The ingenious mind will not consent to so absurd a supposition, and the accuser himself produces arguments which must confound his own charges.

The conductors of this mode of education are, it is acknowledged, generally clergymen; and who, alas! if poverty be a crime, are indeed of all men most culpable; but "*non ita Romuli, præscriptum aut intonsi Catois auspiciis, veterumque normâ.*" Like themselves, their parents too were probably poor, and unable to afford a "considerable sum per annum," an hundred pounds at least, for the education of their sons. These then have been led by the hand of charity or of friendship into one or other of those noble seminaries of learning which dignify and adorn this island, and which MENTOR supposes to be alone equal to the education of youth. Conscious that their future distinction in life must depend on their own exertions, it will not be presuming too much to suppose, that they have used their utmost endeavours to acquire every branch of useful learning, and that those important parts of it on which MENTOR so warmly comments, have not been neglected by them. Thus then will poverty remain the only imputation against the conductors of private tuition; but how shall we reconcile this, alas! too true and heavy charge with a subsequent one, "that habits of living are here procured far beyond the circumstances of the boy's parent." The luxuries of a various table, and the indulgences of life, are seldom to be found in that habitation whose owner, to use MENTOR's language, "finds himself in want of an income, from the increase of his family or the want of a patron."

We are now led by the writer to view this system, "as threatening the annihilation of that spirit for which Englishmen have been so celebrated." Courage and fortitude of mind, it may be granted, "can only be procured by frequent conflicts with ourselves, with others, and with difficulties;" but that in private education "these are studiously and upon system avoided," will not so easily be conceded.

It has already been shewn, that in the hopes of the generality of private

preceptors, luxury and indulgences are not greatly to be dreaded. And why should the man whose embarrassed, unfriended, unpatronized situation has of course taught him the lesson of temperance and patience, be so unfit or so incapable to inculcate those virtues to others? Who better qualified to teach the virtues of forbearance and self-denial than he whose own life has been of necessity a continual scene of them?

For what reason, I would enquire, are all conflicts with ourselves, with others, and with difficulties, more removed from a private than a public line of education?

The elegant author of the "Ode on the distant View of Eton College," whose name will always be considered as one of the greatest ornaments to that celebrated seat of learning, seems by no means to consider conflicts or difficulties of a serious nature to be the lot of that "sprightly race," who, beside those antique towers on the Thames' margin green, trace the glad some paths of pleasure. Those delicious prospects which fancy and hope for ever gild, that serene sunshine which in a moment dries up the glistening dewdrop of sorrow, are described by him as their's;—their's the joys of wit and of invention; their's all the delights and pleasures which dance in the train of innocence and of health.

But not to assume that as argument which perhaps may be considered as the effusions of a poetical fancy, I proceed to shew how little the annihilation of the spirit of the rising age is to be dreaded from a system of private education.

Let us suppose a few boys to be entrusted to the care of a provincial schoolmaster or a private tutor. Seldom beyond the observation, and frequently in the sight of such a man, the passions, dispositions, the very nature of each pupil will be easily discernible by an eye of common penetration. It will not be presumptuous to suppose, that men of liberal education are qualified to judge how far the passions and affections of youth, which have been implanted in the heart for the best purposes, but which, without the direction of reason, are apt to degenerate into vices, ought to be indulged or restrained. To encourage those which are becoming, to check those which are dishonourable, is the most important task of the public or private preceptor.

With

With what ease will the latter supply the deficiencies or correct the excess of those committed to his care. To the proud, the haughty, the imperious temper, presuming too much on his own abilities, he will be justified in opposing such trials of mortification and humiliation as may *bend*, without *breaking*, the spirit, and teach him that "the wisdom which is from above is gentle." The modest and diffident he will encourage and animate, and to their fearful view, and feeble feet, render more smooth, and less difficult of access, that path which leads to glory and renown. On the couch of the Sybarite he will take care that the rose-leaf shall always be doubled. Some danger confronted by the dastardly, some generous action of the mean and parsimonious, some labour or difficulty overcome by the indolent, will alone obtain to such characters from a prudent preceptor any praise or any reward.

The danger and demolition which MENTOR fears as threatened to virtue from a system of private education, arises from the qualities of its pupils not being brought into action, and their being kept (to use again his own expression) in unnatural ignorance and restraint of those vices into which, on their entrance into the world, they may indiscreetly plunge.

As to the former, I cannot but think that all necessary trials of the virtue of a boy may be furnished in a small, as well as in a large school. In larger schools a boy's connections do not extend to every form, but are generally confined to those of his own age and standing, and in this circle his virtues are exercised. As to the latter charge, of boys being kept under ignorance and restraint of vices, I know not where that parent or guardian is to be found who would not prefer that system of education which should best effect this ignorance and this restraint.

Upon this head I shall only observe, that as it is much to be feared, that neither in public or in private tuition such

restraints can be laid upon youth, but they will easily get acquainted with vice, so it were to be wished that this acquaintance might commence from their earliest infancy, if the happy consequence were to follow, "*maturè ut cum cognorint, perpetuo oderint.*"

In answer to the observations of MENTOR on the utility of those connections which are made at public schools, the writer of this defence cannot help remarking, that at the school where he received the first rudiments of instruction, and at the college where afterwards his education was finished, the learned and respected characters to whose care he was entrusted, and to whom he owes whatever he enjoys of external esteem or internal comfort, were frequently reminding him, that a prudent mind would place little reliance on the attachments of boyish days, or the friendships of early youth, which the busy scenes of the world might efface, which time and absence might diminish, or which the clashing interests of ripened life might tear asunder and dissolve*.

I hope, Mr. Editor, that by this time the mode of private education does not appear so fatal to our hopes of the rising generation as MENTOR has represented it. I shall oppose to his general observations on this subject, as well as on the propriety of punishment, and the idle story of the idle boy, a quotation from Dryden's Life of Plutarch, the length of which I hope the reader will pardon.

At the end of Themistocles's life, Plutarch relates, that being young, he was a pensioner in the house of Ammonius, and in his Symposiaques he brings him in disputing with his scholars, and giving them instruction; for the custom of those times was very much different from these of ours, where the greatest part of our youth is spent in learning the words of dead languages. The Grecians, who thought all barbarians but themselves, despised the use of foreign tongues; the first elements of their breeding was the knowledge of nature,

* Audite ergo, optimi viri, ea quæ sæpissime inter me et Scipionem de Amicitia discebantur, quanquam ille quidem nihil difficultius esse dicebat, quam amicitiam usque ad extremum vitæ permanere; nam, vel ut non idem expediret utrique, incidere sæpe: vel ut de republica, non idem sentirent, mutari etiam mores hominum sæpe dicebat, alios ad-versis rebus, alios ætate ingravescente; atque earum rerum exemplum ex similitudine capiebat inuentis ætatis quod summi puerorum amores sæpe uia cum prætexta ponerentur; sin autem ad adolescentiam perduxissent, dirimi tamen interdu contentione vel uxoris conditionis, vel commodi alicujus, quod idem adipisci uterque non posset; quod si quæ longius in amicitia protracti essent, tamen sæpe labefactari, &c. &c.

and the accommodation of that knowledge, by moral precepts, to the service of the public and the private offices of virtue; the masters employing one part of their time in reading to and discoursing with their scholars, and the rest in appointing them their several exercises, either in oratory or philosophy, and setting them to declaim and to dispute amongst themselves. By this liberal sort of education study was so far from being a burden to them, that in a short time it became a habit, and philosophical questions and criticisms of humanity were their usual recreation at their meals. Boys lived then as the better sort of men do now, and their conversation was so well-bred and manly, that they did not plunge out of their depth into the world when they grew up, but slid easily into it, and found no alteration in their company. Amongst the rest, reading and quotations of poets were not forgotten at their suppers, and in their walks; but Homer, Euripides, and Sophocles, were the entertainment of their hours of freedom.

Rods and ferrulas were not used by Ammonius, as being properly the punishment of slaves, and not the correction of ingenious freeborn men; at least, to be only exercised by parents who had the power of life and death over their own children; as appears by the example of this Ammonius, thus related by our author.

“Our master (says he), one time perceiving at his afternoon lecture that some of his scholars had eaten more largely than became the moderation of students, immediately commanded one of his freemen to take his own son and scourge him in our sight, because, said the philosopher, my young gentleman could not eat his dinner without poignant sauce or vinegar, and at the same time cast his eye on all of us; so that every criminal was given to understand, that he had a share in the reprehension, and that the punishment was as well deserved by all the rest, had the philosopher not known that it exceeded his commission to inflict it.”

Whether this most beautiful picture of education bear a greater resemblance to the mode used in public schools or in private tuition, where the preceptor is the friend and companion of a few boys, I leave to the candid and ingenuous mind to determine.

I flatter myself, Mr. Editor, that the sensible reader will find nothing in this

Paper to induce him to suspect the writer of it of partiality. The venerable founder of that society of which it was once his boast to be a member, superior to all prejudice has provided, that wherever learning and ingenuous principles have been planted, they shall be received and fostered within the bosom of his college. Many of the companions of the writer's studies had received their education at public schools, than whom none were more deservedly the delight of their friends, none greater ornaments to literature, to religion, to society, and to mankind.

Many are the advantages which are peculiar to these schools, and they need no such arguments as MENTOR's to recommend them, “*non tali auxilio non defensoribus istis.*” The system of private education has likewise its excellencies. If we could think with MENTOR that it “circumscribes the growing virtues of youth,” may it not be hoped, that it likewise “confines its crimes?”

It will not, it is true, produce fit members of that National Convention which “shuts the gates of mercy on mankind;” but it will produce the honest, mild, domestic character; the sensible, upright, humane citizen; and in its turn the ingenious philosopher, and the illustrious statesman.

Henry the Fourth of France is undoubtedly a splendid instance of the utility of public education; but perhaps there is not wanting a Monarch who, when his eulogy comes to be faithfully written, may add equal honour to the system of private tuition; who in humanity, in true patriotism, in affection to his people, is not inferior; who in the love of virtue and religion is superior to Henry; who to the dignities of high birth and exalted rank, unites those intrinsic good qualities “whose influence shall last when the lustre of all that once sparkled and dazzled has passed away.”

Actuated as I have been to this defence by the weight and importance of the subject—by a conviction that there are advantages peculiar to each mode of education, and by a desire to rescue from disgrace many worthy characters which have been indiscriminately attacked, I trust to that impartiality which has always distinguished you as its Editor, to give it a place in your next EUROPEAN MAGAZINE.

Stratton, Gloucestershire,
Nov. 12.

W. M.

T A B L E T A L K ;

O R,

CHARACTERS, ANECDOTES, &c. OF ILLUSTRIOUS AND CELEBRATED
BRITISH CHARACTERS, DURING THE LAST FIFTY YEARS.

(MOST OF THEM NEVER BEFORE PUBLISHED.)

(Continued from Page 340.)

HUGH KELLY.

[Continued from our last.]

ABOUT the period of his publishing "The Bablers" and "Louisa Mildmay," he added to his income by becoming the Editor of the Public Ledger, an office which he was very well fitted for, and which circumstances rendered more so.

As it is one of the uses of biography to connect as much of the customs and manners of the times as properly belong to it, we must inform many of our readers, that at this period (1765) there were but four morning papers published in London, and that, as private scandal and self-importance had not as yet *flowed* in upon the public, some of the columns of those papers were filled with extracts from our best modern publications—sketches from history—theatrical criticisms—moral or humorous essays—poetry, &c. It was the first qualification of an Editor then to be able to execute this business in a creditable manner, in which he was occasionally assisted by the voluntary contributions of a Thornton, a Foote, a Garrick, a Smart, a Colman, a Goldsmith, &c. &c. names that will be as long remembered for the intrinsic value of their pens, as they must be regretted by a comparison with their successors.

Kelly being thus situated in regard to *settled work*, did not stop here; the activity of his mind induced him to search for other objects of his pen, and the Stage, the early mistress of his imagination, soon presented one.

It was now some years since Churchill had published his "Rosciad;" and the well-known success of that poem, with the early fame that it established for him, spurred our author's genius to an imitation; he therefore, in the winter of 1766, produced a poem called "Thetpiss; or, A Critical Examination into the Merits of all the principal Performers belonging to Drury-lane Theatre."

When this poem was first announced

by advertisement, the performers, who had scarcely recovered from the lash of Churchill's pen, were on tip-toe for its publication; but no sooner did it appear, than the aggrieved of Drury-lane Green-Room were instantly up in arms; the men talked of little less than "swords, pistols, and a sawpir"—whilst some of the ladies said, "they could not appear before the eyes of the public thus shorn of their usual attractions."

The late Mrs. Clive and Mrs. Barry (now Mrs. Crawford) were both best heard on this occasion—their merits were most wantonly degraded. Barry had been charged with "cramming his moon-eyed idiot on the town," whilst poor Mrs. Clive's person and temper were so coarsely caricatured, that the public were unanimous in their disapprobation. Kelly himself soon became sensible of his fault, and publicly atoned for it in his second edition of the same poem, in the following manner:

"And here, all-burning with ingenuous shame,
The bard his recent virulence must name,
When with a ruffian cruelty he flew
To rake up private characters to view,
And, dead to candour, quite forgot to spare
The helpless woman in the wounded player.
Here then, as odious utterly to light,
He dams the passage to eternal night;
From ev'ry breast entreats it may be thrown,
To sting with ceaseless justice in his own."

This recantation, we believe, pacified Mrs. Clive; and as the offence to Mrs. Barry was not near so strong, she was so softened by a personal apology, that the same time after appeared in a principal character of our Author's first comedy, "False Delicacy."

But though the ladies were thus appeased, some from apologies and recantations, and some from the prudent

tial fear, "that stirring our Author's resentment might make it worse"—the gentlemen were not so easily pacified. Some expressed their resentment generally, but one comedian felt himself so severely and personally ill-treated, that he publicly *denounced* the Author in the Green Room, and said, if ever he dared to subscribe his name to his poem, "they two should not live a day afterwards in the same planet."

Kelly, however, elated with the success and profits of his first poem, sat instantly down to his second, "On the Merits of the principal Performers belonging to Covent Garden Theatre;" and as he was anxious now to say who he was, publicly put his name to it, declaring himself, at the same time, to be Author of the first.

The veil now removed, the praise and censure of the poem became more universal;—some crying it up for its energy and critical discrimination, others arraigning it for its boldness and calumny. In this mixture of opinions, the good-natured friends of the enraged Comedian of Drury-lane did not forget his former threats. They not only reminded him of them, but egged him on, as the champion of their cause, to call the delinquent poet to an account. The comedian agreed in the necessity of it, and said "it should be done." Some time, however, elapsed in a state of uncertainty, when, one morning, coming into the Green-Room with rather an uncommon brisk and satisfied air, he exclaimed, "Well, 'tis all over—'tis all settled." "Aye," exclaimed his brother performers—"What—have you killed, or maimed the r—l?" "No, no," says the more philosophic comedian, "what I mean by settled is, that—that—upon a consultation with Mr. Garrick, he—he—(hesitating)—said it was better let it alone."

Garrick, in considering his own interest, independent of his friend's honour, no doubt acted right in the advice, as on the one side he might have lost a comedian not so easily replaced, and on the other, a rising flatterer of his merits; for Kelly took care (and no doubt was actuated by his feelings) to speak of Garrick in the following strains of panegyric:

"Long in the annals of Theatric fame
Has truth grac'd Garrick with a fore-
most name;

Long in a wide diversity of parts,
Allow'd his double empire o'er our
hearts;

Either in mirth to laugh us to excess,
Or where he weeps, to load us with
distress.

Nor is it strange, that ev'n in partial
days

He gains so high an eminence of praise,
When his united requisites are more
Than ever center'd in one mind before."

Mr. Garrick's opinion, though decisive behind the curtain, could not prevent the whisper and out-door talk of the performers. They animadverted on it in their own way, and as one anecdote in these cases generally begets another, this was contrasted by the conduct of Mat. Clarke (late a performer of Covent Garden Theatre) to Churchill, a little after the publication of "The Rosciad." The circumstances were as follow:

Churchill supping one night at the Rose Tavern, Bridges-street, in a mixed company, found himself at a late hour, which he was always partial to, sitting down to an *entremets* between supper and breakfast with Clarke and another performer of Covent Garden Theatre, when the latter rather imprudently was complaining of the hardships which some of his brethren were suffering under the lash of the poet's pen.—"They deserve it," says Clarke; "why do they suffer it?" "And pray, Mr. Clarke," says Churchill, looking him full in the face, "what would you do in such a case?" "Cut your throat in the church," was the answer. "Aye!" says Churchill, snatching up a knife and fork which lay upon the table—"Aye!" says Clarke (doing the same), "and as I see you are determined to have a trial of skill now, you take the end of that cloth, and I'll take the other, and let's see which is the better man."

Clarke's manly manner of announcing himself, and the character he had of being as good as his word in all those cases, made our poet pause for some moments, when laying down the knife and fork, and stretching his hand across the table, "Clarke," says he, "I believe you to be a very honest fellow; I had no right to put such a question to you, and I ask your pardon."

The reconciliation on the part of Clarke was instantly accepted of, and they

they spent the remainder of the night in great harmony.

Previous to Kelly's publication of the second part of *Theſpis*, viz. "Strictures on the principal Performers belonging to Covent-Garden Theatre," the Theatrical part of the public, as well as the performers themselves, were not a little anxious to know who he praised, or who abused. In this state of suspense, and on the evening previous to publication, the publisher happened to drop in at the public room Queen's Arms, St. Paul's Church-yard, where the booksellers, the wits, the neighbouring tradesmen, and others, used generally to assemble. Upon his entrance the company one and all exclaimed, "Well, what says *Theſpis* in his second part?" "Why, not so severe, I think," says the publisher, "as the first, except in the case of poor Rofs, which I'm really sorry for." "Aye, of Rofs!" they replied, "what does he say of Rofs? do recollect." On this the publisher pulled out a proof sheet, which he happened to have in his pocket, and read as follows:

"Rofs, tho' of various requisites possess'd,
To grow to force—to rush upon the breast;
Tho' with a person finely form'd to please,
He boasts each charm of elegance and ease,
And joins a voice as musically clear,
As ever pour'd, perhaps, upon the ear;
Yet oft, through monstrous negligence,
will strike
His warmest friends with pity or dislike,
And render doubtful, through a want of care,
His very title to the name of player.
Tho' well appris'd this conduct must offend,
He owns his fault, but never strives to mend;
Tho' the plain use of industry he sees,
He hates a moment's trespass on his ease,
And lets mere chance conduct him ev'ry night,
Convinc'd of wrong, yet negligent of right—
Hence, who that sees him with a lifeless air
In Phocyas talk of madness and despair,
Or marks his odious vacancy of eye
Ev'n on the spot where *Aribert* must die,

Could e'er suppose the flabberer had an art
At times to cling so closely round the heart;
Could think he play'd Horatio with a fire,
That fore'd e'en slander loudly to admire;
Or dream his actual excellence in *Lear*
Could dim each eye-ball with the tenderest tear?"

This Philippic was scarcely finished when Rofs, who sat in a niche by the fire-place, totally unobserved by the publisher, came forward, and looking round at the company, who were rather silently aukward upon this occasion, thus exclaimed:

"Why fits this *sadness* on your brows,
my friends?
I should have blush'd if *Cato's house* had stood
Secure, and flourish'd in a civil war."

The calm propriety of this quotation, the dignified and feeling manner with which Rofs spoke it, hot like electric fire around the room, and he had in an instant the applauses of the whole company—the publisher was the only person that remained embarrassed; but Rofs, knowing his integrity and general good-manners, soon relieved him, by laughing it off as a joke, and begging him to think no more about it.

Whatever merits or defects these poems intrinsically may have, they raised the author to the notice of the public, and it was not among Kelly's weaknesses to shrink from the public eye. He was vain of the character of an *author by profession*, or, to use his own words, "of sitting in the chair of criticism." He was likewise fond of dress, and though his person, which was low and corpulent, did not aid this propensity, his vanity prevailed, and he was constantly distinguished in all public places by a flaming broad silver-laced waistcoat, bag-wig, sword, &c.

It was likewise the publication of these poems that first introduced him to Garrick, or rather introduced Garrick to him; for the latter seeing himself so "be-praised and be-Roscius'd" in the first part of *Theſpis*, thought he could do no less than return him his personal thanks. It was at this interview Garrick suggested to him to write for the Stage; and as this was the secret wish of our Author's heart, he readily took the hint, happy to be brought

brought out under such very powerful and distinguished patronage.

Kelly, as he himself used to relate, sat down to write his first comedy, which he afterwards christened by the name of "False Delicacy," on Easter Monday 1768, and finished it so as to be fit for Garrick's perusal about the beginning of September. We mention this circumstance to shew with what facility he wrote, and at the same time, it must be confessed, *how well*, considering that he had little or no resources, either from literature, or what is generally called *good company*, and that his whole dependence was on his own observation, and the scanty materials drawn from fugitive pieces and the meagre conversation of coffee-houses and club-rooms.

He felt his own resources, however, equal to the task, and he sat down to his comedy with attention and confidence. He was at this time much acquainted with Goldsmith and Bickerstaffe, but availed himself so little of their advice, that except their barely hearing he was engaged that way, he scarcely ever mentioned the subject. Towards the close of the comedy, however, he ventured to communicate it to Bickerstaffe, who praised it before his face in the highest strains of panegyric; but no sooner turned down the Author's fair-case, than he abused it to a common friend in the grossest terms, and "talked of his arrogance in thinking of *comedy*, when his highest feather was that of paragraph or Newspaper Essay writing."

Goldsmith kept back and was silent, but, as it afterwards appeared, from the same principle of envy. When

asked about Kelly's writing a comedy, he said, "He knew nothing at all about it—he had heard there was a *man of that name* about town who wrote in Newspapers, but of his talents for comedy, or even the work he was engaged in, he could not judge."

This would be a great drawback on the character of Goldsmith, if it arose from a general principle; but nothing could be farther from the truth—he was kind, beneficent, and good natured in the extreme, to all but those whom he thought his competitors in literary fame; but this was so deeply rooted in his nature, that nothing could cure it. Poverty had no terrors for him—but the applauses paid a brother poet "made him poor indeed."

During this rising storm Kelly went on with his work, till he finished it about the beginning of September 1768, and immediately carried it to Garrick. Garrick was so much pleased with it on the perusal, that he sent him a note expressive of his highest approbation, and among other words, we remember, used this expression: "There are thoughts in it worthy of an angel." He, however, suggested some slight alterations, mostly relative to *stage effect*, and this was all the part Garrick had in this comedy. We mention this circumstance so minutely, as it was said at the time, that Garrick principally assisted him in the writing; but this was entirely the voice of envy—a voice, we are sorry to say, that is not unusually heard on the first capital works of Authors or Artists, as it is then most likely to be fatal to their rising reputation.

(To be continued.)

AN EXAMINATION OF HUME'S ESSAY ON JUSTICE.

THE general distinction between Virtue and Vice is sufficiently known to all men. There are certain actions which are universally the objects of approbation, which we call good, virtuous, or praise-worthy. There are other actions which are universally the objects of disapprobation, which we call bad or vicious; and which seem in many cases to deserve punishment. The consideration of Virtue and Vice, and the questions relating to them, make up what is called the science of Ethics or Morals.

When we consider the general distinction between Virtue and Vice; when

we consider certain virtues on the one hand, and certain vices on the other, they evidently appear to admit of a subdivision. There are many virtues which are altogether left to our own choice—where we are at liberty to practise them or not as we please. A man is apprehended to act improperly when he is a miser; on the contrary, he is approved of when he acts generously: but it is never apprehended that we can with propriety force him to act in the one way or in the other. We do not think that we can force a miser to be generous.

On the other hand, there are certain virtues which are the proper objects of compulsion; or certain vices which may with propriety be restrained. It is a virtuous action for men to pay their just debts; but if they refuse to pay them, force may be used in order to extort the observance of this virtue, or to avoid the contrary vice, which is precisely the same thing in another point of view. Here then are two different classes of virtues, where the agent is at liberty to practise them or not; and where, in other cases, he may be compelled to observe them. This makes the distinction between Justice and the other Virtues. These rules of conduct, which a person may be forced to observe, belong, properly speaking, to Justice, and make the object of Law. Those rules of action where no force is used, make properly the subject of Ethics. Hence it is evident that Justice is a species of Virtue. Virtue in general comprehends Justice as well as many other particular virtues; but all the other virtues are in a different situation from Justice in this respect—that we may practise them or not as we please.

Justice implies that we invade no man's property, nor violate his rights; that we do not injure him in his person, in his family, or in his good name; that we pay our just debts; that we make reparation to the best of our power for any damage we have done, or offence we may have given to others; that we fulfil our contracts, and be faithful to our promises; that we use no fraudulent dealings, nor take advantage of the weakness, ignorance, or necessity of those with whom we deal; and, in a word, that we be fair, honest, and without guile in our speech and behaviour. These, and matters of a like nature, constitute what we call fair-dealing, honesty, integrity. Justice is opposed both to violence and to deceit. So necessary is Justice to the very being of human society, that without it there could be no society at all. And it has been very justly observed, even by the most ancient authors, that those gangs of thieves and robbers who pay no regard to the rights of other men, must observe the rules of Justice towards one another, otherwise they could not possibly keep together. It would be more safe, as well as more comfortable, for a man to renounce all human society, and to live as an hermit in the wilderness, or to dwell with the beasts

of the field, than with men who paid no regard to justice. It is chiefly with a view to defend themselves from injury, that men associate together and form human societies. The first end of all Governments, and the chief object of all human Laws, is to secure men from unjust violations of their rights by violence or fraud, and to deter men by punishments from all such violations of the rights of others.

Having said these things, I shall take notice of an opinion which HUME has advanced, and endeavoured with all his eloquence and reasoning to support, that Justice is not a natural but an artificial virtue. It is not a virtue which the constitution of human nature points out to us of itself, but which, from the association of mankind together, appears to be necessary for human society, and is regulated entirely by its use. Nothing therefore, according to him, is just or unjust by nature; but what is for the benefit of society is on this account called just, and what has the contrary tendency is called unjust.

In order to throw some light on this subject, it may be proper first to explain, as distinctly as possible, the notion we annex to this word JUSTICE, and then consider Mr. Hume's reasoning to shew that it is not a natural virtue. As men, we are endowed by nature with powers, in the exercise of which we may do good or evil to our fellow men. When we employ our powers to promote the good and happiness of others, this is beneficence or favour. When we exert our powers to hurt them, this is injury. Justice lies in the middle between these two. It is such a conduct as does no hurt to others, though at the same time it does them no favour. Now the idea of a favour on the one hand, and of an injury on the other, are so universal, that it may justly be doubted, whether ever there was a man come to years of understanding who never had in his mind the notion of a favour and of an injury—of a good office and of a bad one. These notions discover themselves in all men, not by language only, but by certain affections of mind of which they are the natural objects. A favour naturally produces gratitude. An injury, if done to ourselves, produces resentment; and when done to others excites indignation. Now it is acknowledged by all, and I apprehend by Mr. HUME himself, that gratitude and resentment are natural ingredients in the frame of the

the human mind, no less than the appetites of hunger and thirst; and these passions are as naturally excited by their proper objects as these appetites. This indeed is so evident in itself, that it would be impertinent to offer an argument for it, as no philosopher, as far as I know, ever denied it. It is evident that the proper object of gratitude is one who has done us a favour, and the proper object of resentment is a person who has done us an injury. Every sentiment of gratitude implies in its nature a conception and belief of a favour done by the person who is the object of our gratitude; and every sentiment of resentment implies in its nature a belief of an injury done by the person who is the object of our resentment. What is it then which we call a favour, and which by the very constitution of human nature excites the natural sentiment of gratitude? No man who is capable of reflecting on the operations of his own mind, can be at any loss to answer this question. An action which produces pleasure or advantage to me, is not a favour unless that advantage or pleasure was intended. We are told of a Physician who gave a medicine to his patient with an intention to poison him; that the medicine, however, contrary to the intention of the Physician, cured the disease. There was surely no gratitude due by the patient when he knew the real state of the case. It is evident to every man, that a benefit arising from the action of another, either against or without his intention, cannot move to gratitude.

Another thing implied in a favour is, that it be not due. A man may save my credit by paying what he owes me, and in this case the thing which he does tends to my benefit, yet it is not a favour. It is no more than he is bound to do. A servant does his work, and receives his wages—this is no favour. Now what we may observe from this is, that the conception of a favour includes in it the conception of a thing not due. A negative cannot be conceived by one who has no conception of the corresponding positive. Not to be due is the negative of being due; and he who conceives the first must conceive the last. The idea of things due or not due must be conceived by every one who has any sentiments of gratitude, and therefore not less natural than the sentiment of gratitude is, because no gratitude is due; nor is any raised naturally in the mind, unless where some good is done that was not due.

Let us consider, on the other hand, that which we call an injury, and which I conceive to be the natural object of resentment. Every man who is capable of looking into his own heart, conceives an injury implies something more than receiving hurt. If I am hurt by a stone falling out of the wall, or by a flash of lightning, or by an involuntary motion in another man's arm, no injury is done, no resentment is raised. In this, as well as in all other immoral actions, there must be will and intention in the agent to do the hurt. Nor is this sufficient to constitute an injury. A man who treads down my corn, or breaks down my fences, in order to fly from danger, when he has no ill intentions, and is willing to indemnify me for the hurt, is not injurious, nor is he the object of resentment. The executioner who only does his duty in cutting off the head of a condemned criminal, is not the object of punishment. He is not injurious. He does nothing unjust. For it is evident that injury, which is the natural object of resentment, implies in it the notion of injustice; and no man can have the notion of injustice without having the notion of justice. It appears therefore, I think, from what has been said, that the notion of justice is no less natural to the human mind than the notion of a favour, or of an injury no less natural than the affection of gratitude and resentment. These three, to wit, a favour, an act of justice, and an injury, are so related to each other, that he who conceives one of them must conceive all: they lie all, as it were, in one line, and resemble the three ratios of—greater, middle, and less. He who understands what is meant when one line is called less or greater than another, can be at no loss to know what is meant by one line being equal to another; for if it is neither greater nor less, it must be equal. A favour is more than justice, an injury is less; and that which is neither a favour nor an injury, is a just action: for in every state of society in which there is gratitude for good offices, or resentment for injuries, there must be a notion of justice; and this notion of justice is as natural to man as the notion of favour or injury, consequently as natural as the emotions of gratitude and resentment. But these are acknowledged by Mr. HUME himself to be natural; and if they are, it necessarily follows that the notion of justice must be so also, which is the thing that was to be proved.

ON THE PROPERTIES OF CHARCOAL.

[FROM CRELL'S CHEMICAL JOURNAL.]

THE experiments of M. LOWITZ on charcoal, point out its application to such a variety of economical purposes, as well as illustrate its mode of action in those operations, in which, from experience or chance, it has been already employed, that we hope to gratify our philosophical readers by presenting them with some pretty copious extracts relative to that subject, from a work not in very general circulation.

1. Common vinegar, on being boiled in a matrafs with charcoal powder, became perfectly limpid like water.

2. The following are some of the remarkable effects that take place in the purification of honey:—As long as honey diluted with a sufficient quantity of water is boiled with charcoal powder, a very unpleasent and peculiar smell is perceived.

If the charcoal powder is not added to the honey and water (*hydromel*) in a quantity sufficient for absorbing all the mucilaginous parts, the filtrated *hydromel* constantly appears of a semi-transparent blackish colour; and this continues till the necessary quantity of charcoal powder is added, and then the liquor runs through the filter as clear as water.

If the residuum of charcoal powder which served to deprive the honey of its smell and slimy matter be lixiviated with a large quantity of water, the matter will acquire a similar semi-pellucid black colour.

If this black water be evaporated, the black matter will be deposited on the sides of the vessel in the form of a foot, that is very soft and unctuous to the touch. That these effects are owing to the slimy parts of the honey, seems to be proved by the following experiments:

3. To a diluted solution of an ounce of gum-arabic was gradually added charcoal powder by pounds; the mixture was well boiled, and a little of it was frequently filtered for examination. The liquor, however, constantly ran through the bloating-paper turbid and dark-coloured till 30lbs. of charcoal powder, with a proportionate quantity of water for its dilution, had been mixed with it, and then the percolated liquor

was clear. The whole of the filtrated liquor was now evaporated, but none of the gum was any longer to be found in it, so that it must have been decomposed or simply absorbed by the charcoal.

5. Charcoal powder has the same effect upon other fluids which contain either vegetable mucilage or animal gluten. They will not run clear through the filter till they have been completely deprived of their mucilaginous or glutinous parts by the addition of a proper quantity of charcoal powder.

6. Beer, milk, or lemon-juice, mixed with charcoal powder, remain of a turbid black colour until the latter is added in a quantity sufficient for depriving those fluids of all their mucilaginous, caseous, and oily parts, for which effect those fluids must be diluted with a prodigious quantity of water.

7. From these facts we may determine *à priori*, and without having recourse to experiments, the cases in which this clarifying powder of charcoal is not at all applicable: it is not applicable to any of those substances in whose mixtures and composition oily, gummy, or gelatinous matter constitutes an essential and necessary part. On the other hand, charcoal powder may be advantageously employed in all those cases in which we wish to separate and remove the above-mentioned principles.

8. Charcoal powder, over which a very empyreumatic distilled vinegar that has been concentrated by freezing, had been abstracted till the charcoal was become dry, displayed upon its surface all the colours of a peacock's tail.

9. All sorts of vessels, and other utensils, may be purified from long-retained smells of every kind, in the easiest and most perfect manner, by rinsing them out well with charcoal powder, after their grosser impurities have been scoured off with sand and pot-ash.

10. In the common mode of clarifying honey a great deal of scum is separated; from this scum we may obtain honey perfectly pure and clear, by diluting it with a proper quantity of water, and adding to it while on the fire as much charcoal powder as is necessary to make it filter clear. The filtrated liquor is afterwards

afterwards to be evaporated to a proper consistence.

11. Upon the disagreeable bitter taste of salt water, charcoal has not the least effect. This seems to me to prove, that its nauseous taste is not owing to bituminous matter, but to the earthy neutral salts; for the charcoal would certainly extract or absorb any bituminous matter from the water, whereas upon salts the charcoal has no effect.

12. Salt of hartshorn is rendered uncommonly white on being well triturated with an equal quantity of charcoal powder, and put into a retort so as to fill it half way up. The remaining space within the retort is to be filled up with coarsely-pounded charcoal, and the whole is then to be subjected to distillation.

13. In the purification of common ardent spirits by means of charcoal, without the help of distillation, if too little charcoal-powder be added, the spirits will always retain a blackish turbid appearance. But this black matter may be instantly and entirely separated from the spirits by the addition of salt of tartar in such quantity as is sufficient for it to form with the water which it attracts from the spirits a distinct fluid. As soon as the separation of the watery from the spirituous parts takes place, the black matter is seen floating upon the undermost fluid in the form of an extremely fine pellicle. On the other hand, if to a pound of such turbid spirits only a very small quantity, not exceeding a grain, of the alkali be added, the separation of the black sooty matter will not take place for several days.

14. People whose breath smells strong from a scorbutic disposition of the gums, may at any time get perfectly rid of this bad smell by rubbing and washing out the mouth and teeth thoroughly with fine charcoal powder. I was led to this discovery by the effects of charcoal on putrid flesh. By means of this very simple application the teeth are at the same time rendered beautifully white.

15. Brown, putrid, and stinking water was not only immediately deprived of its offensive smell by means of charcoal powder, but was also rendered transparent. Hence it would probably be of use for preserving fresh water sweet during sea voyages, to add about five pounds of coarse charcoal powder to every cask of water; especially as the

charcoal might easily be separated by filtering, whenever wanted, through a linen bag.

16. I let sixteen pounds of urine stand to putrify during two months, and then mixed with it, while it was boiling, two pounds of charcoal powder; the bad smell immediately vanished, and there remained only the strong smell of volatile alkali. In order to separate all the mucous and extractive parts, I evaporated it with some charcoal powder to dryness. The dry residuum thus obtained, being lixiviated with water, afforded a liquor which was perfectly as clear as water, and which, after it was evaporated to the point of crystallization, had only a slight brown tinge, and remained fluid enough to allow the salts which it contained to shoot easily and regularly into beautiful white crystals of cubical and other forms.

17. Camphor and its odour are not in the least altered by charcoal; when this last, however, is added to a solution of unrefined camphor in spirits of wine, it deprives the same of its yellow colour.

18. If to a saturated solution of camphor in highly-rectified spirit of wine, charcoal be added in a sufficient quantity to let it settle well, the camphor will crystallize in the clear solution above the charcoal, nearly in the same manner as sal ammoniac, in the form of plumose crystals, which, according as the weather is warmer or colder, will alternately disappear and re-appear.

19. Though honey boiled with charcoal is thereby deprived of its peculiar smell and taste, and also of its colour and slimy parts, yet if it is farther evaporated, after the separation of the charcoal powder it again recovers its brown colour.

20. By trituration with charcoal powder bugs were entirely deprived of their bad smell.

21. Spirits distilled from malt or other grain, shew by the smell evidently that their strength is much increased by purification with charcoal, without the help of distillation, inasmuch that persons who were not informed of the manner in which the purification was effected, have taken such spirits for rectified spirit of wine.

22. Relative to the mode of purifying ardent spirits by means of charcoal without distillation, and the time which the charcoal powder, added in different proportions, requires before it completely

pletely settles, I have made the following observations:

I divided ten pounds of ardent spirits into ten equal portions, and added charcoal powder in the following increased proportions:

Half a dram of charcoal powder produced scarcely any alteration in the smell, and the spirits had not become quite clear even after six months.

One dram occasioned hardly any perceptible diminution of the smell, and the spirit did not become clear till after the space of four months.

With two drams the spirit became clear in two months.

Four drams occasioned a very perceptible diminution of the smell, and the powder completely settled in the course of a month.

One ounce entirely took off the bad smell, and the spirit became clear in a fortnight.

With an ounce and a half the spirit cleared in eight days.

With two ounces in six days.

With three ounces in five days.

With four ounces in twenty-four hours.

And with five ounces in two hours.

The proportion of charcoal powder could not be farther increased on account of the thickness which the mixture acquired.

It is remarkable, that ardent spirits which have been completely purified by means of charcoal, give out a fine odour exactly resembling that of peaches.

23. The author found also, that by means of charcoal powder he could completely purify a naturally dark brown resin. He rendered resin of jalap as white as milk, without its losing any of its peculiar smell; the process, however, is somewhat tedious.

24. Empyreumatic oils, dissolved in a sufficient quantity of highly rectified spirit of wine, are entirely deprived of their colour and smell by charcoal.

25. Distilled waters are rendered completely inodorous by treatment with charcoal powder. If to any of these distilled waters only just so much charcoal powder be added as will suffice for destroying the smell, the water will always remain turbid; but when a larger quantity of charcoal powder is added, the water becomes perfectly clear and transparent. This circumstance seems to be owing to the tenacious slimy particles, by means of which the essential oils are kept diffused and suspended in

distilled waters; hence the water cannot become clear till the charcoal has been added in a quantity sufficient for the separation of the slimy matter.

26. A watery infusion of assafoetida prepared by digestion, and a cold infusion of Virginia snake-root and valerian, were entirely deprived of the smell peculiar to these substances by charcoal powder.

27. By the same means both white and red wine are rendered as colourless as water.

28. All the calcareous particles are completely separated from lime-water by means of charcoal powder; so that it becomes quite tasteless, and is not rendered in the least degree turbid by the addition of acid of sugar.

29. Water saturated with fixed air is very quickly and very completely deprived of it by charcoal powder.

30. Onions, after they have been well bruised or mashed, are quickly and completely deprived of their strong smell by mixture with charcoal powder. The same thing happens with garlick.

31. If a little charcoal powder has been introduced into a bottle that has been filled with smoke, and the bottle is afterwards shaken, the smoke will be entirely absorbed, and the charcoal powder will thereby lose its dephlogisticating power upon every other substance. Hence we see how necessary it is, that charcoal which is prepared beforehand for any of these experiments, be kept from the access of smoke, and, what is the constant attendant on smoke, phlogisticated air.

We have laid the above interesting and curious experiments before our readers, because it is probable that when offered to a variety of minds, some of them may be applied to purposes of more extensive utility, and made to increase the comforts or the happiness of life.

To succeed in any of the processes just mentioned, it is necessary to be observed, that considerable attention is necessary to the preparation and state of the charcoal made use of. A want of attention to this and some other circumstances to be mentioned, has prevented some good chemists from being able to repeat these experiments.

The charcoal should be made red-hot in a furnace, and those pieces which cease to give any smoke, must be taken out with tongs, and be laid to cool upon clean bricks. The larger pieces should

be broken before they are removed from the fire; for a single piece of imperfectly charred coal will counteract the dephlogisticating effects of a considerable quantity of powder with which it may chance to be mixed.

Great care must be taken that the charcoal does not come into contact with any greasy, oily, or inflammable matter, or with smoke, while cooling.

As soon as the charcoal powder is become cool, the ashes which adhered to it must be blown off with a pair of bellows; it must then be pounded and passed through a fine hair sieve, and kept in clean earthen or glass vessels, closely stopped, to prevent the access of air.

Much depends on the fineness of the charcoal powder, for the finer it is the greater number of surfaces are presented to the substances to be operated

on, and consequently a smaller quantity of the powder suffices. By attending to this circumstance much trouble may be saved.

The goodness of charcoal powder thus prepared may be ascertained by the following trial:—Put an ounce of the most empyreumatic and worst kind of ardent spirits into a phial, add to it two drams of the powder, shake them together. If the charcoal is of a proper quality, the spirits will immediately lose their bad smell.

The bodies to be operated upon must be exposed to the action of the charcoal, wet, dry, more or less diluted, with or without the addition of heat, according to their various natures.

The separation of the charcoal powder is easiest and soonest effected by means of a linen strainer.

T H E
L O N D O N R E V I E W
A N D
L I T E R A R Y J O U R N A L,

For DECEMBER 1793.

Quid sit turpe, quid utile, quid dulce, quid non.

The Works of Cornelius Tacitus: By Arthur Murphy, Esq. With an Essay on the Life and Genius of Tacitus; Notes, Supplements, and Maps. In Four Volumes. 4to. Price 4l. 4s. in boards. Robinsons. 1793.

THOUGH it be with the translation of Tacitus that we have now to do, not with the character of that original and great historian himself, it would be difficult, perhaps unnatural and indecorous, to pass by the present opportunity of recognizing the merit of that sublime genius, and joining in the general voice of applause and admiration. Cornelius Tacitus, by a rare felicity of circumstances, united in himself all those relations, qualities, and accomplishments, that are requisite to form a great historian. He was of senatorial rank, and in that order highly distinguished. He enjoyed the favour of the Princes and Sovereigns of the civilized world, and

held civil offices of the highest dignity and importance. He possessed a native probity and elevation of mind; and these noble qualities were heightened and confirmed by an habitual conversancy with the history of the Roman Republic, and an education in the principles of the sublimest philosophy. The profoundness of his reflections, the precision of his diction, his elegant and energetic brevity, and something remarkably picturesque and dramatic in his manner, conspire, with the dignity and importance of his subjects, to clothe his works with a never-failing bloom, and render his fame immortal. He records the actions, the counsels, the se-

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cret motives of the great actors in the greatest political drama that was ever exhibited on the world; and the History of Tacitus, as is well observed by his accomplished translator and critic, is "Philosophy teaching by Example."

To all European nations the writings of Tacitus must be interesting; but, perhaps, in a superior degree to the descendants of the Celtic, particularly the Caledonian; and to those of the German, particularly the English nation. A peculiar interest, it may be observed, is super-added to the works of the great philosophical historian by the awful complexion of the present times, when we see how nearly connected are the opposite extremes of anarchy and despotism, and how much the natural malignity and weakness of the human mind stand in need of being controuled by the authority of divine and human institutions; by Religion, Laws, and well-established forms of Government. Though so great and laborious an undertaking as a translation of Tacitus, with proper illustrations, explanations, and supplements, must have been begun many years before the present convulsions of France, one is ready to imagine, at first sight, that Mr. Murphy had chosen the present crisis, for publishing his Tacitus, to teach, in days of peril, a seasonable and salutary doctrine to the European nations.

The first Volume of this publication contains a dedication to the Right Honourable Edm. Burke; an Essay on the Life and Genius of Tacitus; the first six Books of the Annals of Tacitus; Notes on the Annals; a Geographical Table; or Index of the Names of Places, Rivers, &c. mentioned in this Volume; and a Map of the Ancient World as known to the Romans. The Second Volume contains the remaining Books of the Annals, with Notes, and an Appendix; a Genealogical Table of the *Cæsars*; a Geographical Table and a Map of Asia. The Third Volume contains the History of Tacitus, illustrated by a Map of Italy, an Appendix, Notes, and a Geographical Table. The Fourth Volume, to a British reader (under which name we comprehend all the natives of the *Insulæ Britannicæ*) the most interesting of the whole, contains the Life of Agricola, with Notes; the celebrated and valuable Treatise on the Manners of the Germans, with Notes, and a Map of Ancient Germany. This Volume

contains also, the Dialogue concerning Oratory, of which, as Mr. Murphy in a Note has justly remarked, "the Commentators are much divided in their opinions about the real author. This work, they all agree, is a masterpiece in the kind; written with taste and judgment; entertaining, profound, and elegant. But whether it is to be ascribed to Tacitus, Quinctilian, or any other person whom they cannot name, is a question upon which they have exhausted a store of learning." Mr. Murphy, after giving an account of the principal arguments *pro* and *con*, says in conclusion, although he seems to lean to the opinion that it is the production of Tacitus, "The dispute is of no importance; for, as Lipsius says, whether we give the Dialogue to Quinctilian or to Tacitus, no inconvenience can arise. Whoever was the author, it is a performance of uncommon beauty."

We shall present our readers with a few extracts by way of specimens, both from the Translation and the Notes. The following is the character of Poppæa, than whom neither Italy nor France, at the height of modern luxury and refinement, ever produced a more accomplished courtesan or a more artful coquet. "Sabina Poppæa at that time lived at Rome in a style of taste and elegance. She was the daughter of Titus Ollius, but she took her name from Poppæus Sabinus, her grandfather by the maternal line. Her father Ollius was, at one time, rising to the highest honours; but, being a friend to Sejanus, he was involved in the ruin of that Minister. The grandfather had figured on the stage of public business. He was of consular rank, and obtained the honour of a triumph. To be the known descendant of a man so distinguished, flattered the vanity of Poppæa. Virtue excepted, she possessed all the qualities that adorn the female character. Her mother was the reigning beauty of her time. From her the daughter inherited nobility of birth, with all the graces of an elegant form. Her fortune was equal to her rank; her conversation had every winning art; her talents were cultivated, and her wit refined. She knew how to assume an air of modesty, and yet pursue lascivious pleasures; in her deportment, decent; in her heart, a libertine. When she appeared in public, which was but seldom, she wore a veil, that shaded, or seemed to shade, her face; perhaps intending,

tending, that her beauty should not wear out and tarnish to the eye; or because that style of dress was most becoming. To the voice of fame she paid no regard: her husband and her adulterer were equally welcome to her embraces. Love with her was not an affair of the heart. Knowing no attachment herself, she required none from others. Where she saw her interest, there she bestowed her favours; a politician even in her pleasures. She was married to Rufinus Crispinus, a Roman Knight, and was by him the mother of a son; but Otho, a youth of expectation, luxurious, prodigal, and high in favour with Nero, attracted her regard. She yielded to his addresses, and in a short time married the adulterer.

“Otho, in company with the Emperor, grew lavish in her praise. Her beauty and her elegant manners were his constant theme. He talked, perhaps, with the warmth and indiscretion of a lover; perhaps with a design to inflame the passions of Nero, and from their mutual relish of the same enjoyments to derive new strength to support his interest. Rising from Nero’s table, he was often heard to say, “I am going to the arms of her who possesses every amiable accomplishment; by her birth ennobled; endeared by beauty; the wish of all beholders, and to the favoured man the source of true delight.” Nero became enamoured. No time was lost. Poppæa received his visits. At the first interview she called forth all her charms, and ensured her conquest. She admired the dignity of the Prince. His air, his manner, and his looks were irresistible. By this well-acted fondness he gained entire dominion over his affections. Proud of her success, she thought it time to act her part with female airs and coy reluctance. If Nero wished to detain her more than a night or two, she could not think of complying; she was married to a man whom she loved. She could not risk the loss of a situation so perfectly happy. Otho led a life of taste and elegance, univalued in his pleasures. Under his roof she saw nothing but magnificence, in a style worthy of the highest station. She objected to Nero that he had contracted different habits. He lived in close connection with *Adé*, a low-born slave; and from so mean a commerce what could be expected but fordid manners and degenerate sentiment! From that moment Otho lost his interest with the

Prince: he had orders neither to frequent the Palace, nor to shew himself in the train of attendants. At length, to remove a rival, Nero made him Governor of Lusitania. Otho quitted Rome, and, till the breaking out of the civil wars, continued in the administration of his province a firm and upright magistrate; in this instance exhibiting to the world that wonderful union of repugnant qualities which marked the man; in private life, luxurious, profligate, and prone to every vice; in his public capacity, prudent, just, and temperate in the use of power.”

Thus much of moral:—The following is an example of natural description.

“By Agricola’s order the Roman fleet sailed round the northern point, and made the first certain discovery that Britain is an island. The cluster of isles called the Orcades, till then wholly unknown, was in this expedition added to the Roman Empire. Thule, which had lain concealed in the gloom of winter and a depth of eternal snows, was also seen by our navigators. The sea in those parts is said to be a sluggish mass of stagnated water, hardly yielding to the stroke of the oar, and never agitated by winds and tempests. The natural cause may be, that high lands and mountains, which occasion commotions in the air, are deficient in those regions; not to mention that such a prodigious body of water, in a vast and boundless ocean, is heaved and impelled with difficulty. But a philosophical account of the ocean and its periodical motions is not the design of this essay: the subject has employed the pen of others. To what they have said I shall only add, that there is not in any other part of the world an expanse of water that rages with such uncontrolled dominion, now receiving the discharge of various rivers, and, at times, driving their current back to their source. Nor is it on the coast only that the flux and reflux of the tide are perceived: the swell of the sea forces its way into the recesses of the land, forming bays and islands in the heart of the country, and foaming amidst hills and mountains, as in its natural channel.”

This passage, Captain Newte observes in his late Tour in England and Scotland, refers clearly to the coasts of Argyle, Ross-shire, and Sutherland; of all of which it is a just, animated, and brief description.

On the famous battle between the Romans under Agricola, and the Caledonian Chief Galgacus, whom the conjectural or fabulous Scottish historians call King *Galdus*, Mr. Murphy has this note :

“ We are now on the point of a great and decisive action. The motives that incite both armies have been displayed with energy. On one side, the liberty of a people is depending ; on the other, the fate of the Roman army. The order in which the combatants were drawn up, is now presented to us, but with the usual brevity of Tacitus. All this preparation keeps the reader in suspense, and fills the mind with expectation. As Britons we feel for our ancestors, and as scholars we are dazzled by the glory of the Roman name. We have now before us the preparation for the *swelling scene*. The main body of the Caledonians took post on the acclivity of the Grampian mount ; their advanced lines stood at the foot of the hill, and the ranks rose one above another, in regular order, to the summit. The charioteers and horsemen advanced on the open plain, and rushed to and fro with wild velocity. On the side of the Romans, the order of battle was as follows:—Eight thousand auxiliaries formed the centre ; the cavalry, amounting to three thousand, took post in the wings ; the legions were stationed in the rear, near the entrenchments, to act as occasion required, as a body of reserve ; and that the enemy might not be able to make an impression on the flank, the front lines of the army were extended to a considerable length. Bretier, in his note on this passage, adds, that the spot where the battle was fought was in *Stratbearn*, near the *Kirk of Comerie* : for this he relies on the authority of Gordon. The camp, described in two divisions, one for the auxiliaries and the other for the cavalry, appears to him to be a circumstance of great weight, as indeed it must to every one who considers that the Romans seldom or never came to action till they had, in some convenient place, formed a camp, and thrown up their entrenchments, to secure their retreat. There were besides, as appears in Gordon’s Itinerary, other camps in the adjacent country, from which Agricola drew together the main strength of his army. Mr. Pennant observes, that, according to Tacitus, the Caledonians were above thirty thousand strong, and could not

act with effect in close and narrow defiles. But, as it should seem, the spot was chosen by Galgacus, with a view to draw the Romans into a contracted plain, and then pour down upon them from the high grounds, and the Grampian hill. On the other hand, Agricola, who is celebrated for skill in choosing his ground, might also prefer a place where thirty thousand men could not at once attack an inferior army. In this it appears that he succeeded. We are told that the enormous swords of the Caledonians were unfit for an engagement in a confined space ; *in arcto pugnam non tolerabant* : and afterwards, when the charioteers rushed into the heat of the action, they were soon entangled among the inequalities of the ground ; *inæqualibus locis hærebant*. The objection, therefore, to the narrowness of the field of battle, on which Mr. Pennant lays so much stress, seems to lose its force, when we find that the battle was actually fought in a place of no great extent, surrounded by a number of hills, besides the Grampian mountain, where the main body of the Caledonians lay in wait for an opportunity to rush down upon the Romans. As to the distance from the sea, which Mr. Pennant calls an insuperable argument, as Agricola sent forward his fleet to distract the enemy, it is by no means a decisive circumstance. In Agricola’s sixth campaign Tacitus tells us, that the fleet and land forces proceeded in fight of each other. In the present expedition, that is not said to have been the case. The Roman General might order his fleet to sail across the Firths both of the *Tay* and the *Forth*, while he himself, at the head of his army, marched in quest of the enemy, then actually assembled at the Grampian hill. In case of a defeat, the ships were, perhaps, in the Firth of *Tay* to receive the flying army. Upon the whole, it appears, from all the circumstances of the battle, that the Caledonians, far from wishing to act in a wide-extended plain, chose a spot where they were posted to advantage on the hills.”

Mr. Murphy would be much confirmed in the opinion he has here given on the side of Mr. Gordon, and against that of Mr. P. by a perusal of Captain Newte’s description of the natural contour of Scotland, and particularly of the Roman marches, and castrametation, and fortifications in Stirlingshire, Perthshire, and Angus. From which it will appear

pear probable, that whether the camp of Agricola was that at Comrie in Strathearn, or Ardoch in Strathallan, not above seven or eight miles distant from each other, the *Mons Grampius* was no other than the lofty mountain of *Benvoirlick*, the roots of which, by various shelvings and abrupt heights and precipices, extend to both of these stations; and from the higher parts of which, as it advances into the low country farther than any of the other Grampian Mountains, and is situated in the very centre of Scotland, a spectator may see the three great Firths of Tay, the Forth, and the Clyde.

Mr. Murphy has given the sense of his author in a pleasing and proper style, and even caught not a little of his manner: in order to do which, in so long a work, it was necessary to be master of the whole compass of the English language. His notes and supplements shew that he is intimately conversant with Roman antiquity, and with literature in general. He views the objects that pass before him with the eye of a critic, a moralist, and a politician; and in particular he makes interesting comparisons between the situations and characters of different antient and modern tribes and nations.

Practical Essays on the Management of Pregnancy and Labour, and on the Inflammatory and Febrile Diseases of Lying-in Women. By John Clarke, M. D. &c. London: Printed for Johnson, St. Paul's Church-yard.

THE Author of these Essays professes to publish them for the improvement and instruction of the younger part of the Faculty. For this purpose they appear well calculated. The precepts they inculcate are plain, simple, and practical. "The diseases incident to the state of pregnancy," the Author observes, "are to be averted by the same means that tend to preserve health in general. The most necessary requisites to conduct the generality of labours are time and patience, those which are the least interfered with terminating most favourably:" a serious truth, which we sincerely wish to be deeply impressed on the mind of every young practitioner, and a most useful lesson to those meddling men-midwives who, to save their time, to increase the profits of their trade, or to conceal their ignorance, think it requisite always to be doing something. For this, as for the other functions of the animal œconomy, nature has unquestionably provided resources sufficient to complete her purpose. Much mischief has probably arisen from the habit of considering parturition as a disease, and therefore standing in need of artificial aid, instead of a natural function, capable of completing its own course. Besides the human species, the only animals that are observed to die during this process, are such as, in consequence of being domesticated, are become subject to the improper interference of mankind. To bear and to forbear, the two grand branches into which virtue was divided by the Stoics, ought to be the leading principles in the conduct of the accoucheur.

Subsequent as well as previous to labour, the welfare of the woman is best consulted by keeping her as much as possible in a natural state, permitting a free circulation of air, avoiding stimulating aliment, and allowing her to sit up or to continue in bed, as her strength and inclination dictate. To prevent mammary abscesses purgatives and topical repellents are found useful, but it is still better prevented by the mother suckling her child, in obedience to the dictate of nature. When this is practised, the disease rarely occurs. And thus we learn, that the result of the scientific improvement of midwifery, is what uninterrupted nature would have pointed out, and that the vaunted progress in this department of the practice of medicine has only consisted in removing the impediments which ignorance and knavery had accumulated to impede and to thwart her operations.

The subsequent part of these Essays treats of such diseases as most commonly occur after parturition. Their probable causes, symptoms, and the method of cure at present most generally approved of, are considered in a plain, easy, practical manner, well calculated to guide the inexperienced steps of the young practitioner of midwifery, who, we can venture to say, will not find his time mis-spent in an attentive perusal of this performance. To the Author we would observe, that the style of his work partakes too much of the colloquial prolixity of a lecture. The information which it contains might certainly have been conveyed with equal perspicuity in fewer words.

Pictureſque

Picturesque Views on the River Medway, from the Nore to the Vicinity of its Source in Suffex: with Observations on the Public Buildings, and other Works of Arts in its Neighbourhood. By Samuel Ireland, Author of a *Picturesque Tour through Holland, Brabant, and Part of France; and of Picturesque Views on the River Thames.* 8vo. Egerton.

THIS very elegant volume is prefaced by a handsome dedication to the Countess Dowager of Aylesford, and may properly be considered as a continuation of a former work on the subject of the Thames.

From a cursory view of the title, and the subject being connected with the fine arts, we were for a moment led to suppose, that this work was written by the Mr. Ireland whose "Illustration of Hogarth" we noticed in a former Review, but on inspection we find the name of that Gentleman is *John Ireland*, of this *Samuel Ireland*.

Of the typographical part of this volume, to say that it is equal to the Views on the river Thames is sufficient praise; the paper is peculiarly fine; and near thirty views, with which it is decorated, are in general accurate, and invariably picturesque. They are delineations of the following places:

Sheerness,—Minster abbey, &c.—
Cowling Castle—Uppor Castle—
Chatham—Rocheſter, from Frindsbury-hill
--Temple Farm, Stroud--Lord Darnley's
Mausoleum in Cobham Park—Remains
of Halling House--Malling Abbey--Ley-
bourne Castle—Hop Ground—Ayles-
ford—Lady Aylesford's, called the Friars
—Maidstone--Boxley Abbey—Leeds
Lathe—East Farley Church and Bridge
—Barming Teston Bridge—Nettlested
—Twyford—Brantdridge—Aylesford
Castle—Tunbridge--Penshurst--Hever
Castle---Tunbridge Wells--Bayham
Abbey.

The preface exhibits a very clear account of the Author's plan, and

affords a good specimen of the language in which the work is written.

"The views selected in the course of this work, form the natural and artificial scenery of this rich and fertile country; and are represented with that fidelity which the Author flatters himself will entitle him to the patronage of a discerning public.

"Where he has been conscious that the same subject had been delineated by others, he has endeavoured so to vary the point of view, as to render the objects materially different, and in some instances is induced to hope he may have made a more favourable selection."

In the Writer's account of Tunbridge Wells, he gives the following anecdote of Henrietta Maria, Queen of Charles I. "She was advised to visit this place for the recovery of her health, and tents were erected for her reception upon Bishop's Down Common, as at that time no house stood on this desert part of the county. She is said to have one day walked from the well into the borders of Suffex, where, growing weary, she sat down on a bank for repose, after which she ordered a stone to be placed there in remembrance of her excursion; and some adulatory lines were added thereto by one of her attendants. Of the stone or inscription no trace is to be found; but the spot has served as a resting-place to many a weary traveller since her time, as an ale-house has been erected thereon in the road to Frant, and is known by the sign of the Black Dog."

Memoirs of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Manchester, Vol. IV.
Part I. 8vo. Cadell.

(Continued from Page 351.)

ART. V. ON THE IMPRESSION OF REALITY ATTENDING DRAMATIC REPRESENTATIONS. BY J. AIKIN, M. D. COMMUNICATED BY DOCTOR PERCIVAL. READ OCT. 9.

THIS Paper we have perused with a very great degree of satisfaction and entertainment: the theory of moral sentiment is an interesting chapter of Metaphysics; the nearer we can reduce it to the practical experience of our
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minds, the more it informs and delights us; and the more familiar we become with it, we become better pleased and better acquainted with ourselves. In the diffusive treatises with which the Public have lately been favoured upon this extensive or rather boundless subject, we discover much to admire, but we are so frequently forced to doubt or to dissent, that we can scarce be said to read with either conviction or pleasure.

K k P

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The little Essay before us, confining itself to a particular and defined object, delights and persuades together; it explains to us our own known feelings, and enables us with facility to reject those imperious and authoritative accounts of them which have been imposed upon us by literary tyrants of our own creation or worship, and at the same time it vindicates the rule and taste of the Antients and Moderns who possessed it, from the arbitrary charges which have not been without impertinence preferred against them.

Doctor Johnson, who was not jealous of Shakespeare, and who loved a paradox at his soul, who disputed oftener for victory than for truth, and who with a sound judgment was miserably amerced by nature of his share of taste, chose to defend the indefeasible violations of the Dramatic unities, so prominent and so disgraceful in the works of that exalted genius. In his preface to Shakespeare he argues, that as we do not even in fact believe a Dramatic representation to be real, so we cannot injure the effect of it by any thing which has a tendency to destroy that belief; "and he seems," says Doctor Aikin, "to triumph not a little in exposing the absurdity of an imagined conviction that a scene passing before our eyes is real, when we are all the time conscious that it begun in fiction."

To Doctor Aikin, on the contrary, it appears, that "in this instance, as well as perhaps in many others, the critic has taken a very narrow survey of the human mind, and has only skimmed the surface for that truth which lay somewhat deeper." We do not for our own part entertain the least doubt, but that Doctor Aikin has proved his assertion incontestably, and that not only he has overthrown the laborious but deceitful reasoning of his powerful antagonist, but established a true and beautiful theory of his own. It shall be our care to select such extracts from Doctor Aikin's Essay, as will make the Reader most easily acquainted with his system and manner, and which can be contained at the same time within the narrow limits of our Review.

"Why is it that the view of a real scene of distress, in which we are not personally concerned, operates upon our feelings but in consequence of that general principle of our nature, whereby the image of human passions in another, excites corresponding emotions in

ourselves? Reality itself cannot operate upon us without a medium; and in what respect does the action produced by the direct medium of the senses, differ from that produced by the remoter mediums of recollection, narration, or any mode of fictitious representation? I behold a person suffering under the extremity of torture, and find myself highly affected at the spectacle. I make his feelings in some respect my own;—my flesh creeps upon my bones, and the pain of sympathy rises to such a degree as to become intolerable. It is now over, and that portion of human misery has no longer an existence. Still the scene recurs to my mind, and whenever it intrudes all my pain is renewed, though with less intensity; and this continues to be the case till the ideas fade away. The identity of the sensation is proved by the sameness of the corporeal effects. If I shuddered and turned pale at the real spectacle, I do the same at the first recollections: if I ran with horror from the former, I plunge into company or business to deliver me from the latter. Now, if it be allowed that my own mind, acting upon itself, without the aid of external objects, be capable of creating an imaginary scene indistinguishable in its effects from a real one, why should not equal power be granted to those artificial methods, in which resembling, sensible objects are called in to assist the operations of the fancy?

"But, it may be said, no one denies as a matter of fact the power of recollection and fictitious representation to move the passions, and the question is only, what is necessary to the production of this effect? Now, since in the case of a recollected scene, it cannot be a *belief of reality*, (for no man believes that the event on which he reflects is acted over again) why should such *belief* have any thing more to do with the efficacy of fiction? And this reasoning (on which Doctor Johnson diffusely dwells) is just, as far as it goes; but his error consists in confounding with *proper belief*, that *impression of reality*, or *temporary illusion*, which I conceive absolutely essential to account for the undoubted effects produced by all the various imitations of action. *Belief* is the consequence of a reflex operation of the mind, by which we are convinced of a truth after examination or enquiry. It is therefore incompatible with the impressions of illusion;

for, as soon as they are examined, they are at an end. We cannot ask ourselves whether they are true, without discovering them to be false. But it is certain we are often so impressed with a notion, as to entertain no present doubts about it, though it is no object of our belief, but, on the contrary, has repeatedly been detected by us as a falsehood.

“Doctor Johnson himself, speaking of what he terms the *extrusion* of Gloster’s eyes in Lear, says, that it “seems an act too horrid to be endured in Dramatic exhibition, and such as must always compel the mind to relieve its distress by incredulity.” Does not this expressly imply, that a *less* horrid and unnatural action would pass on the stage for real; and that the usual affection of the mind in dramatic exhibitions is an impression of reality? *Historical incredulity* cannot be here meant; for how are we sure that the story was *not* true? besides, we read with tolerable tranquillity of facts still more shocking. It must then be the “*incredulus oli*” of Horace,—a resolution to discard and reject what so much pains us. Horace did not disbelieve that Medea had murdered her children; but when the fact was represented to him in a visible display, the horror he felt made him refuse to admit it as a true scene.”

We omit from necessity several instances cited with great ingenuity from the experience of reveries, from the contemplation of the most high-wrought scenes in Moralists or Historians;—as, for example, Sterne’s story of Le Fevre, and the Landing of Agrippina with the Ashes of her Husband, doubtless the most pathetic description in Tacitus, or any other Historian;—that we may accompany Doctor Aikin to the Theatre, where we shall find him particularly interesting and convincing.

“Attend me next to the *theatre*. I go, it is acknowledged, with the full conviction that the place is Drury-lane, and that the actors are merely players, representing a fiction for their own emolument. Nay, I go with the avowed purpose of seeing a favourite actress in a particular character. The curtain draws up, and after some preparation, enters Mrs. Siddons in Belvidera. The first employment of my mind is to criticize her performance, and I admire the justness of her action, and the unequalled expressiveness of her tones and looks. The Play proceeds, and I am made privy to a

horrid plot. With this, domestic distresses are mingled, involving the two most interesting characters in the piece. By degrees, I lose sight of Mrs. Siddons in her proper person, and only view her in the assumed shape of Belvidera. I cease to criticize her, but give way with full soul to all the sentiments of love, tenderness, and anxiety which she utters. As the catastrophe advances, the accumulated distress and anguish lay fast hold on my heart: I sob, weep, am almost choked with the mixed emotions of pity, terror, and apprehension, and totally forget the theatre, the actors, and the audience, till perhaps my attention to present objects is recalled by the screams or swooning of a neighbour still more affected than myself. Shall the cold critic now tell me, I am sure you do not *believe* Mrs. Siddons to be Belvidera, and therefore you can only be affected in consequence of “the reflexion that the evils before you are evils to which yourself may be exposed ---you rather lament the possibility than suppose the presence of misery.” The identity of Belvidera is out of the question; for who was Belvidera? and certainly my own liability to evils, some of them impossible to happen to me, and others highly improbable, is the farthest thing from my thoughts; besides, were the effect of a spectacle of distress dependant on this principle, it would be equally requisite in the real, as in the fictitious scene. What I feel, is *genuine sympathy*, such as by a law of my nature ever results from the image of a suffering fellow-creature, by whatsoever means such an image is excited. The more powerfully it is impressed on my imagination, and the more completely it banishes all other ideas either of sense or reflexion, the more perfect is its effect; and reality has no advantage in this respect over fiction, as long as the temporary illusion produced by the latter continues. That such an *illusion* should take place at the theatre, where every circumstance art can invent has been employed to favour it, cannot be thought extraordinary, after it has been shewn, that a scene of the mind’s own creation can effect it.

“And for what end, but that of deception, are such pains taken in adjusting the scenery, dresses, decorations, &c. to as near a resemblance as possible of reality?—Why might not the piece be as well read in the closet as represented on the stage, if all its effect depended

on the pleasing modulation of language, prompting just reflections on life and manners? Some effect, doubtless, is produced by a tragedy *read*; but this is exactly in proportion to the dramatic powers of the reader, and the strength of imagination in the hearer; and always falls much short of that of a perfect representation on the stage.

“But, says the critic, “the delight of tragedy proceeds from a consciousness of fiction; if we thought murders and treasons real, they would please no more.” *Delight* is not the word by which I would chuse to denote those sensations in the deeper scenes of tragedy, which often arise to such a pitch of intensity, as to be really and exquisitely painful. I do not here mean to enter into an enquiry concerning the source of the interest we take in spectacles of terror and distress. It is sufficient to observe, that just the same difficulty here occurs in reality, as in fiction. Every awful and terrific scene, from an eruption of Etna, or an attack on Gibraltar, to a street-fire or a boxing-match, is gazed at by assembled multitudes. In histories, is it not the page of battles, “treasons and murders,” on which we dwell with most avidity? I do not hesitate to assert, that we never behold with *pleasure* in fictitious representation, what we should not have viewed with a similar sensation in real action. The truth is, that many of the tragic distresses are so blended with lofty and heroic sentiments, that the impression of sorrow for the sufferer is lost in applause and admiration.”

With respect to other violations of character, fable, diction, &c. Dr. Aikin is equally clear and elegant. The Drama, he observes, divided as it is into acts, is a history of which parts are delivered in dialogue, the rest in narration. “It is impossible,” says he, “to give a reason why the mind, which can accompany with its emotions a series of entire narration, should refuse to follow a story of which the most striking parts are exhibited in a manner more peculiarly impressive. During the continuance, indeed, of the dramatic action, every thing should be as much as possible in unison; for as the stage is the most exact imitation of real life that art can invent, and in some respects even perfect, an inconsistency in one point is rendered more obvious by comparison with the rest. Thus, with regard to *time*; as the *conversion* on the stage employs

the very same space of time as it would in a real scene, it seems requisite, that the accompanying *action* should not exceed those limits. If, while the stage has been occupied by the same performers, or an uninterrupted succession of new ones, the story should require the transactions of half a day to run parallel with the discourse of half an hour, we could scarcely fail to be sensible of an incongruity, and cry to ourselves, “This is impossible!” Such a circumstance would give a rude shock to the train of our ideas, and awaken us out of that *dream* of the fancy, in which it is the great purpose of dramatic representations to engage us. For notwithstanding a critic of Dr. Johnson’s name (whose heat and imagination, however, appear from numerous instances to have been very intractable to the efforts of fiction) has thought fit to treat the supposed illusion of the theatre with ridicule, I cannot but be convinced of the existence of what I have so often myself felt, and seen the effects of in others; and if the point were to be decided by authority, I might confidently repose on that of the judicious Horace, who characterises his *master* of the drama, as one,

————— *qui pectus inaniter angit,
Irritat, mulcet, falsis terroribus implet
Ut magus; & modò me Thebis, modò
ponit Athenis.*

“The notion of a temporary delusion produced by the imitative arts, and particularly by the Drama, is, I observe, supported by Dr. Darwin, in the ingenious prose *Introductions* of his *Loves of the Plants*; and by arguments so similar to those here made use of, that it will be proper for me to say, that this short Essay was written some years before the appearance of that beautiful poem. The writer whom Dr. Darwin combats on this occasion is Sir Joshua Reynolds, who seems implicitly to have adopted the opinion of his friend Dr. Johnson.

J. AIKIN.”

We should not have thought it necessary to add the note, if Dr. Aikin had not expressed an anxiety for which it will account. We hope to peruse many other essays, on similar subjects, from this ingenious and elegant pen, which has so much adorned and relieved the severer studies of the Literary Society of Manchester.

[*To be continued.*]

Sixteen Sermons on various Subjects and Occasions. By George Horne, D. D. late Bishop of Norwich. Now first collected into one Volume Octavo. 6s. Robinsons.

OF this truly primitive Prelate we may observe what Gregory Nazianzen said of St. Basil, "antiqua probitate simplicitateque præditus. Et eruditus pietate, et piis eruditionis laude antecellens, ita secundas doctrinæ ferens, ut pietatis primas obtineret."

But few divines of later time have done such essential service to the interests of Christianity, and particularly to the established Church of this kingdom, as Bishop Horne.

We can revert to the period when a listlessness had begun to spread itself throughout our academical seats of literature with respect to the cultivation of genuine theology; when an indifference to the grand peculiarities of the Christian Religion had crept upon its ministers; and of course an alarming preparation made for a new appearance in the creed of the Church, destructive of the fundamentals of its antient faith. The innocence of error in religious opinion was publicly maintained; Christianity began to be considered in no higher point of view than as a more excellent system of morality, and its spiritual nature to be disregarded or contemned. At such a critical period as this, it was the glory of Dr. Horne to distinguish himself as a champion for decaying truth. He, in conjunction with some other worthy confessors, not only felt it to be their duty to exert their utmost influence against the prevailing delusion, but acted thoroughly consonant with their feelings. Their sermons, so different from those of the generality of divines, wore the complete cast of plain unadulterated Christianity, and in consequence the preachers were treated with obloquy. They were branded with nicknames, and pointed at as objects of contempt; and not only so, but publicly abused both from the pulpit and the press. One author, in the *favor* of his zeal to vindicate to human reason a greater portion of value and strength in the business of salvation than it is intitled to, very politely called our prelate, who was then only M. A. and an exemplary fellow of Magdalene College, "*a'frantic Enthusiast*." But he rose superior to all this contemptuous treatment, and his *Apology* for himself and those who with him conceived it to be their duty to preach the word

of God in its genuine purity, will ever stand as a noble monument of his ability, integrity and piety; and we do not hesitate in declaring, that it ought to be put into the hands of every candidate for the Christian ministry, and also to be carefully and frequently perused by every one who partakes of that important office.

We consider ourselves as greatly beholden to the publishers for this collection of the Bishop's Sermons, all of which have appeared before the public at different times, and in separate form; and we are happy to find that there are two volumes of his posthumous sermons speedily to be published. But we should have been much better pleased at seeing a complete uniform collection of his whole works, with a good memoir of the excellent author prefixed. Such a collection must be earnestly desired by all true lovers of learning, good taste, and piety. Nor can we avoid here expressing our desire that a biographical notice of Bishop Horne may be transmitted to us from some of our many correspondents, for the use of our Magazine. Having said thus much on the author, it is time now for us to turn our attention to the present volume of Sermons, *by which he being dead yet speaketh*.

The first Sermon in this collection was preached at St. Mary's, January 30, 1761, and is entitled, *The Christian King*, upon 1. Peter ii. 21. "Leaving us an example that we should follow his steps."

Parallels between the Saviour of the world and King Charles have been often drawn by the Church divines, and as often complained of by their opponents. Such parallels have been treated, not only as injudicious, but even as impious; and it must be confessed that some of the old sermons on this anniversary were too strongly cast in favour of the monarch, and run upon circumstances that were far from being reconcilable either to moderate policy, or rational religion.

The present sermon is an exception against this complaint: it abounds with beautiful sentiments, expressed in elegant language, and contains a just character and vindication of that unfortunate Monarch.

The preacher very ingeniously apologizes for drawing a parallel between the Redeemer of Mankind and the Royal Martyr. The Christian character is, as is well observed, to be conformable to the pattern set by Our Lord when on earth, in all his amiable tempers and dispositions. We cannot wonder then, "when we find the lives, and actions, and sufferings of all the Saints from the beginning to the end of the world bearing such an analogy to those of Christ, and of each other. For it cannot possibly, in the nature of things, be otherwise, seeing they all walk by the same way to the same end; and it is one and the self-same spirit that lives and rules in their hearts, forming and fashioning them to one and the same model of devotion and piety, temperance and chastity, humility and meekness, patience and resignation, faith and charity, righteousness and holiness. And there is an analogy also, for the same cause, between the lives and actions of the children of disobedience in all ages and nations, as the same spirit worketh in them all, and the same part is acted, be the actor's name Cain, Korah, or Cromwell."

Speaking of the King's practice of devotion, our author observes, that "his soul, like the royal bird, borne upwards on the strong and well-poised pinions of a devotion as manly as it was ardent, and having the eyes of her faith fixed on the glories of the Sun of Righteousness, left the world, and all things in it behind her, till her return. What a noble sight is Christianity seated upon a throne!"

In drawing the character of the King, considerable use is made of that excellent and truly Royal work, the *Eikon Basilicæ*, and frequent references are made to Hume's History. Of the former the preacher says, that it is "a book inferior only to the sacred writings, and which it were much to be wished were the companion of every son and daughter of the Church of England." We think this sermon to be one of the very best ever preached upon the subject and occasion.

Sermon II. was preached before the Sons of the Clergy at St. Paul's, May 6, 1762, and the text is extremely apposite, Lam. v. 3. "We are orphans and fatherless, our mothers are as widows."

The claim of the clergy upon the benevolence of the laity is well expressed, and particularly that of their widows and orphans pathetically enforced.

The learned preacher justly laments that evil which so greatly disgraced the Reformation, and at present so depresseth the parochial clergy of England, "the alienation of the tythes from the livings." And in this case we join in the wish here so ardently offered, that "this remnant of popery may be cleared, and the Reformation be carried to its full perfection.

The third sermon is intitled, "Works through Faith a Condition of our Justification." Text, James ii. 24. "You see then how that by works a man is justified, and not by faith only."

This discourse is a very useful antidote against Antinomianism. The preacher quotes largely the authority of the learned and pious Bishop Bull.

Sermon IV. was preached at St. Mary's in Oxford, at the Assizes, March 4, 1773, and is intitled, "The Influence of Christianity on Civil Society," from Titus ii. 11. 12. "The grace of God, which bringeth salvation, hath appeared to all men, teaching us, that denying ungodliness and worldly lusts, we should live soberly, righteously, and godly, in this present world."

In this truly excellent discourse the position is fully proved, that "Christianity, as represented in the text, bears towards society, and the welfare and felicity of mankind upon earth, the most friendly aspect."

Sermon V. was preached in the chapel of the Asylum for Female Orphans, May 19, 1774, on Acts xx. 35. "It is more blessed to give than to receive."

The necessity of society is thus forcibly and elegantly represented in this valuable sermon: "We may be convinced by a little reflection, that the gifts of Heaven, poured in ever such profusion around man, cannot make him happy. Self is an idol that can contribute no more to its own well-being, than the idols worshipped of old. Take a man out of the world, place him in solitude, and you will see that all the supposed sources of felicity fail at once. Invest him with power; there are none on whom it can be exercised. Fill his treasury with gold and silver; they have lost all their value. Let him possess the highest reputation; there is no one to regard it. Bestow upon him the abilities of an Angel; they will prey upon themselves, for want of other materials. Adorn him with every accomplishment; every accomplishment will be useless. Nay, of piety itself, practiced only

only in solitude, it has been remarked by an elegant writer, that "like the flower blooming in the desert, it may give its fragrance to the winds of heaven, and delight those unbodied spirits that survey the works of God and the actions of men; but it bestows no assistance upon earthly beings, and however free from the taints of impurity, yet wants the sacred splendor of beneficence." The gifts of God, unless diffused to others, become unprofitable to the owner. To be enjoyed they must be communicated, and taken upon the rebound."

The application in favour of the institution on which occasion the Sermon was preached, is tender, pathetic, and engaging.

The Sixth Sermon is another Affize sermon, preached at St. Mary's, July 27, 1775, on 1. Sam. ii. 30. "Them that honour me I will honour; and they that despise me shall be lightly esteemed." It is intitled, "The Providence of God manifested in the Rise and Fall of Empires." This position is ably supported by an adduction of facts chiefly taken from the sacred history; the observations are pertinent, the language elegant, the arguments solid, and the application close and ardently pious.

The Seventh Sermon hath for its title, "Christ the Object of religious Adoration, and therefore very God." Text, Rom. x. 13. "Whoever shall call upon the name of the Lord shall be saved."

Our Saviour's right to divine honours is here, we think, sufficiently proved by a copious adduction of scripture authorities, and the preacher's reasoning upon them shews him to have been a very able and dextrous controversialist. It would be a difficult thing, we believe, for a Socinian to answer this discourse.

Sermon VIII. was preached before the House of Commons on the Fast, February 4, 1780. Text, Deut. xxiii. 9. "When the host goeth forth against thine enemies, then keep thee from every wicked thing." After shewing that wars owe not their origin to Religion, the preacher observes well, "Doubtless the sight of *Christian, Catholic, Faithful, and Apostolic* Princes sending their numerous regiments to slaughter one another in the field of battle, forms a shocking contrast to the spirit of the meek and lowly Jesus—so shocking, that some have been thereby

induced to maintain the utter unlawfulness of all war. But what then is to be done? Who can prevent a restless and ambitious State from attacking its neighbour? In these circumstances such men must either defend themselves, or be defended by others, or God must interpose miraculously in their defence, or all must quietly submit to conquest and captivity by an unjust invader. Had this last been intended, that rigid moralist the Baptist would not have regulated, but prohibited the military profession; nor would Christians have served, as we know they did, with fidelity and diligence, in the armies of the Pagan Emperors."

The necessity of war then standing thus, the preacher well enforces the cultivation of righteousness on the part of the people who are obliged to have recourse to it in order to insure it success. "Let the soldier," says he, "as well as the Christian, put on his armour with prayer and supplication." He laments, however, with earnestness, and perhaps with reason, the degeneracy of his countrymen in a variety of important instances. God looks upon us, and "beholds his ordinances neglected, his sabbaths profaned, his sacraments disparaged, his temples forsaken, his ministers despised, his religion torn in pieces by contending sects, while there seems to be scarcely enough of it for each of them to take a little; the infidel openly reviling, or covertly mocking; the faith once delivered to the saints deserted for the dregs of Socinianism; a set of men styling themselves Philosophers, wantoning in all the paradoxical absurdities of scepticism, leaving us between them neither matter nor spirit, neither body nor soul, and doing their best endeavours, in their lives and after their deaths, to render us a nation literally "without God in the world." We should be heartily glad if we could say that the lapse of thirteen years and upwards had rendered such a complaint totally inapplicable to the present period.

Let us quote and apply to our countrymen, in the present juncture, this excellent and truly patriotic passage—It is affecting—it is suitable. "One thing is yet behind—And O that my voice could reach the remotest corners of the land, to proclaim to all its inhabitants the wishes of Britain, that her children would dwell together in unity, that they would not employ their shin-

ing talents and extensive attainments merely in thwarting each other; that they would not revive old jealousies and animosities, or sow new ones; that they would abolish enmity, and strain every nerve in the prosecution of this only contention—who shall stand first and do most service in the cause of their King and their country.”

This is followed by another Fast Sermon, preached before the University of Oxford, February 21, 1781, upon Isaiah xxvi. 9. “When thy judgments are in the earth, the inhabitants of the world will learn righteousness.”

This is a very ingenious discourse, and ably vindicates the doctrine of a superintending Providence against the cavils of infidels, particularly Mr. David Hume in his Dialogues concerning Natural Religion. The author quotes several passages from Dr. Johnson on physical and moral evil with great pertinence and pleasure.

Sermon X. was preached in the Cathedral of St. Paul, before the Society for promoting Christian Knowledge, June 12, 1783, on 2. Theff. iii. 13. “Be not weary in well-doing.”

The necessity of spiritual knowledge is well explained, and the duty of communicating it well enforced by the learned preacher. A good account is given of the institution here recommended to support, and the application urging that support is in his usual style, persuasive and pathetic.

The next sermon we have frequently read with great satisfaction. It is intitled, “The Antiquity, Use, and Excellence of Church Music,” on Psalm lvii. 8. “Awake up, my glory; awake lute and harp!” and was preached at the opening of a new organ, in the Cathedral of Canterbury, July 8, 1784. We have not read a more ingenious, or a more pleasing discourse upon this delightful subject than that before us. The learned author enters into an historical discussion of the point; and the

following remark is curious, and will, no doubt, be acceptable to the reader; “With us of the Church of England, Church Music ceased for a short period in the last century. By the sectaries of that day, organs were holden in abomination; and the fury of an enthusiastic zeal, which seems to have been deaf as well as blind, destroyed many capital instruments. It is observable, however, of Milton, though so warmly engaged against the Church, that his taste got the better of his prejudices; for in one of his smaller poems he speaks of cathedral service—as it ought to be spoken of—and in a manner truly worthy of himself:

But let my due fest never fail
To walk the studious cloysters pale,
And love the high embowed roof,
With antique pillars massy proof,
And storied windows richly dight,
Casting a dim religious light.

There let the pealing organ blow,
To the full voic'd choir below,
In service high and anthems clear,
As may with sweetness, thro' mine ear,
Dissolve me into extasies,
And bring all Heaven before mine eyes.

IL PENSOSO.

“It is much to the honour of the members of the Kirk of Scotland, that many of them have lately subscribed liberally towards the erection of an episcopal chapel, with an organ, at Edinburgh. The votaries of Presbytery not only bear the sound of the organ, but, I believe, have adopted it in some of their own places of worship in England. Oh, might all their other prejudices in our disfavour die away and vanish in like manner!”

The utility of music, as applied to divine worship, is well and forcibly evinced; and in a manner, we may venture to say, that must give entertainment to every reader of genuine taste and piety.

(To be continued.)

Six Views in the Neighbourhood of Llangollen and Bala. Dedicated to the Right Hon. Lady Eleanor Butler, and Miss Ponsonby. By J. G. Wood, jun. No. 39, New Bond-street. Price One Guinea plain, and One Guinea and a Half coloured.

THESE Views are no less worthy of the attention of the public than of the patronage of the elegant and accomplished ladies to whom they are dedicated. The young artist has, with great taste and felicity of judgment, selected his Views, and has rendered

them with an equal regard to truth and to nature. The Vignette represents a beautiful cottage near Llangollen, the residence of the ladies to whom the work is inscribed, and by whose exquisite taste that delicious retreat was embellished and decorated.

A LETTER from EDWARD WORTLEY MONTAGUE, Esq. F. R. S. to WILLIAM WATSON, M. D. F. R. S. containing an ACCOUNT of his JOURNEY from CAIRO in EGYPT, to the WRITTEN MOUNTAINS in the DESERT of SINAI. Received January the 3d; and read before the ROYAL SOCIETY March 13, 1766.

IT is with a good deal of difficulty that I have prevailed upon myself to write to you, for, as coming now to Italy was quite unforeseen, and I am immediately going back to the East, I have not my journal with me, but luckily have the famous inscriptions. I am sensible every Paper I send to the Royal Society exposes more and more my incapacity. However, as these inscriptions are much wanted, I cannot avoid sending them. I shall only speak to some of the points the Bishop of Clogher mentions; but cannot avoid being now and then a little prolix.

I set out from Cairo by the road known by the name of Tauriche Beni Israel, Road of the Children of Israel. After twenty hours travelling, at about three miles an hour, we passed, by an opening in the mountains on our right hand, the mountains Maxattee. There are two more roads; one to the northward of this, which the Mecca pilgrims go; and one to the south, between the mountains, but never travelled (as it does not lead to Suez, to which it is thirty hours march from Cairo). Through this breach the Children of Israel are said to have entered the Mountains, and not to have taken the most southern road, which I think most probable: for those valleys, to judge by what one now sees, could not be passable for Pharaoh's chariots. This breach, the inhabitants told me, leads directly to a plain called Badaeh, which in Arabic signifies something new and extraordinary, and also the beginning, as the beginning of every thing is new, *i. e.* was not before known.

At Suez I found an opportunity of going to Tor by sea, which I gladly embraced, that, by going nearer the place at which the Israelites are supposed to have entered the Gulf, and having a view from the sea, as well of that as of the opposite shore, I might be a little better able to form a judgment about it. Besides, I was willing to have the views, bearings, and soundings, which I took, and they will appear some time or other; but this Paper would scarce be their place, if I had them with me.

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When we were opposite to Badaeh, it seemed to me (for I was not on shore) a plain, capable of containing the Israelites, with a small elevation in the middle of it. I saw something too like ruins. The captain and pilots told me, that this was the place where the Israelites entered the sea, and the ruins were those of a Convent (I suppose built on the spot in commemoration of the fact); they added, that there was good water there. There is here a strong current, which sets to the opposite shore, about south-east; it forms by its strength a whirlpool, where sailors said ships were lost, if forced into it, for want of wind, by the current. This pool is about six miles northward of Cape Karondel; and just below this pool there is a sand, a flat island at low water, which runs east and west about three miles. This sand I suppose is thrown up by the force of the current; and the same current, by the resistance it meets with from this bank, being forced back into the cavity made by this excavation, forms the whirlpool. This pool is called *Birque Pharaone*, the Well or Pool of Pharaoh; and here they affirm his host was destroyed. I shall say more of this as I travel back by land. We came to an anchor in fifteen fathom water, within a mile and a half of the shore, to the southward of this sand, and in the *Birque Karondel*, to the northward of the Cape; here the eastern shore is already mountainous, which, near this place, was a sandy beach: the Egyptian shore, from Suez to Badaeh, is likewise rocky and steep; so no entering upon the gulf from that shore, but at Badaeh or Suez.

It is high-water always when the Moon is at her meridian height, and it ebbs six hours. At Suez, it flows six feet; the spring tides are nine, and in the variable months, from the beginning of November to the end of April, sometimes twelve. From the beginning of May to the beginning of October, a northerly wind generally rises and goes down with the Sun; it is often very strong. This wind never fails in these months, unless there be some violent storm; the rest of the year

the winds are variable, and when they blow hard at S. and S. S. E. these winds set up the sea through the narrow freight of Babel Mandel, and up this gulf through its mouth, between Gebel El Zait, on the west side of this sea, and the southernmost point of the bay of Tor, on the east side of this western branch of this sea, where it is not above twelve or fourteen miles over. I suppose such a wind, hindering the water from going out, causes this extraordinary increase in the spring tides. We see the same thing happen with the same winds at Venice, both gulfs running nearly in the same direction.

The Egyptian, western, or Thebaic shore, from Badaeh southward to opposite Tor, on the eastern shore, is all mountainous and steep; and at Elim, the northernmost point of the bay of Tor, ends the ridge of mountains, which begin on the eastern shore of this western branch at Karondel. I say nothing of Elm, or Tor, or the marine productions of this gulf, as this Paper is intended to give an account of Sharne, Meenah El Dzahab, Kadefh Barnea, the stone which Moses struck twice, and the inscriptions. I, however, must say, that from this place Mount Sinai, properly called, cannot be seen; but only the ridge or group of mountains in which it is, and which altogether form that part of this tongue of land called in general Mount Sinai. The garden of the Monks of Mount Sinai at Elim renders in Dates, &c. 20,000 piastrs per ann. or 2,500l.

We from thence crossed the plain, in about eight hours, and entered the mountains of Sinai. They are of Granite of different colours. At the entrance of the narrow breach through which we passed, I saw, on a large loose Granite stone, an inscription in unknown characters, given, I think, by Dr. Pocock, Bishop of Ossory; however, as the Israelites had no writing that we know of when they passed here, I did not think it of consequence enough to stop for; the Arabs told me it was relative to a battle fought here between Arabs; and indeed I do not see what point of history it can illustrate; besides there are not above five or six words. We arrived at the Convent of Mount Sinai after the usual difficulties mentioned by other travellers, were received as usual, and saw the usual places, of which, however, I shall give the plans as well as elevations

which I took. I must say, that the Monks were far from owing to me that they had ever meddled with the print of the foot of Mahomet's Camel. I examined it narrowly, and no chissel has absolutely ever touched it, for the coat of the Granite is entire and unbroken in every part; and every body knows, that if the coat of less hard stones than Granite is once destroyed, it never returns. It is a most curious *lusus naturee*, and the Mahometans turn it to their use.

Meribah is indeed surprisngly striking. I examined the lips of its mouths, and found that no chissel had ever worked there; the channel is plainly worn by only the course of water, and the bare inspection of it is sufficient to convince any one it is not the work of man. Amongst the innumerable cracks in rocks, which I have seen in this, as well as other parts of the world, I never met with any like this, except that at Jerusalem, and the two which are in the rock Moses struck twice, of which hereafter.

I had enquired of the Captain and the two pilots of our ship, about Sharne and Dzahab, on the western shore of the eastern branch of the Red-sea; they told me that they were often forced up the Elanitic gulf, the eastern branch of the Red sea, and generally went to Sharne and sometimes as high as Dzahab; that they generally ran from Cape Mahomet, the southernmost part of the peninsula between those two gulfs, to Sharne, in six hours, because they always made as much more way as they commonly do, they very seldom going there but in a storm: they generally run four knots, so this makes forty-eight miles, which brings it to the northward of Tor. Tor is in lat. 27. 55. Cape Mahomet thirty miles southward, lat. 27. 25. Sharne forty-eight miles nearly N. lat. 28. 13. consequently about E. N. of Sinai. The port is pretty large, surrounded with high mountains, the entrance very narrow, and the water deep quite to the rocks, which are so very steep, that a stone dropt from the summit falls into the basin. No wind can be felt here; they don't cast anchor, but fasten their cables to the rocks. There is good water; some habitations are found on the sides of the mountains, and a pretty large village at top: this seems to answer the idea of Nest Ken. Dzahab lies as high again up the gulf, so forty-eight miles more, or in lat. 29-

This port is considerably larger than the former, and very good, but not so closely surrounded with mountains; it is, however, very safe. There is a well of great antiquity with very good water; very considerable ruins are found, and they say, there was a great city formerly; but no inhabitants now, except an Arabian camp of 2000 men. There is a road from it to Jerusalem, formerly much frequented. Thus far the Captain and pilots. I enquired from the monks, as well as Arabs, about these places, as well as about the ruins, supposed by my learned friend the Bishop of Oisory to be Kadesh Barnea: the former could only tell me, they had not received any fish from thence in many years, that it was two easy days journey off, but the road was mountainous; so one may suppose the distance less than forty miles. The Arabs agreed as to the road; but they said, it was once a large place where their Prince lived, whose daughter Moses married; that Moses was afterwards their Prince, and the greatest of all prophets. These Arabs place Moses the first, Solomon the second, Mahomet the third, Christ the fourth, and then the Prophets of the Bible. As to Dzahab, the monks only knew the distance to be four days journey, and that there was a road from it to Jerusalem. The Arabs told me the same, so the distance is about eighty miles. I enquired of them all about the ruins; they told me there were considerable ones about half way to Dzahab, about forty miles from Sinai; but I should think Kadesh must have been much nearer to Jerusalem. I would willingly have gone to these places; but as the four clans of Arabs, which inhabit this promontory, were then at war one with the other, I could get no conductor. In another journey I hope to be more lucky, for this is all hearsay; however, combining the whole together, and comparing it with what we collect from scripture, I think we may well conclude Sharme to be Midian, and Meenah El Dzahab to be Eziongeber; what the interjacent ruins are I cannot conjecture; but I believe I have found Kadesh Barnea to be elsewhere. I think it cannot be here, for the Israelites were on the borders of the Holy Land, or Land of Promise, when they were ordered back; and when they were stopped by the Moabites, they are said to have been brought up from Kadesh Barnea; and I meet with

no place in sacred writing, or any ancient geographer, neither Strabo nor any other, that draw the line of division between this promontory and the Land of Promise so low down; nor could they do it, as these ruins are within almost seventy miles of the extremity of it. There are two roads from Mount Sinai to Jerusalem, the one through Pharan, the other by the way of Dzahab: that through Pharan is eleven days journey: two to Pharan, three to a station of the Mecca pilgrims called Scheich Ali, one and an half to some considerable ruins; all this to the northward: from thence four and some thing more to Jerusalem, by way of Hebron, leaving the Asphaltic lake on the right hand to the south-eastward. The other way is longer, on account of the road being more mountainous; that too passes the same ruins, and also Scheich Ali. I enquired about this when I was at Jerusalem, and received the very same account, with this addition, that such Mahometans as went from Jerusalem to Mecca, went that way, to join the Cairo caravan at Scheich Ali. This seems to be a situation opposite to Kadesh Barnea; at the line drawn by all the geographers; it is without Mount Sinai (taken for this whole tract); and just before the Moabites, as the children of Israel passed by Mount Hor, now Acaba, leaving the Asphaltic lake on their left hand, to the north-west. The tradition too of the Arabs is, that they passed this way; therefore, I think, Kadesh Barnea must be near this spot. There are here considerable ruins; and I know of no city that ever was here, for Petra lay more to the east, between the Asphaltic lake and the Elanitic gulf. To leave no enquiry wanting, I asked the Rabbins of Jerusalem where they placed Kadesh Barnea, and they said these ruins.


We set out from Mount Sinai by the way of Scheich Salem; and after we had passed Mahomet's stone, came to the beautiful valley mentioned in the journal. I lay there (and hope I have discovered the manna, but that will be the subject of another paper) and did not set out before day-light, that I might not pass the rock which Moses struck twice. I searched and enquired of my Arabs, but could neither hear nor see any thing of it. I saw several short inscriptions stained on some parts of the mountains, the characters being the same with those on Mount Sinai,
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Meribah, &c. given by the Bishop of Ofsory. About four miles before we arrived at Pharan, we passed through a remarkable breach in a rock; each side of it is perpendicular as a wall, about eighty feet high, and the breach is about forty broad. It is at this breach, I imagine, the Horites were smote, four miles beyond the present ruins of Pharan; for having passed this breach they could make a stand, nor could they well be pursued. Here, on the tops of the mountains to our right hand, were ruins of buildings, and one seemed a castle. From Meribah to near this place, we had always rather descended; in most places there is the bed of a stream, and after rain the water runs; but a little before we came to this breach, it winded off towards the west, for the waters fall into that part of the desert we crossed from Tor. Between this breach and Pharan, there are several springs, and one at Pharan where we encamped; there is the bed of the river mentioned by the journal, the traditional account of which agrees with what is said by St. Paul. Waters seem to have run from Meribah to within about six miles of this place; the bed of a stream is here again very plain, and a spring at the upper end of it, which does not yield water enough to make a stream; the bed then is dry; four valleys terminate here, and form a large area. I enquired about the road to Jerusalem; the people agreed in the distance and ruins. We travelled in the bed of the river through the valley to the north; and in about half an hour the sight and appearance of a large stone, not unlike Meribah, which lay at some distance from the mountain on our right hand, struck me; and I also observed it had many small stones upon it. The Arabs, when they have any stone or spot in veneration, as Mahomet's stone, and the like, after their devotion, lay some smooth stone upon it. I asked what it was; they told me, Hagar Mousa, the stone of Moses, I told them that could not be, for that lay in Replidim; they said that was true, but this was Hagar il Chotatain, the stone of the two strokes; that he struck it twice, and more water came from it than from Meribah; witness the river. The bed of the river winds to the eastward, about E. S. E. I asked how far it went; they said this bed ran by Scheich Ali to those ruins, and quite away to the sea; so the river must

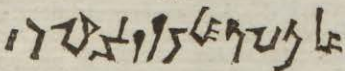
have begun here, and not at Pharan, and the bed from Pharan here is only formed (I suppose) by winter torrents. If this is the bed of the river mentioned by St. Paul, as I dare say it is, we have the second rock: if it runs to the ruins, as is said, and there is no reason to doubt it, they will be pretty plainly those of Kadesh Barnea; and if this bed continues in the same course to the sea, as it probably does, this probably is the river at Rincolura, supposed by Eratosthenes to be formed by the Arabian lakes, because he did not know its miraculous head. This river is doubted of by Strabo, because dried up to the source, from the time the Israelites entered the Land of Promise, and the tradition was then lost. You may see Strabo's Assyria, edit. Casaubon, p. 5. 10. towards the bottom. Pardon this bold conjecture; but it coincides and conciliates sacred history with ancient geography. This too seems a proof, that this is really the second struck rock. As to the springs between the breach and Pharan, they certainly did not exist in the time of Moses; or, if they did, they would have been as nothing to so many people.

We went down a large valley to the west towards the sea, and passed the head of a valley a part of the desert of Sin, which separates the mountains of Pharan from those which run along the coast, and the same plain which we had passed from Tor. We had scarce entered these mountains, and travelled an hour, when after passing a mountain, where there were visible marks of an extinguished subterraneous fire, we saw on our left hand a small rock, with some unknown characters cut on it, not stained upon it, as those hitherto met with; and in ten minutes we entered a valley six miles broad, running nearly north and south, with all the rocks which enclose it on the west side, covered with characters. These are what are called Gebel El Macaatab, the Written Mountains. On examining these characters, I was greatly disappointed, in finding them every where interspersed with figures of men and beasts, which convinced me they were not written by the Israelites; for if they had been after the publication of the law, Moses would not have permitted them to engrave images so immediately after he had received the Second Commandment: if they went this way, and ~~not~~ along the coast, they had then no characters

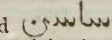
characters that we know of, unless some of them were skilled in hieroglyphics, and these have no connection with them. It will be difficult to guess what these inscriptions are; and, I fear, if ever it is discovered, they will be scarce worth the pains. If conjecture be permitted, I will give my very weak thoughts. They cannot have been written by Israelites or Mahometans, for the above reason; and if by Mahometans, they would have some resemblance to some sort of Cuphic characters, which were the characters used in the Arabic language, before the introduction of the present Arabic letters. The first MSS. of the Alcoran were in Cuphic; there is a very fine one at Cairo, which I could not purchase, for it is in the principal mosque; and the Iman would not steal it for me under four hundred sequins, 200 l. These have not the least resemblance to them: Saracen characters are very unlike; besides, I should place them higher than the Hegira. I think it then not unprobable that they were written in the first ages of Christianity, and, perhaps, the very first; when, I suppose, pilgrimages from Jerusalem to Mount Sinai were fashionable, consequently frequent and numerous, by the new Christian Jews, who believed in Christ; therefore, I should believe them Hebrew characters, used vulgarly by the Jews about the time of Christ. I shewed them when at Jerusalem to the Rabbins; they were of the same opi-

nion, and thought, , which is

frequent, was שלם. and to that



which is just before with a small cross ושב, by changing the *shin* into *sin*, and adding *je*, it might be

an Arabic word  a cross, and might be explained, the cross borne or carried by Jesus.—The Hebrew would be Jesus brought safety or salvation. But, Sir, more able than me will judge better. These are all but conjectures; and it seems much easier to say what these inscriptions are not, than what they are. They can scarce be of St. Helen's time; for they would have some ana-

logy with Greek characters, and they have none. Perhaps some gentlemen will think them ancient Egyptian, written by the colony which they suppose went to inhabit China. That is a matter I won't meddle with; but amongst many others, it will be liable to one great objection, which is, that such colony, if there ever was one, probably went the straight road, from the head of one gulf to the head of the other, from Hierapolis to Bloth, the way the Mecca pilgrims now go. This place would have been far out of their way, being at least sixty miles to the southward of the pilgrims road, unless they were supposed to have had transports at Dzahab, or Sharne. I, for the first reason given, did not think them written by the Israelites, and could not conceive that they were of any great consequence. I only took these few as a specimen. Here are on other parts of this rock, some Greek, and Arabic, as well as some Saracen inscriptions, and an Hebrew one, which is, ושם אחז. The Saracens and Arabic only say, "such an one was here at such a time;" the same say the Greek ones, except one, which says, as I remember, for I have it not with me, "The evil genius of the army wrote this," which can only prove, that some body of Greeks was worsted here, after the characters were written, and that they attributed their defeat to some magic power in these characters: as we are now fruitful in conjecture, perhaps some gentlemen will bring Xenophon here. The characters seem to be of the very same kind with these stained on different parts of Mount Sinai, Meribah, &c. which my learned and accurate friend the Bishop of Ossory has given,

The third day from this place, travelling westward, we encamped at Sarrondou, as the journal calls it; but it is Korondel, where are the bitter waters, Marah. I tried if the branches of any of the trees had any effect on the waters; but found none: so the effect mentioned in scripture must have been miraculous. These waters at the spring are somewhat bitter and brackish, but as every foot they run over the sand is covered with bituminous salts, grown up by the excessive heat of the sun, they acquire much saltiness and bitterness, and very soon become not potable. This place, off which the ships cast anchor, is below the sand which I mentioned before, near the Birque Korondel. After

nine hours and a half's march, we arrived and encamped at the desert of Shur, or Sour. The constant tradition is, that the Israelites ascended from the sea here; this is opposite to the plain Badaeh, to which the above-mentioned pass in the mountains leads. From this place the openings in the mountains appear a great crack, and may be called a mouth, taking Hiroth for an appellation. However, I should rather adopt the signification of liberty. It would hardly have been necessary for the Israelites to pass the sea, if they were within two or three miles of the northern extremity of the gulf; the space of at most two miles, the breadth of the gulf at Suez, and at most three foot deep at low water, for it is then constantly waded over, could not have contained so many people, or drowned Pharaoh's army. There would have been little necessity for his cavalry and chariots to precipitate themselves after a number of people on foot, incumbered with their wives, children, and baggage, when they could soon have overtaken them with going so little about. These reasons, added to the significant names of the places, Taurache Beni Israel, road of the children of Israel; Attacah, Deliverance; Pihahiroth, whether an appellation or significative; Badaeh, new thing, or miracle; Bachoral Peltum, sea of destruction; convince me that the Israelites entered the sea at Badaeh, and no where else. Besides, all the rest of the coast from Suez, and below Badaeh, is steep rocks, so there must have been another miracle for them to descend: the current too sets from this place where we encamped, toward the opposite shore into the Pool Birque Pharaone, Pool of Pharaoh, where, the tradition is, his host was drowned; a current, formed, I suppose, by the falling and rushing of one watry wall on the other, and driving it down; a current, perhaps, by God permitted to remain ever since *in memoriam rei*: the distance to the bitter waters is about thirty miles. I omitted to mention in its place, that, between this and Korondel, we were not so lucky as the author of the journal, who met with a charming rivulet of sweet water; we met with none good or bad. The Ain Moufa, which the Israelites would have met with, if they had passed at Suez, and the coast from hence southward, about a mile to Tor, being all rock, and steep too, induce me to be-

lieve, that they entered the sea at Badaeh, and ascended from it here, and not at any other place. But I am too sensible of my own inability to decide, and leave that to better judges than I am. I only throw out what occurs to me, from the inspection of the country, an inspection as accurate as I am capable of. If any thing I have said can in the least support that revelation, to which I dare declare myself a friend even in this enlightened age, I shall be very happy; or if this trip of mine can be of any use whatever, as I had great pleasure in it, I may truly say with Horace,—“*Omne tibi parvum, &c.*”

The denomination of *הַיָּם הַרְבִּי*, I believe, only regards the Hierapolitic branch, as the marine productions, Madrepores, &c. which form admirable forests in the bottom of it, are not in the Eleanitic branch, or the gulf; I mean the broad part below Cape Mahomet. No more than that western branch was known to the Israelites at the time of their passage, if it was to the Egyptians: but the name descended to the whole, as their knowledge of it. The Red Sea seems to regard the broad part alone; for though there are not the above mentioned sea productions, yet there is so great a quantity of the tube coral (not found in the western branch of the Hierapolitic gulf) and such rocks, as one may say of them, that the Gedda ships fasten themselves to them instead of casting anchor. It is of a deep red, so that, possibly, the first navigators entering the straits of Babel Mandel, from the red they saw, called it the Red Sea, and that name descended to the whole with their navigation. This sea is tempestuous and full of shoals; there is no harbour on the Arabian coast after Tor, except one, I mean between Suez and Gidda or Mecca, which is a day and a half from Gidda. Gidda is its port; and there is only one on the other coast, Coonre; but it is a very bad one; however, ships sometimes go thither, and caravans cross the country to Morhout. The ships are as the Bishop of Offory has described them; the helm is on the outside, as I suppose, with his Lordship, that of St. Paul was. They make use of but four sails, and no compass, nor do they ever cast the lead. They sail only by day-light, from anchoring place to anchoring place, and are not above two days out of sight of land, from Cape Mahomet to the Arabian main; if a gale happen, they are often lost; about

one in ten every year. I shall be glad to be honoured with the Society's commands, and in communicating this you will oblige,

SIR,

Your most humble servant,

ED. WORTLEY MONTAGUE.

Pisa, Dec. 2, 1785.

P.S. I am a very bad draughtsman; but I assure you the sketches contained in Plate III. are rather better than the originals. They are about six inches long; the marble is whitish, in some places reddish, of a flesh colour; they are engraved with a pointed instrument, for one sees in the bottom of them, round marks of the point of the instru-

ment. I have met with much basalto, but not one piece of that soft stone of which is the bust at Turin, nor any of the characters upon it, except some are found amongst these, I have neither seen any head, bust, or statue, in the character of that.

The second rock struck by Moses is, I think, 43 feet long, 16 broad, 13 high; it has two cracks, oblique ones; in them are some mouths, like those of Meribah: it is of a hard stone, not granite or marble.

I have the exact dimensions and elevation of the second stone, as well as of Meribah.

D R O S S I A N A.

N U M B E R L I.

ANECDOTES of ILLUSTRIOUS and EXTRAORDINARY PERSONS, PERHAPS NOT GENERALLY KNOWN.

— A THING OF SHREDS AND PATCHES!

HAMLET.

(Continued from Page 368.)

GUI PATIN.

THIS learned physician was a great hater of the English nation on two accounts:—the first, for having put their King, Charles the First, to death; the second, for giving antimony in fevers. In one of his letters to M. Spon, of Lyons, he says,

“ Paris, 6 Mars 1654.

“ Notre accord est fait avec Cromwell; nous reconnoissons la nouvelle Republic d'Angleterre, et nous aurons pour cet effet un Embassadeur à Londres. Celui qui y est, sera continué; c'est M. Bordaux, Maitre des Requêtes. J'ai oui dire quatre vers Latins à un honnête homme, que l'on dit avoir été envoyez d'Angleterre. Les voici :

Cromwello surgente, jacet domus alta
Stuarti

Et domus Auriaci Martia fracta jacet,
Quod jacet haud miror, miror quod
Gallus Iberque

Et Danus, et regum quicquid ubique
jacet.

At Cromwell's rising sun, in glory
bright,
Nassau and Stuart's stars set deep in
night.

This is no wonder—but I much admire
That Europe's Sov'reigns do not all
conspire,

To crush th' Usurper's ill-acquired state,
And injur'd royalty to vindicate.

JOSIAH TUCKER, D.D. DEAN OF
GLOUCESTER.

Had this acute politician and excellent citizen lived in Greece or in Rome, he would have had statues and altars raised to him. From his earliest youth he appears to have been a friend to his country and the universe:

Non sibi, sed toti genitum se credere mundo.

Nor deems himself, with generous worth
of mind,
Born for himself alone, but for man-
kind.

Whether he writes against the barbarous custom of throwing at cocks, or whether against a war that cost this country forty thousand men, the Americans eighty thousand, and incurred an additional debt to England of eighty millions, benignity, good sense, and good intention, ever guide his pen. Whether he reprobates some errors that may have crept into our excellent religious establishment, or any absurd and monopolizing practices that may have infested our commerce, the same acuteness, the same philanthropy pervade all. However a friend he may have been in his writings to an establishment in religious opinions, he has been an equal friend to universal toleration. His fate, indeed, has been that of the Trojan Prophets—

—*fatis*

*fatis aperit Cassandra futuris
Ora, Dei jussu non unquam credita Teucris.*

In vain the present God the virgin feels,
In vain to Troy futurity reveals;
The nation, in security's fond dream,
Foolish and mad her sacred presence deem.

It seems as if in a mind of energy the train of thinking was laid, and that there wanted only a spark to set it on fire. The Dean was led to commercial speculations perhaps by a circumstance which took place in the little sea-port town of Aberystwith, where he lived in early life. The town was divided into partizans of the House of Hanover and the House of Stuart. The latter, to gain over the inhabitants to their cause, used to tell them, that if their Prince (as the Pretender was then called) came in, they should be all smugglers. This assertion staggered a little our young politician, who, on turning it in his mind saw plainly, that if they were all smugglers, it could not be worth any one's while to smuggle, as they would be all upon the same footing.—Divinity has no less than politics occupied the great mind of this excellent man, in spite of the well-known sarcasm of his sarcastic Bishop, who knowing the manliness of mind and strength of understanding of Dr. Tucker, was very anxious that he should not become his Dean. How completely religion and trade can go together, and how subservient they may be made to each other's advantage, the Dean has made very clear, when he says in one of his sermons, "that trade employs the mind, and keeps it out of idleness; and that religion purifies the heart, and gives a sanction to morality."

In these times of discontent and wildness of political theories, it would seem well worth while to reprint some of the Dean's Treatises on Government, which are now become scarce. The Dean has had the honour of beholding himself burnt in effigy in his native town of Bristol, for endeavouring to promote the interests of its trade and manufactures; he had, too, in the same city, the honour soon afterwards of entering it in his carriage drawn by the inhabi-

tants*. As he was not depressed by the one, he was as little elated by the other. Conscious of his own integrity and purity of intention, he might have exclaimed with Horace,

*Virtus repulsæ nescia sordidæ,
Intaminatis fulget honoribus:
Nec sumit, aut ponit secures
Arbitrio popularis auræ.*

Virtue with native splendour shines,
Nor at adversity repines,
Nor with success elate;
Nor as the rabble smile or frown,
Assumes or lays aside the crown,
And makes herself her state.

The Dean's principal theological works are,

A Volume of excellent Sermons, 8vo.
An Apology for the Church of Eng-
land.

Two Letters to the Rev. Dr. Kippis.
Religious Intolerance no Part either
of the Mosaic or Christian Dispen-
sation.

Two Dissertations against Mr. Chubb.
A Brief and Dispassionate View of the
Difficulties respectively attending the
Trinitarian, Arian, and Socinian Sys-
tems.

Four Sermons.

An earnest and affectionate Address
to the common People of England, on
their barbarous Custom of Cock-throw-
ing on Shrove Tuesdays. Price 2s. 6d.
a hundred to give away.

*A List of DR. TUCKER'S principal
Political Treatises.*

Enquiry concerning Spirituous Li-
quors, 8vo. 1751.

Reflections on Naturalization, Part I.
8vo. 1751.

Ditto, Part II. 1752.

Letter concerning Naturalization,
1753.

Ditto, Part II. 8vo. 1753.

Essay on the Trade of Great Britain
and France, 8vo. 1753.

Instructions for Travellers, 4to.
1757.

Elements of Commerce and Theory
of Taxes, 4to.

Reflections on the Trade with Turkey,
8vo. 1755.

Four Tracts on Political and Com-
mercial Subjects, 8vo. 1774.

* "Vides mi fili quantum distat inter patibulam & statuam," said Pope Alexander the Sixth to his son Cæsar Borgia, on seeing the inhabitants of a small town in Romagna bustled in taking down the statue of his unsuccessful competitor from its pedestal, to place it upon a gallows.

A Fifth Tract on the Disputes with America, 1776.

Answer to Popular Objections, 8vo. 1776.

An Appeal to the Landed Interest on a Separation from America, 1776.

Letter to Edmund Burke, Esq. 8vo. 1775.

Treatise on Civil Government, 8vo. 1776. 1781.

Cui Bono; or, Enquiry into the Benefits of the War, 8vo. 1782.

Plan of Pacification, 8vo. 1782.

Four Letters to the Earl of Shelburne, 8vo. 1783.

On the low Price of coarse Wools, 8vo. 1783.

On the Commercial Union between Great Britain and Ireland, 8vo. 1785.

This excellent man is now in his eighty-first year, and having occasion in a letter to a friend of his, written not long since, to mention the present government, or rather anarchy of France, he says, "I profess myself a friend to *peace* in general, and I am sorry to find that the *ruling* powers of France have so little understood their own interest as to stir up *universal war*." The Dean in all his writings has been ever an enemy to war, that scourge of the human race; and in one of his letters to a friend, written a few years since, he says, "I am a well-wisher to all mankind, and am sorry to find that the Spaniards* and the English are so blind to their own interest, as not to perceive that the *cultivation of their own countries* in Europe is of much more consequence to each of them, than the most splendid victories, in order to obtain *waste lands* in foreign regions."

DR. MIDDLETON

declared to Dr. Lancaster, that the quotations in his Life of Tully were translated by Lord Hervey. They have been in general complained of for their length—perhaps Middleton did not dare to abridge them, as they were given to him by a nobleman and his patron.

SIR DAVID DALRYMPLE, BT. LORD HAILES.

The singular little book called "Opinions of Sarah Duchess of Marlborough," Edinburgh, 12mo. 1783, was compiled by this ingenious man and excellent scholar, from a large collection in MS. written by that imperious

* Written in the autumn of 1789, when there was some danger of a war between Spain and England.

and ill-humoured woman. She became nearly bed-ridden in the latter part of her life, and had pen, ink, and paper constantly by her bed-side;—she used to put down upon paper what came into her memory, or into her imagination, at the time.

VOLTAIRE.

What has given rise to the notion that this lively but dangerous writer has described his countrymen as a mixture of the monkey and the tyger, the most trifling and insignificant, as well as the most ferocious of animals, is the following passage, at the end of the 2d chapter of "Candide." Speaking of some horrid crime committed in France, the hero exclaims:—"Ah, les monstres! Quoi de telles horreurs chez un peuple qui chante et qui danse! Ne pourrai-je sortir au plus vite de ce pays, on les *singes agacent les tigres*?" A young Englishman was at Lyons in the spring of 1768, at which time there was a man broken alive upon the wheel. He could not help expressing his honest indignation at the atrocity of the punishment, at a Table d'Hote in that city, adding, "how shameful it was that it should take place amongst so polished a people as the French then were." An old silk mercer, who sat next to him, heard him out with great patience, and then very coolly told him, "Young man, you do not know my countrymen as well as I do; nothing but that kind of punishment against which you have been pleased to exclaim so much will keep them in any decent order, I assure you." Subsequent events have, indeed, proved how well acquainted the Citizen of Lyons was with the character of the French.

HANDEL.

Dr. Morell, a friend of Handel's, told the celebrated Mr. —, that the Air of "God Save the King" was composed by that great master one day when he was in the carriage with him, upon hearing a man in the street cry, "Come buy my Almanacks," which Handel said was an extremely natural modulation. Mr. Handel in the latter part of his life inhabited the house in Lower Brook-street, Grosvenor-square, now occupied by Mr. Partington the Electrician. Handel used to complain very much that he lost a great quantity

of music from not being able to write it down fast enough.

MATTHEW PRIOR

in the latter part of his life resided at Down Hall, and amused himself, with a select party of friends, at any kind of nonsense that occurred. Sir James Thornhill was often of the party, and in the evening, between dinner and supper, used to make drawings of some of Mr. Prior's guests. Prior used to write verses under them. Under the head of Mr. Timothy Thomas, Chaplain to Lord Oxford, Prior wrote—

This phiz, so well drawn, you may easily know;
It was done by a Knight, for one Tom with an O.

Under Christian, the Seal-Engraver's Head, Prior wrote—

This, done by candlelight and hazard,
Is meant to shew Kit Christian's mazzard.

An ingenious and elegant Collector has many of these portraits, with the verses under them in Prior's handwriting.

Prior, like many an Ex-Minister, became hypochondriacal in the latter part of his life; his active mind, not having any pabulum to feed it, began to prey upon itself: he became deaf, or at least thought himself so. When some one asked him, whether he had ever observed himself deaf when he was in office: "Faith," replied he, "I was then so afraid of my head, that I did not attend very much to my ears."

Prior kept his Fellowship of St. John's College, Cambridge, to the last: "The salary," said he, "will always ensure me a bit of mutton and a clean shirt." Prior (who had been Minister Plenipotentiary) printed his poems by subscription in the latter part of his life for subsistence; he made two thousand pounds by them. It is singular enough that Mr. Prior should be recommended to Queen Anne to be her Ambassador at the Court of France, as being very conversant in matters of trade and commerce. Prior was a very high-bred man, and made himself peculiarly agreeable to Louis XIV. by this talent. He presented his college with a picture of himself, in a very fine brocaded suit of clothes;—he there has very much *l'air noble*. This picture has, we believe, never been engraved.

LORD CLARENDON.

The wretchedness and misery of an unprofessional and idle life were, perhaps, never better delineated than in the following account of a country neighbour of this illustrious historian, taken from his "Dialogue on the Want of Respect to Old Age," inserted in his volume of *Traacts*:

"When I visited this gentleman in the morning I always found him in his bed, and when I came in the afternoon he was asleep, and to most men besides myself was denied, but was very willing to be called when I came, and always received me with cheerfulness. Once walking with him, I doubted he was melancholy, and by spending his time so much in his bed, and so much alone, that there was something that troubled him, otherwise that it could not be, that a man upon whom God had poured down so many blessings, in the comfort of so excellent a wife, who had brought him so many hopeful children, and in the possession of so ample an estate, should appear in the course of his life, and in the spending of his time, to be so little contented as he appeared to be. To which, with a countenance a little more erect and cheerful, he answered, that he thought himself the most happy man alive in a wife, who was all the comfort he could have in this world; that he was at so much ease in his fortune, that he could not wish it greater. But, he said, he would deal freely with me, and tell me, if he were melancholy (which he suspected himself of), what was the true cause of it; that he had somewhat he knew *not what to do with*; his *time he knew not how to spend*, which was the reason he loved his bed so much, and slept at other times, which, he said, he found did already do him no good in his health. I told him that I had observed in his closet many books finely bound, which I presumed he might find good diversion in reading. To which he replied, that they were all French romances, which he had read enough, and never found himself the better, for want of some kind of *learning*, which was necessary to make those observations which might arise even from these books useful; and he confessed that he could not read any book for half an hour together without sleeping. All which, he said, with a deep sigh, was to

be imputed to the ill education he had had, which made him spend that time in which he ought to have laid up a *stock of knowledge*, which would have made his age delectable to him, in dancing and such other trifles, the skill and perfection wherein men grow weary of as soon as they are grown perfect men, and yet, when it is too late to cultivate their minds with nobler studies, which they are unapt then to enter upon, because they see what progress much younger men have made in those studies before they begin, and so chuse rather to flatter themselves in their ignorance." In the course of the narration, it appears, that the father of this unhappy man had, from a foolish notion that his son might learn some vices at the English Universities, sent him to one of the French Academies, where, as himself told Lord Clarendon, "Trust me, neighbour," said he, "all that is learned in these Academies is riding, fencing, and dancing, besides some wickednesses they do not profess to teach, and yet are too easily learnt, and with difficulty avoided, such as I hope our Universities are not infected with. It is true," added he, "they have men there who teach arithmetic, which they call philosophy, and the art of fortification, which they call mathematics;"—but what learning they have there, I might easily imagine, when he assured me, that in three years, which he had spent in the Academy, he never saw a *Latin* book, nor any master that taught any thing there, who would not have taken it very ill to have been suspected to speak or understand Latin. "Oh, neighbour," said he, "I do promise you, that none of my children shall have that breeding, lest when they come to *my age*, they know not better to spend their time than I do." Lord Clarendon adds, "That this unhappy gentleman's melancholy daily increased with the agony of his thoughts, till he contracted those diseases which carried him off at the age of thirty-six years."

RABELAIS

says, "the practice of physic is properly enough compared by Hippocrates to a fight, and also to a farce acted between three personages, the patient, the physician, and the disease;" the second of whom, he might have added, is in general sure of coming off well in the contest,

CARDINAL FLEURY.

"Peace is my dear delight, not Fleury's more,"

says Pope. The Cardinal, no less than our Sir Robert Walpole, was extremely anxious to keep the kingdoms which they governed in peace, well knowing the dangers, the miseries, and the uncertainty of all wars. M. Villars prevented the first from being successful in his warmest wish, and an unprincipled and rashly Opposition prevented the other. Fleury went into the war of 1741 with great reluctance, as great as Sir Robert Walpole exhibited in his Spanish war.

Fleury said one day at a Council at Versailles, upon being told that Ministers were answerable for their conduct to their sovereigns, "Alas!" replied he, "they are more truly responsible to their God, and to their own conscience." Dr. Johnson used to say of Sir Robert Walpole, "that he was the wisest Minister this country ever had."—"Why do you think so?" asked his friend.—"Why, Sir, he would have kept the nation in constant peace if we would have let him." Fleury has been sorely accused of encouraging the early amours of his sovereign, Louis XVth. It is well known now that he ventured to remonstrate with Louis upon the ill example of his conduct in that respect. The Monarch coolly replied, "I have entrusted you with the conduct of my kingdom—I hope, Sir, that you will let me be master of my own."

MR. WOLLASTON,

the learned Author of the "Religion of Nature," used to observe to his friends, that for the last thirty years of his life he had never slept out of his house in Charter-houfe-square; and he appeared to hold very cheap persons who, from mere idleness perhaps, were continually changing their situations. "Les agitations du corps nous delivrent des peines d'esprit," says St. Real; but many persons, perhaps, agitate their body from having nothing in their mind to agitate them.—Pascal seems to have been a great deal of Mr. Wollaston's way of thinking, when he says, that all our miseries arise from our not being able to sit quietly in a chair. This great man should, however, have considered, that there is an activity in the human mind, that if not exerted upon proper objects, will seek for means of employing itself to its own detriment and that of others.

THEATRICAL JOURNAL.

PROLOGUE to the SIEGE OF BERWICK.

Written by the AUTHOR, and

SPOKEN BY MR. HARLEY.

WHILE fears and hopes alternate thoughts
 suggest, [breast;
 And now disturb, now soothe the Author's
 While Expectation breathes an awful pause,
 Ere yet the ready hand the curtain draws,
 Ere yet the action glows—I come a spy,
 To cast around a reconnoitring eye.
 Yet then as I this fearful Pit explore,
 Where Authors sometimes fall to rise no more,
 Here when the Adventurer dares you to the
 field,

If his fond efforts some small merit yield,
 I've seen your gen'rous arm forbear the blow,
 And raise to life and fame the grateful foe.

For you, the boist'rous inmates of the sky!
 Bold is the man who dares your power defy;
 With you Confusion her loud compact forms,
 You ride the clouds, and are yourselves the
 storms.

Yet have I seen you mitigate your rage,
 And spare th' Adventurer struggling on the
 Stage;

If in some scenes (the rest tho' feebly done)
 Unerring Nature own'd her genuine Son,
 Your glowing soul has grasp'd the Author's
 cause.

And hurl'd around the thunder of applause.

For you, ye glittering Amazonian train,
 Whose arms are dreaded on the critic plain!
 Tho' marshall'd to the War by taste severe,
 Yet meek indulgence follows in the rear;
 And oft on beauty's cheek I've lov'd to trace,
 Soft, stealing down, the holy tear of grace.

Rais'd by the thoughts these soothing hopes
 create,

I'll bid the Bard come forth, and meet his fate;
 The tyrant Terror from his breast erase,
 Rush on the scene, and combat for your praise.

NOVEMBER 23. *The World in a Village*,
 a Comedy, by Mr. O'Keeffe, was acted, first
 time, at Covent Garden. The characters as
 follow:

Grigsby,	Mr. Lewis.
Charles Willows,	Mr. Holman.
William Bellevue,	M ^r . Middleton.
Mr. Willows,	Mr. Hall.
Mr. Allbut,	Mr. Quick.
Hedgeworth,	Mr. Macready.
Jollyboy (the Miller),	Mr. Munden.
Dutch Captain,	Mr. Cubitt.
Sir Henry Check,	Mr. Powell.
Capt. Maulinaback,	Mr. Johnstone.

Mrs. Allbut,	Mrs. Mattocks,
Mrs. Bellevue,	Mrs. Fawcett,
Maria,	Mrs. Mountain,
Louisa,	Mrs. Eften.

Charles Willows leaves his native village
 in search of a fortune in India. He acquires
 there a sum of 200,000*l.* with which, after an
 absence of ten years, he returns to Europe,
 Young Bellevue, his friend, set out on the
 same career, but with different success.—
 The fortune of Willows is brought home in
 a Dutch vessel, which is taken by the French,
 but afterwards retaken by the valour and
 example of a single English sailor. The
 owner of this proud cargo hastening home by
 a different conveyance, is shipwrecked, and
 arrives at his native village in the garb of
 distress. He finds every thing changed; his
 father and sister Maria reduced from opulence
 to servitude. The Manor-house of the
 widow Bellevue is in the hands of the All-
 butts; the one a vulgar clerk, the other an
 affected lady, and a poetess of the modern
 school. Amongst other changes he finds
 Grigsby, the leading oddity of the piece,
 grown from a barber into a surgeon and phy-
 sician. Willows finds nothing in his first ad-
 dress but that contempt and repulsion which
 are the usual attendants on poverty.

The discovery of his riches instantly changes
 the scene. The insolence of the Allbuts is
 converted into servility—their example is fol-
 lowed by the whole village, with the excep-
 tion of the honest Miller. On the arrival of
 Bellevue, he discovers that the friend of his
 youth was the individual sailor whose valour
 saved his property. He falls in love with
 Louisa, a young lady whose charities have for
 some time been the support and admiration of
 the village. After some *equivoucs*, rather too
 tediously spun out, the Allbuts are made to
 restore her fortune to the widow Bellevue;
 young Bellevue is made happy in the possession
 of Maria, and Willows is united to Louisa.

O'Keeffe has so often gladdened the Thea-
 tre by his eccentric pleasantries, that he seems
 to have obtained an exemption from the
 customary trial of criticism, and a license to
 write from the promptings of his own hu-
 mour, without considering the example of
 predecessors, or the opinion of cotemporaries.
 At his plays the sternest critics have been
 compelled to laugh, and, when meditating
 censure, have been detected in affording the
 truest applause. "*The World in a Village*"
 is a piece of the same original character
 which distinguishes the former productions of
 this writer. Like them, its chief aim is to
 exhilarate

exhilarate the audience, and while it is scarcely inferior to any of them in success of that sort, it has some touches of serious interest, and one or two affecting scenes of domestic distress.

The following are the Prologue and Epilogue: the former, written by Mr. Taylor, was spoken by Mr. Holman; and the latter written by Mrs. Eilen was spoken by herself.

PROLOGUE.

IN these dread times, when War's unfated
rage

Crowds with disasters life's eventful stage;
When the fell Trumpet and embattled Ire
Drown the soft warblings of the slighted Lyre;
The MUSES lonely haunts no more display
Among their with'ring blooms the PORT'S Bay;
The partial Soil the *Laurel* only rears
For martial wreaths, that vegetate in tears.
At such a time, superfluous seems the art
To melt with fabled woes the fadden'd heart:
The SORROWING MUSES need themselves
relief,

And FANCY droops in sympathetic grief.
The TRAGIC MAID, indeed, may sooth her
care,

And future scenes from passing ills prepare.
But for the LAUGHING NYMPH, alas! can she
At ease presume with her untimely glee?
Is there a place amidst a World's alarms
In safety still to heed her frolic charms?
Yes—in the shades of BRITAIN'S happy Isle,
Still may the COMIC MUSE securely smile;
Still with her tuneful Sitters shelter here,
Nor savage ANARCHY'S vain menace fear.
Here, no dire Ruffians, dead to gen'rous joy,
All that endears and brightens life destroy;
Or, drench'd in blood, with impious rage combine,

Trampling on *Troons*, to crush the hallow'd
shrine;

Here on a rock, secure amid the storm,
Dwells LIBERTY in fair Monarchic form;
Around her fane, with venerable grace,
Three matchless columns fortify the place;
Enthron'd within, pre-eminently great,
Sits awful *Justice* in majestic state,
Of EQUAL LAWS the animating soul,
And station'd highest to preserve the *whole*;
Her sword by MERCY check'd, as urg'd by
might,

Her CROWN the SANCTION of a PEOPLE'S
RIGHT.

EPILOGUE.

THE World in a Village!—Lord help the
silly man!

Where could he stumble on such an old-
fashion'd plan!

Here's a fine Lady for me, exhausting her store
In discharging of debts and relieving the poor;

And, instead among Bucks of making a racket,
Falls in love with a swain, oh, laugh! in a
jacket. [vice—

The Lover too, rich, young, without one tonish
No racing, no betting, no intriguing, no dice.
The World in a Village!—I declare I'd as soon
Expect natural traits from a World in the
Moon,

Well, if they give me such parts, I'll so it ma-
nage, [for the Stage.

Commence an Authoress myself, and write
The World in a Village! 'tis the World in a
Town— [write 'em down.

That's your fort, that's the go, and, 'faith, I'll
Give to the Poor!

'Tis what Ladies in high life can't afford to
do, [Pharo, Loo, }

They have Dress, Equipage, Balls, Concerts, }
Debts, Duns, and Fees for every secret Bil- }
let-doux.

Lady Fanny Dawdle, just risen from her down
bed, [red,

In the hard task of nicely blending white and
Glancing her languid eyes from the dear glass
a minute, [in it."]

Cries, "Betty, unfold that paper,—see what's
" Yes, my Lady:

" It's a petition, Mem, from a poor soldier's
wife, [his life!"—

" Laying-in of twins, Mem, just as he lost
" Bless me, Betty, this freckle spoils every
feature; [ture:

" I'm vastly sorry I can't serve the poor crea-
" I've too much feeling for an income so
small— [grand Ball."

" Don't forget Lady Froth's ticket for my
Then the men,—oh, they are precious niddy
noddies, [taper bodies:

With their throats tied up, false calves, and
Pert men at seventeen, insolvents at twenty;

At twenty-five, invalids—old men at thirty.
Here's dashing Dick Squander, the great Na-
bob's rich heir, [year,

With cash at his Banker's, and ten thousand a-
Would he his associates of fashion disgrace
By rememb'ring a friend with a forrowful face?

No, demme, not he, he's up to all that there
gig— [pretty rig.

Know a poor friend!—Oh, curse it, that's a
But one likeness, I own, is successfully taken,
A likeness so strong, it cannot be mistaken;

In the true British sailor how often we meet
Generosity's home—Liberality's feat!

Who, tho' hardy, humane; if improvident,
just;

Ever constant in love, ever true to his trust;
Who invites the unhappy to share in his mess,
Who ne'er turn'd his back on a friend in dis-
tress;

Who, 'midst danger and death, will coura-
geously sing, [the King!"]

" May our arms be victorious, and Long live
On

On the same evening, *Wives in Plenty*; or, *The More the Merrier*, a Comic Opera, was acted, the first time, at the Haymarket. This piece was an alteration of "The Coquet; or, English Chevalier," a Comedy, by Charles Molloy, acted at Lincoln's Inn Fields in 1718. Though this alteration had the assistance of Signora Storace, Messrs. Bannister, junr. Barrymore, Suett, Wewitzer, Mrs. Gibbs, and Mrs. Goodall, it met with but a cold reception, and sunk at the fourth night.

D. CEMBER 2. *The Prodigal*, a Tragedy of one act, was performed, the first time, at the Haymarket. The characters as follow:

Bellmour,	Mr. Barrymore.
Courtney,	Mr. Aickin.
Bargrave,	Mr. Benson.
Mrs. Bellmour,	Mrs. Powell.

The original of this piece is "The Yorkshire Tragedy," which has been, though falsely, ascribed to Shakespeare. It was originally founded on a transaction which really happened at the time it first appeared. In the year 1721, Aaron Hill is said to have produced the present performance, which he gave to Joseph Mitchell, a necessitous Scotch author, in whose name it appeared at Lincoln's Inn Fields. The alterations on its present representation are said to have been made by Mr. Waldron.

The subject and moral are the same as "The Gamester," and deserved the applause it was received with.

6. Mrs. Henley, from Astley's, appeared the first time at Covent Garden in Miss Di Clackit in "The Woodman." This part was formerly represented by Mrs. Webb, whose cast of characters this lady seems intended to perform. She acquitted herself to the satisfaction of the audience.

A PROLOGUE

TO THE TRAGEDY OF MAHOMET.

Written by the Rev. Mr. WISE, to be Spoken by a Youth of Mr. Stock's School at POPLAR, Dec. 1793.

THE heav'n is dark; the earth's wide face
is drear;

And all inspires uncertain hope and fear.
Numbers of travellers, wandering much astray,
In doubts and dangers, anxious wish for day;
Quick to their sight a fiery meteor springs;
Sweeping across heav'n's vault, pale lustre
flings.

All gaze, and think. The better judging few
Deem of it right—not for the simple crew.
Multitudes follow it, o'er ev'ry bar,
Mistaking it for a miraculous star.
Thus, in an age of darkness, when mankind
Crop'd out their paths, with ignorance were
blind,

The great impostor Mahomet burst forth,
A seeming prophet,—wonder of the earth!
Him we, to night, shall in our scenes present,
O could our efforts equal our intent!

Our Author shews, how with distress, dif-
grace,

Blindness and falsehood vex the human race;
Make men be herds, to their deep ruin sped,
Tyrants and slaves, misleaders and misled,
Because men will—want honesty and sense
To study truth, and know their true defence.

The great Impostor an example take,
What blindness can be made, and falsehood
make.

His bold delusions spread religious awe;
Soon did enthusiasts to his standard draw.
With hypocritic subtlety he ply'd
Flattery to ignorance, to lust and pride.
His miscreants prompt for that religion stood,
Which licens'd lust, and lur'd to spoil and
blood.

What them well pleas'd he feign'd to reveal;
Paid Heav'n mock-service, fraught with hel-
lish zeal.

They, barbarous slaves to his despotic will,
Impetuously rush'd to ev'ry ill:
Trampling all right and reason at his word,
Mow'd down vast nations with a furious
sword. [mence?

How could mankind such vile designs com-
plainly from want of honesty and sense;
From vice, blind vice, by superstition bred
To hellish maxims, and to frenzy led;
Maxims malignant to the righteous ties,
In which the harmony of nature lies.
Is such the lore by which mankind are eas'd?
Is such the service with which Heav'n is
pleas'd?

Religion, true Religion, (sacred Dove!)
Descends with peace, and equity, and love;
Points to the blest abode; and bids men see
The wise, the just, the gracious Deity;
Bids them be likewise; or, for gifts abus'd,
Expect the thunders of his judgment loos'd.
Such is the doctrine true Religion brings;
And sheds the balm of virtue from her wings.
With wayward notions, passions, she contends,
To make men just, to make them truly
friends;

To render earth more happy; and to give
To Heav'n a service, Heav'n may pleas'd
receive.

Her saving doctrine all should strive to learn:
It is a common, personal concern.

What, but the pow'r of reason, and the
light

Of truth, has God ordain'd to guide us right?
By no means else can e'er be understood
Eicher our present or our future good:
Then—up to latest age from earliest youth,
Your reason exercise, and study truth.

POETRY.

P O E T R Y.

LAUTRECIO AND ISaura,

A TALE ;

Translated from the French of FLORIAN,
 Inserted in his Pastoral Romance called
 ESTELLE.

By Mr. HOOLE.

IN fam'd Thouloufe a virgin dwelt,
 Isaura was the fair-one's name,
 Whose charms the young Lautrecio felt,
 And she return'd his constant flame,
 But deaf to prayers, their parents stern
 The ties of mutual love oppose :
Ah! thus must hearts unpitied burn,
 And love but spring to nourish woes ?
 Alphonso, fair Isaura's fire,
 For her another spouse decrees ;
 But true to love's first blameless fire,
 She falls and clasps her parents' knees.
 " Still, still thy angry threats pursue,
 " Till both with life and grief I part :
 " To thee a daughter's life is due—
 " But ah ! Lautrecio claims my heart."
 Her aged sire, whose ruthless mind
 Not love but vengeful passion sway'd,
 With galling chains the maid confin'd,
 And to a dungeon's gloom convey'd.
 Lautrecio, menac'd by his rage,
 Before her prison breathes his groans :
 So, near his partner's wiry cage,
 The feather'd songster gently moans.
 It chanc'd one night Isaura fair
 Her lover's plaintive sorrow hears ;
 Swift to the grate she flies, and there
 Bespeaks him thus with streaming tears :
 " My heart's dear choice ! assuage thy pains,
 " Still for my truth dismiss thy care :
 " And know I lightly feel these chains,
 " Since 'tis for thee these chains I wear.
 " Submit me now to Fortune's rage,
 " And thou to Philip's court remove ;
 " There let thy valorous deeds engage
 " The prince to aid our faithful love.
 " But ere thou goest, my hand bestows
 " This only pledge my truth to bind ;
 " Memorial sweet ! the fairest rose,
 " The hyacinth and violet join'd.
 " The wild rose is the flower I prize,
 " My favourite hue the violet shews ;
 " And well the hyacinth supplies
 " An emblem of my bosom's woes.
 " These flowers, to which my lips I seal,
 " Shall moisten'd with my tears remain,
 " And these for ever shall reveal
 " Our loves, alas ! exchang'd in vain."

She said, and through the grated frame
 The token to her lover threw,
 When sudden lo ! Alphonso came,
 And snatch'd her trembling from his view.
 To France Lautrecio speeds his way,
 But meditates a swift return ;
 While conscious shades his grief betray,
 As echoes round Maura mourn.
 Full soon he hears that waiving war
 On every side for valour calls,
 That England's hero (fam'd afar)
 Had close besieg'd his native walls.
 Lautrecio now returns in haste,
 And soon his feet the fortress gain ;
 He sees the brave Thouloufians chac'd
 In heaps before the hostile train.
 One warrior sole, with noble fire
 Resists, nor shrinks from death dismay'd,
 'Twas fair Isaura's ancient fire ;
 Lautrecio flies to yield him aid.
 He whirls his sword, he shouts, he saves—
 Himself the warrior's bulwark stands ;
 Though wounded sore, the foe he braves,
 And scatters Edward's routed bands.
 But death, alas ! his wound pursues,
 In honour's field Lautrecio lies ;
 Alphonso turning thence he views,
 And calls him thus with feeble cries :
 " Relentless fire of her I love,
 " In me thy pride a son disdain'd ;
 " And thus reveng'd, I joy to prove
 " That fate which has thy safety gain'd.
 " Yet grant at least the prayer I make ;
 " Isaura's future griefs dispel—
 " O ! tell her, that I bade thee take
 " And bear to her my last farewell !
 " Give her these flowers, bedew'd with gore,
 " Dear pledges of Lautrecio's bliss ;
 " But let my dying lips once more
 " Imprint on these an ardent kiss."
 Such words he spoke and breath'd his last ;
 Alphonso mourn'd his heavy fate ;
 The flowers he took, and sighing pass'd
 The dreadful tidings to relate.
 A few short days suffic'd to waste
 The sad Isaura's fleeting breath ;
 But first with trembling hand she trac'd
 This mournful testament in death :
 On every year the maid decreed,
 In memory of her former woes,
 Each flower should prove the poet's meed
 Whose rival strain most sweetly flows.
 Her little wealth she left to frame
 The mystick flowers in shining gold ;
 And still, observant of the dame,
 Her country's fous this custom hold.

THE SWALLOW,

WRITTEN, MAY 1793, ON BOARD HIS
MAJESTY'S SHIP VENGEANCE, ON A
SWALLOW FAMILIARLY ENTERING
THE WARDROOM, THE SHIP BEING
THEN A HUNDRED LEAGUES FROM
LAND IN THEIR PASSAGE TO THE
WEST INDIES.

By Dr. TROTTER.

WELCOME hither, airy trav'ler,
Hither rest thy wearied wing,
Though from clime to clime a rev'ler,
Constant to returning spring.
If along the trackless Ocean,
Thou by chance, hast mis'd thy way,
I'll direct thy wav'ring motion,
But a moment with me stay.
I have news of note to freight thee;
Bear a wand'ring sailor's vow;
So may no dread fate await thee;
Love shall be thy Pilot now.
Shun, I pray thee, gentle stranger,
Touch not Gallia's hated shore;
There is death, and certain danger,
She is stained with royal gore.
But to happier Britain tend thee,
Where the milder virtues rove;
▲nd this kiss, with which I send thee,
Bear it to my distant love.
Near her window fix thy dwelling,
No rude hand shall do thee wrong;
Safer far than arch or cieling,
Delia's self shall nurse thy young.
There a thousand soft sensations
Lull the tranquil mind to rest:
Nature, there, with fond persuasions,
Oft shall soothe a parent's breast.
Haste then, gentle bird of passage;
When you leave our wintry Isle,
Bring me back my Delia's message,
Bring a kiss, and bring a smile.

VERSES

ON THE LAST SUFFERINGS OF MARIA
ANTOINETTE, QUEEN OF FRANCE.

By the SAME.

[Tune the "Son of Alknoosok."]'

YE monsters of Death, that now howl for
your prey, [face of day;
Whose deeds, black as Night, cloud the fair
Thrice welcome your sentence to end all my
pain, [to complain.
Though I shrink at your crimes—yet I scorn

Ye dark, dreary walls, where a captive I lay,
All bedewed with your damps till—these
locks turn'd so grey,
Could this blood but of mine from your land
wash the stain,
O shed it, ye Furies—for I scorn to complain.
When for murder and rapine no victims are
left, [rest,
When the throne and the altar of all are be-
Still the blood of my babes for your guilt
shall remain, [complain.
O give them but death!—and I'll scorn to
When insulted by traitors, doom'd to a cell,
Some far-travel'd Saint them my suff'ring
shall tell, [each vein,
When the blood of the Cæsars shalt mount in
They shall hear how it flow'd—how I scorn'd
to complain.

Ye nations around me, to whom I appeal,
Who shall weep for my woes, and record the
sad tale,
When thou, gallant Britain, shalt pity and feel,
Know, I scorn'd to lament—when I bow'd
to thsir steel.
Lead on then, ye demons, unmov'd see I stand;
Yet—one tear, at adieu—O thou ill-fated
land! [last pain!
Farewell, my dear babes—'tis for you—this
O welcome sweet death!—now, I scorn to
complain.

EPIGRAM.

By TITUS PHILOMUSOS, Esq.

ON A SILLY YOUNG MAN WHO LATELY
PURCHASED AN ESTATE.

TOM TRIFLE bought a large estate;
The gentry throng about him;
But soon they found, before too late,
They better were without him.

The man had purchased lands, 'tis true,
With shillings, pounds, and pence;
But all his parchments could not shew
He'd bought one grain of sense.

ON PRESENTING THE HON. MRS. BOS-
CAWEN WITH ST. FRANÇOIS DE SALES'
INTRODUCTION TO A DEVOUT LIFE.

WELL try'd in ev'ry charity of life,
Sister and Friend, the Mother and the Wife;
Kind to the Poor, and pious to thy God,
The World's vast wild unerring thou hast trod;
In such a galaxy thy Virtues shine,
The Saint's feign'd life is realiz'd in thine.

S.

THE CHAPEL AT GALLION.

[WITH A VIEW.]

OF this noble building which, if it has not
already, probably will soon suffer from the
ravages of the modern barbarians, we have
already given an account in our Magazine for
December 1792, p. 452. To that account

we have at present nothing to add but our
apprehensions that it may have already expe-
rienced the rage of the destroyers of every
thing worthy of respect or admiration in their
devoted country.

THE TRIAL OF THE QUEEN OF FRANCE.

(Concluded from Page 325.)

President.—"HAVE you not abused the influence you had over your husband, in asking him continually for drafts on the public treasury?"

Prisoner.—"I never did so."

President.—"Where did you then get the money to build and fit out the Petit Trianon, in which you gave feasts, of which you were always the Goddess?"

Prisoner.—"There was a fund destined to that purpose."

President to the Prisoner.—"This fund was then very considerable; for the Petit Trianon has cost enormous sums."

Prisoner.—"It is possible that the Petit Trianon may have cost immense sums; may be more than I wished. This expence was incurred by inches; in fact, I desire more than any one that every person may be informed what has been done there."

President.—"Was it not at the Petit Trianon that you saw for the first time the wife of La Motte?"

Prisoner.—"I never saw her."

President.—"Was she not your victim in the affair of the famous necklace?"

Prisoner.—"How could she be so, as I did not know her?"

President.—"So you persist in denying that you ever knew her?"

Prisoner.—"My intention is not to deny; I only speak the truth, and shall persist in so doing."

President.—"Was it not you that caused the Ministers and other Civil and Military Officers to be named?"

Prisoner.—"No."

President.—"Had you not a list of the persons you wished to get places for, with notes framed in glass?"

Prisoner.—"No."

President.—"Did you not force divers Ministers to name to the vacant places those whom you had given them a list of?"

Prisoner.—"No."

President.—"Did you not force the Ministers of Finances to give you money; and some of them refusing to do so, have you not threatened them with all your indignation?"

Prisoner.—"No, never."

President.—"Have you not been teasing Vergennes to send six millions to the King of Bohemia and Hungary?"

Prisoner.—"No."

Another witness examined.

Jean François Mathey, Keeper of the Tower in the Temple, deposed, that on

the occasion of a song, called "*Ab! il t'en souviendra du retour de Varennes*," (Ah! thou wilt remember thy return from Varennes") he said to Louis Charles Capet, "Dost thou remember the returning from Varennes?" to which the latter answered, "Oh! yes, I remember it well." That the witness having asked him further, how they did to carry him away? he answered, "That they took him out of his bed when asleep, and they dressed him in girl's cloaths, saying, *Come, you are going to Montmedy*."

President to the Witnesses.—"Did you not observe during your residence in the Temple, a familiarity between some Members of the Community and the prisoners?"

Witness.—"Yes. I even heard Toulan say one day to the prisoner, at the time of the new elections made for the organization of the definitive Municipality, "*Madam! I am not in repute because I am a Gascon*." I observed that L'Epitre and Toulan came frequently together; and that they went up stairs directly, saying, "*Let us go up, we shall there wait for our colleagues*." Another day he saw Jobert hand some medallions to the prisoner. That the daughter of Capet let one fall to the ground and broke it. After which the deponent entered into the details of the history of the hat found in Elizabeth's box."

Prisoner.—"I have to observe, that the medallions mentioned by the witness were three in number; that that which fell on the floor and was broken was the portrait of Voltaire; of the other two, one represented Medea, and the other some flowers."

President to the Prisoner.—"Did you not give to Toulan a gold snuff-box?"

Prisoner.—"No; neither to Toulan nor to any body else."

The witness Hebert observed, that a Justice of the Peace brought him to the Town-house a denunciation, signed by two Town Clerks of the Committee of Taxation, of which Toulan was the Chief, proving this fact in the clearest manner."

Another witness examined.

Jean Baptiste Olivier Garnarin, *ci-devant* Secretary to the Commission of Twenty-four, deposed, "that having been commissioned to examine and enumerate the papers found in the house of Septeuil, he found in these papers a check

for eighty thousand livres, signed Antoinette, to the profit of the *ci-devant* Polignac, with a note relating to one Lazaille; another paper proving that the prisoner had sold her diamonds to send their produce to the Emigrants."

The deponent observed, that he delivered all these papers at the time to one Falazé, Member of the Commission, to frame the indictment against Louis Capet; but that he the deponent was very much surprized to find, that Falazé, in the report he made to the National Convention, never mentioned any thing of these papers signed Marie Antoinette.

President to the Prisoner.—"Have you any observations to make on the evidence of the witness?"

Prisoner.—"I persist in saying, that I never gave nor signed any checks."

President.—"Do you know Lazaille?"

Prisoner.—"Yes, I do."

President.—"How did you know him?"

Prisoner.—"I know him to be a naval officer, and to have seen him at Court, as well as others."

Witness.—"I have to observe, that the papers I spoke of were after the dissolution of the Committee of Twenty-four, and were carried to the Committee of General Safety, where they must be still; because having met within these few days two of my colleagues employed with me in the Commission of Twenty-four, we spoke of the process that was going to be instituted against Marie Antoinette. I asked them what became of the papers in question? They said, they were deposited with the Committee of General Safety."

The witness Tillet begs of the President to interrogate Citizen Garnerin, to declare if he does not equally remember having seen among the papers found at Septeuil's, accounts of purchases of sugar, coffee, corn, &c. &c. having been made to the amount of two millions; out of which fifteen thousand livres were already paid; and whether he does not recollect, that a few days after these vouchers could not be found.

The President to Garnerin.—"You just now heard the interrogatory. Be so good as to answer it."

Garnerin.—"I know nothing of this business; at the same time it is notorious that there were plenty of fore-stallers all over France to buy up any article, in order to enhance the price of it, and thereby to disgust the people with the Revolution and Liberty, and force them by this means to forge their own chains."

The President to the Accused.—"Have you any knowledge of the immense fore-stallings of commodities of the first necessity, made by order of the Court, to starve the people, and compel them to demand again the former Government, so favourable to tyrants?"

Prisoner.—"I have no knowledge whatever of any fore-stallings."

Another witness examined.

Charles Eleonore Dufriché Valazé, formerly Delegate to the National Assembly, deposes, "that betwixt the papers found at M. Septeuil's, and which with others served to frame the indictment against Louis Capet deceased, and at the making out of which he himself co-operated as a Member of the Commission of Twenty-four, he observed two of them relating to the prisoner.

"The first was a check, or rather a receipt by her, signed for a sum of 15 or 20,000 livres, as near as he remembers; the other was a letter in which the Minister begs of the King to communicate to Marie Antoinette the plan of the campaign presented to him."

The President to the Witness.—"Why did you not speak of these vouchers when you made your report to the Convention?"

Witness.—"I did not mention them, because I thought it superfluous to speak in the process of Louis Capet of a quit-tance of Antoinette."

President.—"Have you been a Member of the Commission of Twenty-four?"

Witness.—"Yes, I have."

President.—"Do you know what became of these two vouchers?"

Witness.—"The pieces which served to form the indictment against Louis Capet were claimed by the Community of Paris, because they contained charges against sundry individuals suspected to have had an intention to compromise with several Members of the National Convention, in order to obtain decrees favourable to Louis Capet. I believe that all the vouchers have now been returned to the Committee of General Safety."

The President to the Prisoner.—"What have you to answer to the depositions of this witness?"

Prisoner.—"I know nothing, neither of the check nor the letter he mentions."

The Public Accuser.—"It seems to be proved, notwithstanding your denials, that through your influence over the *ci-devant* king, your consort, you made him do what you pleased."

Prisoner.—"There is a wide difference between advising an action, and executing it."

The Public Accuser.—"You mean to say, that from the declaration of the witnesses, it results, that the Ministers so well knew your influence over Louis Capet, that one of them desired him to communicate to you the plan of the campaign he a few days before had presented to him; the consequence of which is, that you had entirely got master over his feeble character, and made him do any thing bad; for supposing even that of all your advices he followed the very best ones, you must be convinced within yourself, that he never could have made use of worse means to conduct France to destruction."

Prisoner.—"I never knew him to have that character you are speaking of."

Another Witness examined.

Nicholas La Bœuf, heretofore a Municipal Officer, protests against having any knowledge of the facts relating to the indictment; for, says he, if I had observed any thing, I should have made you acquainted therewith.

President to the Witness.—"Did you ever converse with Louis Capet?"

Witness.—"No."

President.—"Did you not, when you was on duty in the Temple, enter into conversation on political affairs with your colleagues and the prisoner?"

Witness.—"I frequently conversed with my colleagues, but we did not speak of politics."

President.—"Did you frequently address Louis Charles Capet?"

Witness.—"Never."

President.—"Did you not offer him the "New Telemaque" to read?"

Witness.—"No."

President.—"Have you not manifested a desire to be his governor?"

Witness.—"No, never."

The Prisoner being interrogated to declare if she ever had any private conversation with the witness, declares, that she never spoke to him.

Another witness is heard.

Augustin Germain Jobert, a Municipal Officer, and Administrator of the Police, declares, that he has no knowledge whatever of any of the facts contained in the indictment against the prisoner.

President to the Witness.—"Have you not, during your time of service in the Temple, had some conference with the Prisoner?"

Witness.—"No, never."

President.—"Did you not shew her one day something curious?"

Witness.—"I have, in fact, shewn to the widow Capet, and her daughter,

medallions in wax, allegorical of the Revolution."

President.—"Was there not a man's portrait betwixt them?"

Witness.—"I do not believe there was."

President.—"For instance, the portrait of Voltaire?"

Witness.—"Yes!—But I have in my house 4 or 5000 of these sorts of medallions."

President.—"Why was the picture of Medea among the number? Did you mean it as an allusion to the prisoner?"

Witness.—"It was all chance, I have so many of them. They are an article from England which I trade in, and sell them to the merchants."

President.—"Have you any knowledge that, from time to time, young Capet was shut up during the time you and other Administrators had private conferences with the prisoner?"

Witness.—"I know nothing of it."

President.—"And so you persist in saying that you never had any private conference with the prisoner?"

Witness.—"Yes."

Joseph Boye, a painter, declared, he had known the accused for eight years, as he then took the portrait of the King; but he had never spoken to her. He then gave an account of the project of reconciliation between the people and the *ci-devant* King, by the intervention of Thiery, valet-de-chambre of Louis Capet.

The Queen drew from her pocket a paper, which she gave to one of her defenders.

The Public Accuser demanded of Antoinette to declare, what was the paper she had given him?

Queen.—Hebert said this morning, that correspondence was carried on by means of our clothes and shoes. I wrote, for fear of forgetting that all our clothes and effects were examined when they came near us, which was done by the Administrators of the Police.

Hebert observed, that there was no foundation for this declaration, but because the number of shoes was very considerable, as fourteen or fifteen pairs a month.

Dedier Jourdeuil, serjeant, declared, that in the month of September 1792, he found a firing of papers in the house of Affry, in which was a letter from Antoinette, that contained these words—"Can we trust the Swifs? Will they be firm when it may be necessary?"

Queen.—"I never wrote to Affry."

The Public Accuser observed, that last

year, being Director of the Jury of Accusation near the Tribunal of the 17th of August, he was entrusted with the drawing up of the process against Affry and Cuzotte; that he perfectly well recollects having seen the letter of which the witness speaks; but the faction of Roland having caused this tribunal to be suppressed, got the papers removed by means of a decree which they procured, notwithstanding the objections of all good Republicans.

President.—"What were the papers which were burnt at the manufacture of Sevé?"

Queen.—"I believe it was a bible; as for the rest, I was not consulted about it; I was told of it afterwards."

President.—"How can you be ignorant of this fact? Was it Riston who was charged with the negotiation of this affair?"

Queen.—"I never heard any thing of Riston; and I persist in saying, that I did not know La Motte; if I had been consulted, I would have opposed the burning of papers against me."

Another witness was called.

Pierre Fountaine, wood-merchant, declared himself ignorant of every part of the accusation, knowing the prisoner only by reputation, and having no connexion with the late Court.

President to the Witness.—"How long have you known Michonis?"

Witness.—"About fourteen years."

President.—"What is the name of the individual who dined with you in company with Michonis?"

Witness.—"His name is Rougy; I do not remember any thing about him; he was introduced by Madame Dutibleul."

President.—"How do you know that Lady?"

Witness.—"I once met her with another woman on the Boulevards; we entered into conversation and drank coffee together; since that time she has been often at my house."

President.—"Has she not communicated to you some secrets?"

Witness.—"Never."

President.—"What are the names of the Deputies who were found with Rougy and Michonis?"

Witness.—"There was only one."

President.—"His name?"

Witness.—"Santerreau, Deputy from Nièvre to the Convention, and two other Commissioners, sent by the Primary Assemblies of the same Department to carry their act of the acceptance of the Constitution."

President.—"What are their names?"

Witness.—"Balendnot, Curé of Beaumont, and Paulmer, also of that Department."

President.—"Do you know what is become of Rougy?"

Witness.—"No."

Another witness was called.

Michael Gointre, employed in the War-office, said, he had read attentively the Act of Accusation, and was much surprised not to find in it the articles of the forged assignats of Passy. As Polverel, who had been ordered to inquire into this affair, answered, it was impossible for him to proceed, unless the Assembly decreed, that no person but the King was inviolable, this made him imagine, that there was no other person than the accused about whom Polverel wished to speak, as the alone could furnish the funds necessary for such an enterprize."

The Witness Tisset.—"Citizen President, I wish the prisoner to be asked to declare, if she did not give the Cross of St. Louis and a Captain's brevet to a person named Lareguie?"

Queen.—"I know none of that name."

President.—"Did you not procure the nomination of Collet de Verriere to serve in the *ci-devant* Guard of the late King?"

Queen.—"Yes."

President.—"Did you not procure Parriséau a similar appointment?"

Queen.—"No."

President.—"You so influenced the organization of the late Royal Guard, that it was composed only of individuals against whom the public opinion was directed; and, indeed, could the Patriots behold without pain the Chief of the nation surrounded with guards composed of non-juring priests and assassins? Happily your politics were wrong: their anti-civic conduct, their counter-revolutionary sentiments, forced the Legislative Assembly to dismiss them; and Louis Capet, after that operation, kept them in pay till the 10th of August, when he was overturned in his turn."

"On your marriage with Louis Capet, did you not conceive the project of reuniting Lorraine to Austria?"

Queen.—"No."

President.—"You bear its name?"

Queen.—"Because we ought to bear the name of one's country."

President.—"After the affair of Nanci, did you not write to Bouille, to congratulate him on his having massacred seven or eight thousand Patriots in that town?"

Queen.

Queen.—"I never wrote to him."

President.—"Did you not employ yourself in founding the opinion of the Departments, Districts, and Municipalities?"

Queen.—"No."

The *Public Accuser* observed to the prisoner, that there was found upon her Secretary a paper which attests that fact in the most precise manner, and in which were found inscribed the names of Vau-blanc and Jancourt."

The said paper being read, the Queen persisted in saying, that she did not recollect that she had ever written any thing of the kind.

Witness.—"I should request, Citizen President, that the Accused may be obliged to declare, whether, on the day the People did her husband the honour of decorating him with the Red Bonnet, there was not held a nocturnal Council in the Palace, where the destruction of Paris was resolved, and where it was decided to post up Royal Bills by ESME-NARD, *Rue Platrière*?"

Queen.—"I do not know that name."

President.—"Did you not, on the 9th of August 1792, give your hand to Taslin, of Etang, to kiss, who was Captain of the armed force of the Filles Saint Thomas—in saying to his battalion, "You are brave fellows, and of good principles, I will ever count on your fidelity?"

Queen.—"No."

President.—"Why did you, who had promised to bring up your children in the principles of the Revolution, teach them nothing but errors—in treating, for instance, your son with a respect which might make it believed that you thought of seeing him one day the successor of the *ci-devant* King, his father?"

Queen.—"He was too young to speak to on that subject. I placed him at the head of the table to give him myself what he wanted."

President.—"Have you any thing to add to your defence?"

Queen.—"Yesterday I did not know the witnesses: I knew not what they were to depose against me; and nobody has produced against me any positive fact: I finish by observing, that I only was the wife of Louis XVI. and it was requisite in me to conform myself to his will."

The President announced, that the interrogatories were closed.

Fouquier, the Public Accuser, then spoke. He reminded the Jury of the

flagitious conduct of the late French Court—of its constant machinations against Liberty, which it did not like, and the destruction of which it sought to compass at any rate—its efforts to kindle civil war, in order to turn its result to its own advantage, by appropriating to itself this Machiavelian maxim, *Divide and reign!*—its criminal and culpable connections with the foreign Powers with whom the Republic is at open war—its habits of intimacy with a villainous faction, which was devoted to it, and seconded its designs, by exulting in the bosom of the Convention animosities and dissensions, by employing all possible means to ruin Paris, and arming the Departments against that city, and by incessantly calumniating the generous inhabitants of that city, the mother and preserver of Liberty—the massacres perpetrated by the orders of that corrupted Court in the principal towns of France, especially at Montauban, Nîmes, Arles, Nanci, in the Champ de Mars, &c. &c. He considered Marie Antoinette the avowed enemy of the French Nation—as the principal instigatrix of the troubles which had taken place in France for these four years past, and to which thousands of Frenchmen fell victims.

Charveau and Troussin du Goudray, officially appointed by the Tribunal to defend Antoinette, acquitted themselves of that duty, and solicited the clemency of the Tribunal. They were heard with the most profound silence.

The Queen was then taken out of the Hall.

After which the President of the Revolutionary Tribunal addressed the Jury in the following terms:

"Citizens of the Jury, the French nation, by its organ the Public Accuser, has accused before the National Jury Marie Antoinette of Austria, widow of Louis Capet, of having been the accomplice, or rather the instigatrix, of most of the crimes of which the last tyrant of France was found guilty—of having herself kept up a secret understanding with powerful foreign nations, especially with the King of Bohemia and Hungary, her brother—with the *ci-devant* Emigrant French Princes and traitorous Generals—with having furnished the enemies of the Republic with supplies of money, and of having conspired with them against the external and internal security of the State.

"A great example is this day given to the universe, and it will surely not be

lost upon the nations which inhabit it. Nature and reason, so long outraged, are satisfied at last, and Equality is triumphant.

"A woman who lately occupied all the most brilliant distinctions which the pride of Kings and the baseness of slaves could invent, occupies now, before the Tribunal of the Nation, the place which was occupied two days ago by another woman, and this equality secures impartial justice.

"This trial, citizens of the jury, is not one of those where a single fact, a single crime, is submitted to your conscience and your knowledge. You have to judge all the political life of the accused, ever since she came to sit by the side of the last King of the French; but you must, above all, fix your deliberation upon the manoeuvres which she never for an instant ceased to employ to destroy rising liberty, either from within the kingdom, by her close connexions with infamous Ministers, perfidious Generals, and faithless Representatives of the People; or from without the kingdom, by causing the negotiation of that monstrous coalition of the despots of Europe, which history holds up to ridicule for impotence; in short, by her correspondence with the *ci-devant* Emigrant French Princes and their worthy agents.

"Had we wished for an oral proof of all those deeds, the prisoner ought to have been made to appear before the whole French nation. The material proof rests in the papers seized in the abode of Louis Capet, enumerated in a report made to the National Convention by Gohier, one of its Members; in the collection of the justificatory pieces of the Act of Accusation passed against Louis Capet by the Convention; lastly and chiefly, Citizens of the Jury, in the political events of which you have all been witnesses and judges.

"If it were permitted to me, in fulfilling a limited office, to give myself up to emotions which the passion of humanity imposes, we should have invoked before the Jury the manes of our brothers at Nancy, at the Champ de Mars, at the Frontiers, at La Vendee, at Marseilles, at Lyons, at Toulon, in consequence of the infernal machinations of this modern Medicis: we should have brought before you the fathers, the mothers, the wives and infants of those unhappy Patriots! What do I say? unhappy!—they have died for liberty, and faithful to their country. All those families, in tears and despair, would have accused Antoinette of having snatched from them every thing that was most dear

to them in the world, and the deprivation of which renders life insupportable.

"In effect, if the satellites of Austrian despotism have broke in for a moment on our frontiers, and if they have there committed atrocities of which the history of even barbarous nations does not furnish a parallel example—if our ports, our plains, and our cities are sold or given up, is it not evidently the result of the manoeuvres planned at the Thuilleries; and of which Marie Antoinette was at once the instigator and the moving principle? These, Citizen Jurors, are the public events which form the mass of proofs that overwhelms Marie Antoinette.

"With regard to the declarations which were made in bringing on this trial, and the debates which have taken place, there result from them certain facts, which come directly in proof of the principal accusation brought against the widow Capet.

"All the other details, given either as a history of the Revolution, or in the proceedings against certain notorious personages, and some treacherous public functionaries, vanish before the charge of high treason, which weighs heavily upon Antoinette of Austria, widow of the *ci-devant* King.

"There is one general observation to be attended to—namely, that the accused has owned that she had the confidence of Louis Capet.

"It is evident too, from the declaration of Valaze, that Antoinette was consulted in political affairs, since the late King was desirous she should be consulted upon some plan, of which the witnesses could not tell the object.

"One of the witnesses, whose precision and ingenuousness are remarkable, has told you that the late Duke of Coigny informed her in 1788, that Antoinette had sent the Emperor, her brother, 200 millions, to enable him to carry on the war which he then waged against the Turks.

"Since the Revolution a bill of between 60 and 80,000 livres, signed Antoinette, and drawn upon Septeuil, has been given to the woman Polignac, then an Emigrant; and a letter from La Porte recommended to Septeuil not to leave behind the least trace of that gift.

"Lecointre of Versailles told you, as an ocular witness, that since the year 1779, enormous sums had been expended at Court for the fetes of which Marie Antoinette was always the idol."

Here the President went through the charges of the first of October, when an orgy was given by the Life Guards—the

flight to Varennes—the massacre of the Swiss on the 10th of August—and, coming to the conduct of the Queen since her imprisonment in the Temple, he concluded as follows :

“ The persons whose business it was to superintend in the Temple, always remarked in Antoinette an air of rebellion against the sovereignty of the people. They seized an image representing an heart; and that image is a sign of *rallie-ment*, which was worn almost upon all the Counter-revolutionists who came within the grasp of national vengeance.

“ After the tyrant’s death, Antoinette observed in the Temple, with regard to her son, all the etiquette of the ancient Court. The son of Capet was treated as a king. In all domestic occurrences he had the precedence of his mother. At table he sat uppermost, and was served first.

“ I shall forbear, Citizens of the Jury, to mention here the interview of the Chevalier de St. Louis—of the carnation flower left in the apartment of the accused—of the pricked paper given, or rather prepared, for an answer. This incident is a mere gaol intrigue, which ought not to weigh in such a grand act of accusation.

“ I conclude by a general reflection, which I had already an opportunity of presenting : It is the French Nation which accuses Antoinette ; all the political events are evidence against her.

“ These are the questions which the Tribunal has determined to submit to you :

1st, Is it proved that there existed machinations and private intelligences with powerful foreign States, and other external enemies of the Republic ; such machinations and intelligences tending to furnish succours in money, and to give them ingress into the French territory, for the purpose of facilitating the progress of their arms ?

2^{dly}, Is Marie Antoinette convicted of having co-operated with those machinations, and of having entertained those intelligences ?

3^{dly}, Is it proved that there existed a plot or conspiracy to light up a civil war in the heart of the Republic ?

4^{thly}, Is Marie Antoinette convicted of having had a share in that plot and that conspiracy ?”

The Jury, after having deliberated about an hour, returned into the Hall, and gave a verdict, *affirming all the charges submitted to them.*

The President then addressed the following speech to the People :

“ If the Citizens who compose the audience were not liberal men, and, of consequence, capable of feeling all the dignity of their state, I ought perhaps to recall to their memory, that at the moment when the National Justice is about to declare the law, reason and morality impose upon them the greatest silence, and forbid every mark of approbation ; and that persons, of whatever crimes convicted, and attainted by the law, are then only entitled to pity and humanity.”

The Queen was again brought in.

President.—“ Antoinette, hear the sentence of the Jury ;” which was then read. “ You shall hear the questions of the Public Accuser.”

Fouquier then spoke, and demanded that the accused should be condemned to die, conformable to the first article of the first section of the first chapter of the second part of the Penal Code, which is thus expressed :

“ Every manœuvre or intelligence with the enemies of France, tending to facilitate their entrance into any part of the Empire, whether it be to deliver up to them towns, fortresses, ports, or vessels, appertaining to France, or in furnishing them with succours in men, money, provisions, or ammunition, or to favour in any manner the progress of their arms on the French territory, or against our forces by sea or land, whether by corrupting the fidelity of the officers, soldiers, or other citizens, towards the French Nation, shall be punished with death.”

And the second article of the first section of the first title of the second part of the same Code is thus expressed :

“ Every conspiracy and plot tending to trouble the State by a civil war, in arming citizens against citizens, against one another, or the exercise of Regal authority, shall be punished with death.”

The President called upon the accused to declare, whether she had any objection to make to the sentence of the laws demanded by the Public Accuser ?

Antoinette bowed her head in token of negative.

Upon the same demand being made to her Counsel, Trouson spoke, and said, “ Citizen President, the declaration of the Jury being precise, and the law formal in this respect, I announce that my professional duty with regard to the widow Capet is terminated.”

The President gathered the suffrages

of his colleagues, and pronounced the following sentence:

"The Tribunal, after the unanimous declaration of the Jury, in conformity to the laws cited, condemns the said Marie Antoinette, called of Lorraine and Austria, widow of Louis Capet, to the punishment of death, and confiscation of her property to the benefit of the Republic, and this sentence shall be executed in the Square of the Revolution."

The President then moved for the Court to adjourn, and the Queen was conducted back to prison.

Marie Antoinette, during the whole of her trial, preserved a calm and steady countenance. During the first hours of her trial, she played with her fingers upon the bar of her chair with an appearance of unconcern, and it seemed as if she was playing on the Forte-piano.

LAST MOMENTS OF THE QUEEN.

WHEN she heard her sentence read, she did not shew the smallest alteration in her countenance, and left the Hall without saying a single word to the Judges or to the People. It was then half past four in the morning, Oct. 16. The Queen was conducted to the condemned hold in the prison of the Conciergerie*.

At five o'clock the General was beat. At seven the whole armed force was on foot; cannons were planted on the squares, and at the extremities of the bridges, from the Palace to the Square de la Revolution. At ten o'clock numerous parades passed through the streets.

At half past eleven in the morning Marie Antoinette was brought out of the prison, dressed in a white *dishabille*. Like other malefactors, she was conducted upon a common cart to the place of execution.

Her beautiful hair from behind was entirely cut off, and her hands were tied behind her back. Besides her *dishabille*, she wore a very small white cap. Her back was turned to the horse's tail.

During her trial she wore a dress of a white and black mixture.

On her right, upon the cart, was seated the Executioner; upon the left, a Constitutional Priest belonging to the Metropolitan Church of Noire Dame, dressed in a grey coat, and wearing what is com-

monly called a hob wig. The cart was escorted by numerous detachments of horse and foot. H.riot, Ronfin, and Boullanger, Generals of the Revolutionary Army, preceded by the rest of the Staff Officers, rode before the cart.

An immense mob, especially women, crowded the streets, insulted the Queen, and vociferated, "Long live the Republic!" She seldom cast her eyes upon the populace, and beheld with a cold indifference the great armed force of 30,000 men which lined the streets in double ranks.

The sufferings which she sustained during her captivity had much altered her appearance, and the hair on her forehead appeared as white as snow.

The Queen, without anguish or bigotry, was speaking to the Priest seated by her side. Her spirits were neither elevated nor depressed, she seemed quite insensible to the shouts of "Vive la République!" She even shewed a kind of satisfaction in looking for the moment which might rid her of her miserable existence.

When she passed through the street called Rue St. Honoré, she sometimes attentively looked at the inscriptions of the words "Liberty" and "Equality" affixed to the outside of the houses.

She ascended the scaffold with seeming haste and impatience, and then turned her eyes with great emotion towards the garden of the Thuilleries, the former abode of her greatness.

At half past twelve o'clock the guillotine severed her head from her body. She died in the 38th year of her age.

The executioner lifted and shewed the blood-streaming head from the four different corners of the scaffold, which is shewn only from one side in all other common executions. The mob instantly vociferated, "Long live the Republic!"

A young man who dipped his pocket-handkerchief in the Queen's blood, and pressed it with veneration to his breast, was instantly apprehended. Upon him were found the portraits of Louis XVI. and Marie Antoinette.

The corpse of the ill-fated Queen was immediately after buried in a grave filled with quick lime, in the church-yard called de la M. delaine, where Louis XVI. was buried in the same manner.

* Where she had been confined since the first of August, in a room twelve feet long, eight feet broad, four feet *under ground*, and with a grated window on a level with it. The furniture was such as the rest of the prison, and originally intended for the meanest criminal; her food was of the coarsest kind, and she was constantly kept in sight by a female prisoner, and two light horsemen, to the very hour when she left it to be murdered. In returning from the Tribunal, she asked, if she had answered with too much dignity. "I do ask you," said she, "because I *love* to hear a woman say, See how naughty she still is!" S T A T E

S T A T E P A P E R S.

SUBSTANCE of the DECLARATORY MEMORIAL to the COURT of DENMARK, respecting its NAVIGATION during the WAR with FRANCE, delivered by the BRITISH MINISTER at COPENHAGEN.

NO one can be mistaken, how much the circumstances of the present war differ from those upon which the Law of Nations introduced among the Powers of Europe, and its usual customs, are founded. It can be as little denied, that this difference must have an important and essential influence upon the exercise of the privileges which belong to the Neutral Powers, by virtue of the universal Law of Nations, or by separate treaties.

At present there exists no Government in France, which is acknowledged either by the Belligerent Powers, or even by those who still adhere to Neutrality. The Court of Denmark has no Minister at Paris; and since the tragical end of his late Most Christian Majesty, it has received none from France. This Court has taken great care not to acknowledge the existence of a legitimate authority in France; and indeed there exists none in that country: and although special causes have prevented this Court from entering into the war, yet it cannot consider France as a Power with whom it would find it possible to preserve the former treaties of amity and Neutrality.

If, therefore, in usual cases, a Neutral Power continues to carry on commerce with two nations engaged in war with each other, and in friendship with the said Neutral Power, the path of negotiations ever open, as well as the acknowledged usages of all the jurisdictions in Europe, constantly offer to the said Neutral Power, means of ascertaining whether or not the Neutrality kept by one of those nations is also observed by the other in the like manner: the said Neutral Power may ascertain whether that Neutrality is not misused by one of those Powers to the prejudice of the other, and the impartial friendship thereby violated—a friendship to which both nations have an equal claim; and if, by unforeseen circumstances, the usual mode of exercising the neutral commercial privileges, should become especially and more detrimental to one of these Powers than the other, the injured

Power might, by friendly representations, render valid this principle with the latter, and renounce without difficulty a right which ceases to be any longer consistent with that Neutrality.

None of these circumstances is admissible in the present case. Denmark, while she preserves all her neutral privileges of commerce with regard to England—privileges which are secured to her in the usual cases by the universal law of nations and her separate treaties—she can in no respect be assured of the observance thereof in France, where that Neutrality has already been and is still daily violated—where his Danish Majesty has no Minister to enforce his rights and the rights of his subjects—where his Danish Majesty acknowledges no lawful authority—and where there are indeed no other laws nor tribunals except the will of a licentious populace.

His Danish Majesty will also find it impossible to treat with France in an amicable manner, and as a Neutral Power, respecting the means of introducing those measures of precaution, upon the observance of which the other Belligerent Powers have so great a right to insist, in order that the Prerogative Neutral Commerce, especially the corn and grain trade, be not abused at a time when so many circumstances perfectly new have acceded. It is a fact of universal notoriety, that the corn trade of France with foreign countries is no longer a mere private trade, but that, contrary to all custom, it remains almost entirely in the hands of the pretended Executive Council, and of the different Municipalities. It can, therefore, no longer be considered as a mere combination of private speculations, of which the individuals of other nations partake, but as a business immediately carried on by the above-mentioned pretended Government which has declared war against us.

It is equally notorious, that at the present moment, one of the most essential expedients to compel those who have declared war against us to equitable terms of peace, consists in their being prevented by importation to prevent that want, which is a necessary consequence of what they have done, in order to arm the whole labouring class of the people of France against the other Govern-

ments and the general tranquillity of Europe. It is a principle allowed by all the writers upon the public right, that importation may be prevented, if there are hopes that by so doing one can conquer an enemy, and especially so, if the want of that enemy has been occasioned by those measures which they took to injure us: and it is incontrovertible, that in this case, quite new in its kind, cannot be judged by the principles and rules which were only made for wars carried on according to the customs introduced among the Sovereigns of Europe.

It is farther to be observed that his Danish Majesty, if he gives reception in his ports to French privateers with their prizes, cannot secure to himself that security which is requisite, according to the laws of nations, for the validity of their letters of marque, and for the regularity of their conduct. The Courts of Justice cannot, without involving themselves in a manifest contradiction, acknowledge the legality of any patent or letter of marque that is derived from a Government which his Majesty does not acknowledge to be sovereign. On account of this non-acknowledgment, prizes can neither be condemned, nor British subjects and British property be retained, in the ports belonging to a friendly Power, whose protection they are intitled to claim, without a direct violation of the treaties; and it is, above all, impossible to apply, in this case, the usual laws of an impartial Neutrality, since there is no acknowledged authority in France which can give to privateers the proper instructions respecting their conduct, and to which a Neutral Power might apply to bring them to punishment, whenever they deviate from those instructions, on the non-observance of which they are not to be considered as legal privateers, but only as pirates.

(signed)

HAILES.

ANSWER returned by the COURT of DENMARK to the MEMORIAL lately delivered by the BRITISH MINISTER.

HIS Majesty the King of Denmark feels always the liveliest concern whenever he finds himself under the absolute necessity of contending with the principles of the Powers in Alliance or Friendship with his Majesty, or of complaining with regard to their proceedings. His Majesty was in hopes, that the most conscientious observance of the strictest Neu-

trality, and his intention of acting in conformity to his Treaties, would spare him those unpleasant sensations. But the unexpected contents of the Note which Mr. Hailes, Ambassador Extraordinary of his Britannic Majesty, has delivered, and which has been supported by Count Von Goltz, Ambassador Extraordinary of his Prussian Majesty, will allow the King no longer to remain silent. The principles which his Majesty opposes to those laid before him, are contained in the inclosed Memorial. It is not the desire of supporting an opinion once declared, which induces his Majesty to abide by his own. The conviction of the most momentous interests, the desire of his subjects of preserving the Peace of which they stand in need, have fixed that opinion. His Majesty is convinced that he is addressing himself to Friends, to just and equitable Sovereigns; His Majesty speaks therefore with frankness, and without subterfuge.

It is not required here to illustrate Rights. The Rights of Denmark are not problematical; and the King, Sir, appeals in this point to the feelings of the Sovereigns his Friends, whether it must not be a painful task for him to enter into Negotiations respecting the performance of his plain, acknowledged, and allowed Treaties? His Majesty flatters himself, that it will never be adopted as a principle, or be enforced as such in this respect, by the assertion that the different nature of a War can alter the nature of a mutual Contrast, or that mutual allowances can be considered as favours or privileges, or that any two Powers shall make regulations at the expence of a third Power, or that Belligerent States shall ease the burthen inseparable from War by throwing it upon their innocent neighbours. These objects might furnish matter of explanation: but his Majesty thinks he would give offence to the respective Courts to which he appeals, were he to apprehend that those Courts, after having heard his Counter-Representations, would persevere in those principles; and still less that they would employ preponderant violence, and substitute it for arguments and proofs, or for the concessions necessary to the parties interested. His Majesty having made no separate agreement with the other Neutral Powers, he does not know their sentiments on this head; but his Majesty is convinced that their opinion and resistance will be unanimous, and that they will also perceive that it is impossible to combine the

system of Neutrality with measures which wholly destroy it.

The King is not afraid of there being any room of complaint against him. His Majesty has demanded nothing but what is strictly conformable to the Treaties. His Majesty has remained faithful to his Stipulations and Neutrality. He is the injured party; but he cannot conceive how his Majesty the King of Great Britain could, without the consent of his Danish Majesty, give fresh instructions to the Commanders of the British Ships of War, which are absolutely contrary to the former instructions, and to his Treaties with Denmark. The King entertained hopes, that those instructions would only have extended to those States to which England is not tied by decisive Conventions.

But since his Majesty can no longer admit of this Declaration, he finds himself obliged, against his will, to protest against those instructions, as an open infringement of the Treaties, and of the most sacred Law which exists between Men, to preserve all his Rights, and most urgently to request his Britannic Majesty to do away this recent rupture, by giving only such instructions as are consistent with the spirit of the existing and manifestly binding engagements. This is not done because his Majesty feels indifference at the pleasure of manifesting his friendship to the King of Great Britain, and likewise to the King of Prussia, and their Allies, by violating his rigorous Duties. The King will do every thing which is possible, provided it does not compromise the Neutrality and the prosperity of the Danish Nation. His Majesty consents to consider as blockaded, all those French Ports, opposite and near which there shall be a superior Naval Force of England or of her Allies. His Majesty will neither enter, nor favour the entering, into a contract with the French Government, for supplying its Marine or its Armies.—His Majesty will not suffer in his dominions the sale of Prizes made by French ships; nor will his Majesty cease to claim in France the effects of the English Subjects, and of the Subjects of the Allies of England, entrusted to the protection of the Danish Flag; and he will exert himself in the recovery thereof, in the same manner as if they were Danish property. In short, his Majesty will omit nothing of that which can cement his connections with the Powers whose friendship and esteem he has always requested, or which can manifest his fidelity with regard

to his Alliances, and his respect of the fundamental principles of Society and of the Public Weal.

“(Signed) A. P. VON BERNSTORFF.
“*Foreign Office, Copenhagen, July 28,*
1793.”

COUNTER DECLARATION of the COURT of DENMARK, in REPLY to the MEMORIAL delivered by the BRITISH MINISTER.

THE Law of Nations is unalterable. Its principles do not depend on circumstances. An enemy engaged in war can exercise vengeance upon those who do not expect it; but in this case, and without violating the rigid Law, a fatal reciprocity may take place: but a neutral Power which lives in peace, cannot admit of, nor acknowledge such a compensation; it can only screen itself by its impartiality and by its Treaties. It is not pardonable for her to renounce its Rights in favour of any Belligerent Power. The basis of its Rights is the universal and public Law, before which all authority must vanish: it is neither a Party nor a Judge; nor do the Treaties give room to privileges and favours. All these stipulations constitute the perfect Law: they are mutual obligations. That would be a very unnatural agreement, which any of the contracting parties might at pleasure suppress, interpret, or restrain. In this manner all Treaties would in general become impracticable, because they would be useless. What becomes of equity, fidelity, and safety? and how much more unjust must become opposition when it set aside the infringement of sacred duties, the advantages of which have been enjoyed, but only acknowledged as long as they suited self-interest?

Denmark will surely never attempt to justify the present Government in France, its nature and origin; but she will not give her judgment, and her Neutrality will not permit her to express her mind on this subject. We only confine ourselves to the lamenting the disasters which have befallen that country, and, on its account, all Europe; and to the wishing to see them brought to a speedy termination. But this is not the moment to own or acknowledge a form of Government which we have always refused to acknowledge.—The nation is there, and the authority which it acknowledges is that to which application is made in cases concerning single individuals. The commercial connexions subsist likewise in the same man-

ner as they did between England and France, as long as the latter chose to preserve peace. The nation has not ceased to acknowledge her Treaties with us; at least, she conforms herself agreeable to those Treaties. As she appeals to them, so do we appeal to them—and frequently with good success, both for ourselves, and in favour of those subjects of the Belligerent Powers who commit their effects to the protection of our flag. In cases of refusal and delay, we have frequently been obliged to hear often and reluctantly, that they only used to make reprisals, since the nations with whom they were at war shewed as little regard for their Treaties with us; and thus the neutral flag becomes the victim of errors which it cannot reproach itself with. The path of Justice still continues open in France. The Consuls, and the mandataries of private individuals, are heard. No one is prevented from applying to the Tribunals of Commerce. This is sufficient in ordinary cases. No fresh Negotiations are required for the maintenance of existing Treaties. Ministers become quite superfluous in this respect; there are Judges, and this is sufficient.

These considerations are already violated by the observation, that our grievances are frequently heard in France, and that there is no possibility of getting them redressed. The Municipalities, to whom application must be made, are certainly not alike equitable: the sentences of the Tribunals of Commerce are not founded upon uniform principles; the extreme means of refuge to a medium of power, is totally removed; and these circumstances occasion at times grievous acts of injustice. In this respect none are greater sufferers than the Neutral Powers; and it would be very unequitable to punish them doubly, and also on the part of those Powers who cry aloud against those unjust proceedings, and yet seem to justify it by their own imitation.

A Negotiation between a Neutral and a Belligerent Power, which would have for its object that the latter should not make use of neutrality to the detriment of the former, cannot be thought of. A Neutral Power has fulfilled all its duties, if it has never receded from the strictest impartiality, and from the acknowledged sense of its Treaties. In case the Neutrality should prove more advantageous to one of the Belligerent Powers than to the other, this becomes foreign to the Neutrality, and does not concern it. This depends

on local situations and circumstances, and does not remain alike. The detriments and advantages are compensated and balanced by time. All that which does not absolutely depend on a Neutral Power, ought to have no influence upon its Neutrality; otherwise a partial, and frequently but momentary interest would become the interpreter and judge of existing Treaties.

The distinction between private speculations and those made by the Government and the Municipalities, seems to us to be as new as it is totally unknown. As this case cannot at all find place here, it would be superfluous to discuss the question, Whether a contract between a neutral Government and a Belligerent Power, respecting supplies of provisions for armies, garrison-towns, or of ships of war, can be contrary to a Treaty in which no such exception has been mentioned? The only question here is respecting speculations which might be made by private individuals—respecting the sale of products quite harmless in their nature, the disposal of which is not less important to the vender, than the possession of them is to the purchaser—respecting the use of the ships of the nation which must chiefly seek her subsistence in navigation and the corn trade. Nor is the question here about ports of war, but about ports of commerce: and if it be lawful to reduce by famine blockaded harbours, it would not be quite so just to accumulate the misery upon so many others, where it befalls the innocent, and may even reach Provinces in France which have not deserved this increase of wretchedness, either on the part of England or on that of her Allies.

The want of grain, as a consequence of the failure of domestic productions, is not something unusual, which might only take place in the present moment, or which might be occasioned by the grounds which constitute the difference so often alledged between the present and former wars. France is almost constantly able to make imports from abroad.—Africa, Italy, America, furnish her with much more corn than the Baltic. In the year 1709 France was more exposed to famine than it now is; and yet England would not then avail herself of the same grounds. On the contrary, when, soon after, Frederic IV. King of Denmark, on account of his war with Sweden, which required almost constantly importations from abroad like France, could believe

that he might adopt the principle that exportation can be lawfully prevented if one has hopes to conquer an enemy by so doing, and he intended to apply, with regard to a whole country, this principle, which is only considered as valid with regard to blockaded ports; all the Powers remonstrated, especially Great Britain, and unanimously declared this as new and inadmissible; so that the King, convinced to the contrary, desisted from it. A war can certainly differ from others with regard to its occasion, tendency, necessity, justice or injustice. This can be a most important concern to the Belligerent Powers. It can and must have influence upon the peace, upon the indemnification, and other accessory circumstances. But all this is absolutely of no concern to the Neutral Powers. They will, upon the whole, give the utmost preference to those on whose side justice seems to be; but they have no right to give way to this sentiment. Where a Neutrality is not quite perfect, it ceases to be Neutrality.

The Ships bearing the British Flag, like those which bear that of the Allies of England, find in all the harbours of His Majesty every possible safety, assistance, and protection; but those cannot be reckoned among their number which have been captured by their Enemies. The French Privateers cannot be considered as Pirates by the Neutral Powers, as long as England does not consider and treat them as such. In England the Prisoners are deemed to be Prisoners of War: they are exchanged; and negotiations have even been entered into for this purpose. The usual Laws of War are there observed in all respects; and by this rule alone we ought to go. The tri-coloured Flag was acknowledged in Denmark at a period when it was acknowledged every where else. Every alteration in this respect would be impossible, without involving ourselves into a War, or without deserv- ing one.

The admittance of Privateers in Norway is a consequence of this Neutrality, before which all regard must vanish. It has found place in all the Maritime Wars which ever beset Europe. All the Nations in their turn have availed themselves of and desired it. The local description allows no general prohibition. It would only bring us into dilemmas, because we could not abide by it in a remote Country, where there are coasts of immense ex-

tent, numberless harbours and anchoring places, and only a small number of inhabitants. The prohibition would therefore be illusory, and even dangerous, as the French, in virtue of their Decrees, would then destroy the Ships which they would no longer hope to put in a state of safety. The subject is otherwise of small importance; and the means against it are numerous, and easily to be applied. (Signed) A. P. VON BERNSTORFF.

ANSWER of the COURT of DENMARK to the NOTE delivered on the 10th of AUGUST ult. by the IMPERIAL RUSSIAN AMBASSADOR.

WHEREAS I have given an account to the King, my Master, of the Note which the Ambassador Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Her Majesty the Empress of All the Russias, Baron de Krudener, delivered on the 10th of August 1793, I have received His Majesty's command to answer, That His Majesty sees, with the greatest sorrow, how much the principles contained in the said Note militate at this time against his own; that His Majesty expected no intimation that manifested doubts which His Majesty had not deserved; that it could not but be known to Her Imperial Majesty, that the King had resolved to give no convoys to the Danish Ships bound to France, and that His Majesty never had pretended to send Naval Stores into that Country; that His Majesty could not of course guess the meaning of a Declaration which did not concern him, nor of a proceeding which applied the principles and rights of a blockade to situations which precluded every idea of that kind; that the restricted Commerce in Grain, as it now subsisted, was a quite insignificant circumstance for the cause which Her Imperial Majesty had espoused; but that it was not so with regard to Denmark, as it involved the sacrifice of her Rights, her Independence and her Treaties; that His Majesty did not permit himself to enter into a proper enquiry in this respect, since Her Imperial Majesty had rejected the only Judge whom His Majesty could acknowledge, namely, the universal and special law of Nations; that His Majesty being no longer at liberty to appeal to this Law, would only appeal to the Friendship and Equity of Her Imperial Majesty, which had been manifested by so many years, and so many proofs; that His Majesty acted thus with the greater confidence, as he thought to have evinced

his by so many reciprocal and decisive proofs, as His Majesty did not make any use of his incontestible rights to claim, with regard to the liberty of his Navigation, the protection due to him in virtue of the most solemn Treaties—a protection which Her Imperial Majesty had herself proposed.

(Signed) A. P. VON BERNSTORFF.
Foreign Office, Copenhagen, Aug. 23,
1793.

PROCLAMATION of ADMIRAL LANGARA
to the FRENCH at TOULON on the 27th
of October.

Frenchmen,

A SCANDALOUS address published by your pretended legislators, has just reached our hands. This writing, unworthy of our regard, can be but the last effort of criminality and of despair. The people of Toulon are there painted as traitors, who have delivered to the English the port and the squadron in their harbour.

The whole of Europe knows and respects your virtues. The whole of Europe knows and detests your tyrants.

You have for a long time been the play-thing and the prey of bad men, who have assassinated their Sovereign for the purpose of possessing themselves of his power. 'Tis to those you owe the horrid calamity to which you have been reduced by the extravagant emission of assignats, of which they have devoured the security and the pledge. It is only to exempt themselves from the sword of the law that they put arms into the hands of rebels, that they sack your towns, pillage the country, plunder the inhabitants and confiscate their fortunes.

Affected by these misfortunes, the Combined Squadrons could not refuse their succour to Toulon, at a moment when two armies blockaded this important city, abandoned by its governors, and were about to reduce it to the most horrible state of famine.

The people of Toulon have not delivered up their town, which could not be at once the prey of Spain, of England, and of the other Powers united and animated by the same motives. But they have placed the town under our immediate protection, and carried even to a scruple the conditions which tend to the re-establishment of their lawful King. It is only in the town of Toulon that the true friends of order and of peace are to be found at present.

The City of Toulon has seen in the Powers which we represent, two generous and sympathizing nations, who came not to conquer it, but to destroy the poniards which were uplifted against the good and peaceable inhabitants of that unfortunate city; to afford them assistance; to re-establish order; to lay the foundation of a system of regeneration; to substitute a regular form of government in the place of that desolation and anarchy which rends France to the centre; and finally, to restore LOUIS the XVIIIth to the throne of his ancestors.

Frenchmen! your enemies perfidiously conceal from you, that the French flag is hoisted upon your fortresses and your ships of war; that a French Squadron is at anchor among the combined fleets of Great Britain and Spain; and that all power is subordinate to the authority of the new King, under the immediate auspices of the United Powers; that our sole object is, to revenge the cause of our Allies, whose territories were so daringly violated; to afford you effectual succour, and to stop the career of the manifold crimes which have led you to the verge of destruction.

Frenchmen!

If the remembrance of your brilliant fortunes be not wholly effaced from your memory—if you are eager to resume that honourable rank which you have held among nations, shake off the odious yoke of your despicable tyrants, unite yourselves with the faithful Toulonois, and share with them the glory of having procured happiness to France, and peace and repose to Europe.

Given at Toulon, on board the *Mexicain*,
the 27th of Sept. 1793, the first year
of the reign of LOUIS the XVIIIth.

(signed) LANGARA.

DECLARATION of WAR by FRANCE
against GENOA.

THE following Declaration has been addressed by the French National Commissioners in the army of Italy.

“ The undersigned Commissioners, deputed by the National Convention of France, considering that the social compact of all nations has been violated in the most indecent manner—that the atrocious act committed in the port of Genoa towards the Members of the French Republic, by men calling themselves subjects of the Monarch of England, has outraged the rights of nations, and endangered even the existence of humanity—considering too, that
these

these afflicting events cannot be indifferent to any people, particularly to the people of Genoa, under whose eyes the crime of treason against society has been committed—that the punishment of such a crime ought to be as speedy as it should be terrible—that justice and humanity demand it—that the French Republic has the power and the inclination to execute it—that the people of Genoa, by preserving a silence, would sanction the conduct of their agents, declare—that in such circumstances Genoa cannot, without shame and dishonour, hesitate an instant in deciding between the friends and foes of society, outraged in the persons of French Republicans, and that neutrality in such an extraordinary situation of affairs would involve all people in anarchy.

Considering further, that the people of Genoa see daily the religious attention with which their territory is respected by the Republic, at the very moment when the enemies of France had in Genoa a secure asylum, and thus escape the pursuit of the French, who are armed in defence of Liberty and Equality—finally, that such respect must soon cease for a territory which is used as the tomb of French Republicans—

Declare in the most solemn manner, in the name of the Republic of France, to the people of Genoa, that the tardiness and indecision of the Senate, in neglecting to inflict a just and signal punishment on the authors of the crime committed in their port, and under their cannon, against the human race, in the persons of the Members of the French Society, is regarded as an act of hostility, and that the French Republic is prepared to adopt such a conduct as is necessary to obtain reparation for so great a crime.

The French Chargé d'Affaires is commanded to communicate this Declaration to the Senate of Genoa.

(Signed) ROBESPIERRE, the younger,
KICARD,
RASPAUD, Secretary.

*Done at Nice, Oct. 13,
Second Year of the Republic,
One and Indivisible.*

MEMORIAL presented on the 8th of October 1793, to M. DE SERRIS-TORI, Minister for Foreign Affairs at FLORENCE, by LORD HERVEY, the English Minister.

ALL Europe is witness of the reiterated complaints made by the undersigned Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of his Britannic Majesty at the Court of Tuscany, on

the subject of the partiality which the latter Government observes in favour of the French. The undersigned has done every thing in his power to open the eyes of his Royal Highness the Grand Duke upon his true interests, and the danger to which he exposes himself by having communication with a nation of Regicides, which puts every art in practice to annihilate all kind of Government; which despises all Laws; which destroys all Religion; which has at length dipped its guilty hands in the blood of its King—in the blood of the Clergy, of the Nobility, and of other subjects who remained faithful to their King; and which, seeking to extend its calamities to all other people, is warring against almost all the Sovereigns of Europe. Notwithstanding the generous, amicable, and plain intentions of his Britannic Majesty, which the undersigned communicated to the Government of Tuscany by his Memorial of August 14 last, he has seen the evil councils and dangerous maxims of certain persons prevail; and, as the conduct which he complains of has been persevered in, it becomes necessary to take vigorous measures.

The undersigned is obliged to declare, in order that his Royal Highness the Grand Duke may be informed of it, that Admiral Lord Hood has ordered an English Squadron, in conjunction with a detachment from the Spanish fleet, to set sail for Leghorn, there to act according to the part which his Royal Highness may take.

The unjust and notorious partiality of Tuscany in favour of the French, and the vast seizure of the corn and effects belonging to merchants of Toulon at Leghorn, at a time when the armies of their Britannic and Spanish Majesties had occasion for the same articles, evidently prove the injury which ensues from such a neutrality for the operations of the Allies. In consequence, Admiral Lord Hood declares, in the name of the King his Master, that if, within the space of twelve hours after the representations of the undersigned, his Royal Highness the Grand Duke does not resolve to send away M. de la Flotte and his adherents from Tuscany, the Squadron will act offensively against the port and city of Leghorn.

The unhappy consequences of this proceeding can alone be imputed to those who have had the audacity to give perfidious advice, and to make false representations upon the present state of af-

fairs—they alone will have to answer for all that may happen henceforward.

The undersigned, who earnestly desires to avert such a calamity from Tuscany, and to spare his Royal Highness the Grand Duke all kind of inconvenience, again invites him to give, without delay, a clear explication of his intentions relative to the demand made by Admiral Lord Hood, to order the departure of M. de la Flotte and his adherents, and to break off all communication with the National Convention, or the *soi-disant* Government of France. In making a common cause with the Allies, his Royal Highness the Grand Duke may rely upon the friendship and protection of his Britannic Majesty and his Allies. The sole way to prevent offensive operations against the city and port of Leghorn, is to acquiesce in the demands now made, by giving the undersigned the Royal promise to conform to them punctually.

It will depend then upon his Royal Highness to receive the said Squadron as a friend, or to expose Tuscany to all the disasters which will happen if it be compelled to act offensively. As its expedition at Genoa is concluded, it is on the point of arriving at Leghorn. For this reason the undersigned will hasten to prevent any offensive measure, by acquainting the Commanding Admiral with the resolutions of his Royal Highness.

The undersigned has thought it necessary to make this communication for the information of his Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Tuscany. At the same time he sincerely hopes, that this affair will terminate amicably, and to the reciprocal satisfaction of the two Courts.

(Signed) HERVEY.

ANSWER.

MY LORD,

HIS Royal Highness has ordered me to reply to the Memorial which you have presented this day, and to the explanatory Note of the intentions of the King your Sovereign, that his Royal Highness has resolved to make the necessary dispositions that M. de la Flotte and his adherents may quit Tuscany as soon as possible. His Royal Highness flatters himself that his Majesty the King of Great Britain will consider this proceeding as a fresh testimony of the particular esteem and deference which his Royal Highness takes a pleasure in shewing him on every occasion. Such are the orders my Sovereign has given me. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) SERRISSTORI.

October 8. Ten o'Clock at Night.

DECLARATION of the GRAND MASTER of the SOVEREIGN ORDER of MALTA, to the COURT of NAPLES, dated SEPT. 12, 1793.

THE Court of Naples having caused to be notified to the Grand Master of the Sovereign Order of Malta, that, not wishing to have any thing further to do with those who at present govern France, it sent away all the agents of that country, who had hitherto resided at Naples, or at the ports of his Sicilian Majesty, his Eminent Highness took the earliest opportunity of following that example, and of ordering the ports of Malta to be shut against all kinds of French ships of war or privateers, as long as the present war shall continue.

The Grand Master wishes to make known at the same time, that since the notification which the late King made to him of the acceptance of the Constitution of 1791, the Government of Malta has had no relation with France. The dreadful troubles which have broke out in that kingdom, and which have deprived it of a Sovereign universally regretted, and the violations of the rights of nations, which have been permitted there under every point of view, in regard to the Sovereign Order of Malta, have induced many persons, not acquainted with the fundamental laws of this Order, to think that reprisals ought to have been made; but these laws even prescribe neutrality in all those quarrels which arise between the different Christian nations. The Grand Master however, fully determined not to acknowledge the pretended French Republic in the person of an agent which it might send to Malta, ordered, on the 15th of March last, the Chevalier de Caumont, in his quality of Member of the Order and of its delegate, who had resided long in this island as *Charge d' Affaires* of the King of France, to retain the title which he held from his Majesty Louis XVI. of glorious memory, and to keep the arms of the King over his gate, which he has hitherto done, under the protection of the Government of Malta.

But the Grand Master learning, through an indirect channel, that a person named Aymar has been appointed to succeed the Chevalier de Caumont, and that he is now on his way to Malta, formally declares at present, that he will neither receive nor admit the said personage, nor any other who may be sent to reside at Malta, as agent, in any respect, of the said pretended Republic, which his Eminent Highness ought not, cannot, and will not acknowledge.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

[FROM THE LONDON GAZETTE.]

ADMIRALTY-OFFICE, NOV. 9. 1793.

THE dispatches, of which the following are Copies and Extracts, were this day received by Philip Stephens, Esq. from the Right Hon. Vice-Admiral Lord Hood, Commander in Chief of his Majesty's ships and vessels in the Mediterranean.

SIR,

Victory, Toulon Road, Oct. 6, 1793.

I Have the honour to desire you will be pleased to offer to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty my sincere congratulations on a very brilliant and complete victory obtained over the enemy the 1st instant, upon the Heights of Pharon. The British and Piedmontese troops composed the column under Lord Mulgrave, and led the way; but his Lordship gives full credit to the spirit and exertion of the troops of every Nation, and is loud in the praise of the Neapolitans, who greatly distinguished themselves. I transmit, for their Lordships information, a duplicate of the order his Lordship gave out next morning, with an account of the Killed and Wounded. The action was short but hot. The enemy had upon the Heights from 1800 to 2000 men, the flower of the Eastern Army, not a fourth part of which, we are well informed, ever returned to Head-Quarters; for what did not fall by the bullet or bayonet, broke their necks in tumbling headlong over the precipices in their flight. In the night of the 30th a very important post, above Fort Pharon, was surprized and taken; the repossessing of which being of so much consequence, an attempt was immediately resolved upon; and, in order to enable Lord Mulgrave, General Gravina and Governor Elphinstone, with the respective columns under their commands, to go out with the greater force, I undertook the care of Toulon and Fort La Malgue, and had a sufficient number of good men on shore, within two hours after receiving notice of the sad disaster.

I am sorry to inform their Lordships of that gallant and able Officer General Gravina being wounded in the leg; and although there is no doubt (as Dr. Harness assures me, who has the care of him) of his doing perfectly well, he will probably be confined some time, as the ball is lodged between the two bones.

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His Majesty's ship Colossus returned to me, on the 24th, from Cagliari, and brought 350 good troops; and I expect 800 more from Conti, in three or four days. The second division of Neapolitans, consisting of 2000, arrived last night, and the last 2000 were to leave Naples yesterday. His Sicilian Majesty has manifested the greatest readiness and zeal in fulfilling the Treaty, and has confided his ships and troops solely to my disposal, which his Majesty has made known to me from under his own hand.

I have good reason to expect General O'Hara will be here in a few days, with 12 or 1500 men from Gibraltar: He will be welcome to us. I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your most obedient

Humble Servant,

Philip Stephens, Esq. HOOD.

The enemy's loss is supposed to have been about 1500 killed, wounded, and taken prisoners.

Extract of a Letter from Vice-Admiral Lord Hood to Mr. Stephens, dated Victory, Toulon Road, Oct. 6, 1793.

SIR,

I BEG you will be pleased to make known to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that upon receiving a pressing request from General Paoli for assistance, and informing me at the same time that even the appearance of a few ships would very essentially serve him, provided it should not be judged expedient to make an attack by them on any of the forts, I therefore determined to send three ships of the line and two frigates to him, and, as the season was too far advanced for a second rate to go on that coast, I established Capt. Linzee as a Commodore, appointed Capt. Woodley his Captain, and gave an order to Lord Amelius Beauclerk to command the Nemesis.

Alcide, in the Gulph of St. Florence, Oct. 1, 1793.

MY LORD,

I HAVE the honour to inform your Lordship, that being joined by the Ardent on the 21st ult. and it being deemed practicable to make an attack by sea upon the tower and redoubt of Fornili (a post at the distance of two miles opposite the town of Florence), I immediately gave the necessary orders for the Squadron to act, whenever the wind

was sufficiently steady for that purpose. On the 24th, the *Courageux* joined with provisions from *L'eghorn*; and on the night of the 27th the launches of the Squadron cut out a vessel, which has since been converted into a gun-boat. Having made several attempts (between the 21st and 30th ult.) to attack the above posts, which were always frustrated by the wind dying away as soon as I drew into the Gulph; and experience having pointed out the improbability of the wind's blowing steady in a Gulph of such depth, and surrounded by mountains of considerable height; it was deemed expedient to execute my intentions the following morning, by warping the *Ardent*, during the night, into a situation from whence she could not only annoy the redoubt, but cover the approach of the Squadron. Captain Sutton placed his ship with as much judgment and precision as if the service had been executed during the day, and at half past three, A. M. opened a fire, which was kept up without intermission till near eight o'clock. By four o'clock the *Alcide* was in a situation to open her battery on the enemy's works, but being too close to the *Ardent*, and a flaw of wind filling her sails, endangered her shooting on the rocks, before she could be anchored, with security. The sails were instantly thrown aback, and boats were employed, towing, to extricate her from this difficulty. Capt. Matthews, observing the *Alcide's* situation, very gallantly shot under her stern, to cover her, and occupied the station I had intended to anchor in. As the situation of the *Courageux* prevented the *Alcide* from opening her fire, except at intervals, I ordered Captain Wolfeley to carry out warps, to move us into a more eligible situation; which service was executed with great alacrity, and a spirited fire again opened on the enemy's posts.

Although a close and powerful cannonading had been kept up by the Squadron till a quarter before eight, no visible impression was made; and Captain Sutton having reported the *Ardent* was much damaged, and that, in his opinion, there was no prospect of success; and Captain Woodley (who had been on board the *Courageux* to enquire into the state of that ship) having brought a similar report from Captain Matthews, who, as well as Captain Wolfeley and himself, agreed in the above opinion, I judged it advisable to

make the signal for discontinuing the attack.

The *Alcide* is not materially damaged in her masts or rigging, but the *Ardent* and *Courageux* have suffered considerably in both, from being exposed to the raking fire of the town of Florence, though every information had assured me the distance from that place was too great for guns to have any effect.

Our failure is not only to be imputed to the false intelligence respecting the range of cannon from the town of Florence, but to the want of ardour on the part of the Corsicans, who had faithfully promised to storm the posts on the land side, tho' they never made the smallest movement to effect that service during the action. I inclose a list of the killed and wounded, and of the artillery opposed to the Squadron; and am happy in testifying my warmest approbation of the gallant manner in which every officer and man employed on this occasion conducted himself. I am sorry to find Mr. Shiels, First Lieutenant of the *Courageux*, is amongst the number killed, and have appointed Mr. Peter Hunt, a very deserving young man, to act as junior Lieutenant of that ship, till your Lordship's pleasure is known.

I have the honour to be, &c.

ROB. LINZEE,

Alcide, Oct. 1. 1793.

Lord Hood.

Victory, Toulon Road, October 13, 1793.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to desire you will acquaint the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, that a very successful sortie was made in the night of the 9th, and herewith transmit Captain Brereton's account of it to Lord Mulgrave. But the enemy has since erected another battery, about two hundred yards to the Southward of the one destroyed, from which they fired heavy cannon and shells all yesterday, and are now doing so, but as yet have done us very little mischief.

I have the honour to be,

SIR,

Your most obedient humble Servant,
Philip Stephens, Esq.

HOOD.

Fort Mulgrave, Hauteur de Grasse,

October 9, 1793.

MY LORD,

AGREEABLE to your Lordship's orders, and arrangements made for carrying them into execution yesterday morning, at half past twelve o'clock at night

night we moved from this post; and, having formed a junction in the bottom with the marines and Piedmontese from the post of Cepet, we marched off from our right in one column, in order to insure the greater regularity in a night attack: our march to the top of the height, where the new erected batteries of the enemy had been constructed, was performed with all possible order and expedition, the troops observing the greatest silence, by which, with the aid of the French deserter, who answered the centinels of the enemy as we passed them, our advanced party arrived at the entrance into their first battery, perfectly undiscovered: the first centry having been put to death, the advanced party, composed of the grenadiers and light infantry of the line of British, under the command of Captain Stewart of the 25th regiment, very gallantly rushed in, and put every man to the bayonet that opposed them.

The remainder of the enemy that could get off retired to their second battery, and, though most rapidly pursued, made a sort of stand; but the greater part of the detachment by this time having taken different positions of attack, the enemy were soon routed in all quarters, and, in a quarter of an hour after, we made ourselves masters of all their batteries on this height, and the ordnance mounted thereon. In the first battery they had mounted two twenty-four pounders on garrison carriages; on the second battery they had one fine brass twenty-four pounder, mounted on a high travelling carriage, and two smaller guns; and in a third battery was mounted two thirteen inch mortars, with a great deal of ammunition, suitable for their different pieces of ordnance. On the road we found one light travelling six pounder. Immediately as the enemy retired and ceased firing, I posted the troops round the center of the hill, and placed guards at the leading avenues to it, while Lieutenant Serocold of the navy, with the sailors, &c. under his directions, set to work in destroying these different pieces of ordnance, by spiking the touch-holes of the guns and mortars, and ramming balls into the guns, breaking up their carriages, and destroying their ammunition. Had it been possible to have carried off any part of the above guns, &c. it should have been done; but, from the precipices we were necessa-

rily obliged to descend, and the broken narrow paths we had occasion to pass, in order to avoid exposing ourselves by day-light to the fire of two heavy batteries of the enemy at the Windmills, I found it was impracticable even to carry off the field piece; neither did I think it right to hazard remaining with the detachment (which did not exceed 408) on the height where the batteries were erected, there being no cover in the rear, and the force of the enemy immediately in our neighbourhood on heights above us equal to 12 or 1300 men, which might have cut us off before your Lordship could have sent a reinforcement to sustain us from Toulon.

From these considerations, as soon as Lieutenant Serocold reported to me that he had rendered the different guns and mortars unserviceable, having collected our killed and wounded, we marched back from our left about half past four in the morning, and reached this post about six o'clock. Our loss on this enterprize of killed and wounded is herewith inclosed in a return, which, considering the strength of the position we attacked, that was defended by three hundred of the enemy's best troops, is very inconsiderable; but, at the same time, is much to be lamented, as they were of the advanced guard of British, and the best of our troops. The loss of the enemy is far more considerable; for we perceived in different places between twenty and thirty of them killed, but, from reports since from deserters, we learn they had upwards of fifty killed and as many wounded. We took a Captain Lamatalie of the chasseurs du Burgogne, a Lieutenant Chevalier of the 4th regiment of Artillery, and twenty-three men, prisoners, whom we brought with us into this post.

I have the pleasure to inform your Lordship, that, in the operation of the march and attack, all the foreign troops employed co-operated most cordially.

I have the honour to be,

My LORD,

Your Lordship's very faithful

And obedient Servant,

ROBERT BRERETON,

Captain Commanding 2d Battalion of British.

*Brigadier-General Lord Mulgrave,
&c. &c. &c.*

WHITEHALL, NOVEMBER 9.

THE following dispatch was this day received at the Office of the Right Honourable Henry Dundas, his Majesty's

Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department.

Toulon, October 10, 1793.

SINCE my last dispatch of the 3d of October, the enemy had completed three batteries opposite to the Hauteur de Grasse, one at La Hauteur des Moulins, and two to the Southward on the Hauteur de Reinier. Vice-Admiral Lord Hood being apprehensive that the fleet might suffer some inconvenience from the batteries de Reinier, and information of the situation of the enemy, and of the approaches to the batteries, having been received from an intelligent deserter, it was determined to make a sortie from the Hauteur de Grasse, on the 8th instant at night, for the purpose of destroying the enemy's batteries. A detachment was ordered, composed of the whole of the British troops on that post, amounting to 225 rank and file, under the command of Captain Brereton of the 30th regiment, the Spanish grenadier company of the regiment of Hibernia, 50 men commanded by Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel Nugent, who also commanded the sortie, a company of Piedmontese grenadiers of 50 men, and 50 Albanese Neapolitan troops. This corps marched at half past twelve o'clock at night, and were joined (at a point agreed upon) at one o'clock in the morning, by the post of Les Sablettes, of a Captain and 50 British marines; and a Captain and 50 Piedmontese chasseurs; the advanced guard of 50 British grenadiers, light infantry, and 10 grenadiers of Hibernia, under the command of Captain Stewart of the 25th regiment. Lieutenant Knight of the 11th regiment, and a subaltern officer of Hibernia (whose name has not been reported to me), surprized the enemy's post, attacked the first battery with their bayonets, put the whole guard to flight, and pursued the enemy with great slaughter into the second battery, supported by the whole detachment, which formed on the height, and remained till Lieutenant Serocold of the navy, with a party of seamen, had taken measures to render the artillery of both batteries unserviceable, and had destroyed all the ammunition: The ground between Grasse and the Hauteur de Reinier was so intersected with ravines and walls as to render it impossible to bring off the mortars or guns.

I inclose a list of the pieces of ordnance which were destroyed, and a return of the killed and wounded of his

Majesty's troops. The whole loss fell upon the advanced guard, the officers and soldiers of which distinguished themselves very particularly by their enterprize, activity, and spirit. The good order and steadiness of the whole detachment deserves the highest praise; as well as the judicious conduct of the march, concerted by Lieutenant-Colonel Nugent of the regiment of Hibernia, and Captain Brereton of the 30th regiment, under the orders of the Spanish Colonel O'Neale, who commands at the post de Grasse.

Deserters, who came in yesterday, report, the enemy calculate their loss, in killed, wounded and missing, at near 200 men; and that one of the mortars had split in their endeavours to clear it.

I have the honour to be, &c.

MULGRAVE,

Acting Brigadier-General.

Right Hon. Henry Dundas,

&c. &c. &c.

WHITEHALL, NOV. 12.

BY a dispatch from the Earl of Yarmouth, dated the 28th of October, it appears, that on the 25th of that month the right wing of the enemy was completely routed, with the loss of 14 cannon, a great quantity of military stores, two howitzers, all the camp equipage, and an important position at Wanzenu, of which General Wurmser immediately took possession: That the Austrians were attacked on every side on the 27th, but that the enemy was compelled to retreat; and that the loss of the latter on the two days was computed at 3000 killed, wounded, and taken.

WHITEHALL, NOV. 14.

The dispatch, of which the following is an extract, was this morning received at the Office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department.

Toulon, Oct. 3, 1793.

SIR,

IN my dispatch of the 24th of September I had the honour to inform you, that the enemy had been more active than previous to that period; they occasionally cannonaded our different posts, and had approached bodies of men to various points, to attract our attention. On the 30th of September, at night, they entered upon a daring and desperate project, that met with a most unaccountable success, which fortunately was not of long duration.

The

The post of Faron being the point at which the enemy determined to make an attempt to render themselves masters of Toulon, they carried their design into execution on the night of the 30th of September. The piquet of 60 men, being driven from the Pas de la Masque about day-break, retired to the redoubt of Faron, which they found abandoned by the Spanish garrison that had been placed in it. The enemy some time after took possession of the redoubt, and of the whole summit of this almost inaccessible mountain. By the possession of the redoubt of Faron their communication was open with La Valette, and with La Garde, where the Head Quarters of General Gardane are established; from both which places they received considerable reinforcements. The fort of Faron, which is below the redoubt, having made the signal of being pressed by the enemy, and in want of immediate succour, Governor Elphinstone added Captain Torriano, with 92 men of the 30th regiment, to the garrison of that Post.

At about seven o'clock in the morning of the 1st of October, the report came to Toulon, that the enemy were in possession of the whole summit of the mountain of Faron. The absolute necessity of an immediate attack of this post being obvious, the most practicable means of regaining the summit of the mountain, in the face of an enemy who were hourly receiving reinforcements, and who were prepared for their defence, became the only subject of discussion. Admiral Gravina, Brigadier-General Squierdo of the Spanish troops, Brigadier-General Prince de Pignatelli commanding the Neapolitan troops, Lieutenant-Colonel Chevalier de Revel, Governors Goodall, Elphinstone, and myself, having assembled at the Government House, and having consulted intelligent persons acquainted with the possible accesses to the mountain on the side of Toulon, it was determined to make the attempt on the Western side. The troops of the garrison having been assembled on the parade during the time of our deliberation, I detached Captain Beresford, of the 69th regiment, with 50 men, to Fort Faron, to co-operate under the command of Governor Elphinstone, in case any opportunity should offer of making a diversion on the side of the redoubt of Faron, in favour of our main attack, if we should be so fortunate as to reach the summit of the mountain, which is 1718 feet above the level of the sea.

The British troops upon guard at the gate of the town having been relieved, I

was enabled to collect 250 British rank and file, to which I added 140 chasseurs and 163 grenadiers of the Piedmontese troops (the remainder being dispersed in distant posts). This corps composed the column under my command, destined to ascend the face of the mountain from the fort of Grand St. Antoine. (I had also ordered 500 Neapolitan troops of the regiment du Bourgogne to join my column; but, from the difference of language, some mistake occurred in the delivery of the orders, and those troops did not join me.) The column of Admiral Gravina, which took its route towards the Vallon de Valbourdin to ascend by that pass, was composed of two companies of Piedmontese chasseurs, 183 Spanish rank and file, 400 Neapolitan grenadiers, and a detachment of 100 men of the regiment de Bourgogne; Brigadier-Generals Squierdo and Pignatelli went with this column. The two columns marched from Toulon at eight o'clock. At the redoubt of Grand St. Antoine I formed the troops under my immediate command in alternate hundreds of British and Piedmontese, directing them to keep in small platoons, as nearly in a line as possible during their ascent, and to form to the first party that should arrive at the summit. An advanced party of 200 of the enemy appeared at the top of the mountain, and gave their fire at a great distance, retiring immediately, and allowing the troops to gain the height with no other obstacle than that which the rugged and almost perpendicular acclivity presented; the labour and fatigue of the ascent being considerably increased by the great heat of the day. The column of General Gravina gained the top of the mountain soon after us, without having met with any resistance. Captain Moncrief, who led the right division of my column, pushed across the mountain, and possessed himself of the Pas de la Masque, which had been abandoned by the enemy. The top of the mountain of Faron is intersected by a succession of transverse heights, of steep ascent from the West, and rising successively to the easternmost extremity of the mountain, where the redoubt of Faron is placed. We found the enemy drawn up on the front of this last ridge. The rock to the North, on the right of the position taken by the enemy, ends in a precipice above the Vallon de Favieres; the ground which lay between the right of the enemy and the column under my command is a low ridge, forming the narrow head of a deep valley, which descends to the Southward,

widening

widening itself by a gradual turn to the Eastward, so as to form a steep side to the left flank of the enemy's position, and ending on the flat summit of an interior ridge of the mountain, directly above the town of Toulon.

The enemy were formed in a line on the front of the eminence, and within musket-shot of our position. In front of the right of the enemy's principal line, and on the crest of the ridge which forms the head of the valley, they had an advanced guard of about 50 men; in the rear of their right flank, which did not reach up to the precipice, a body of about 200 men were placed *en echelon*; a considerable body was placed *en potence* behind the left of their line; and in front of their left flank was placed an advanced guard, similar to that on the right; in the rear, half way between the redoubt and the first line, a strong column was placed in reserve; and the parapet of the Redoubt was lined with men. The post of the enemy commanded very considerably every part of the position which we were obliged to occupy. The left column, under my command, arrived first in presence of the enemy. I placed the greatest part of it under cover of a rising ground, behind the narrow crest of the valley over which I was to pass, when the attack should be made. The column of General Gravina being soon after also in presence of the enemy, he formed his line on an height, which extended beyond the left of the enemy's position, and was separated from the height on which I had taken post by a branch of the great valley, running to the Westward, and forming a dip between the posts occupied by our respective divisions. I immediately sent notice of our being in presence of the enemy (by an Officer, who was obliged to make a considerable circuit) to Governor Elphinstone, who was at Fort Faron.

A brisk fire, begun by the advanced posts of the enemy, took place at this time between them and General Gravina's line, and a fire also commenced on the side of Fort Faron by the corps under the command of Colonel del Porto, against the *potence* (or return line) of the enemy's position, which could not, however, at that time, produce its effect, and was soon after very judiciously discontinued. As I could plainly perceive from the post I occupied that no impression could be made from a fire across the deep part of the valley, and that there was a defect in the disposition of the enemy's left, I went to the light, to communicate my observations to

General Gravina; and it was then agreed that the corps under the command of that General should descend, by its right, into the valley, and march, under cover of the ascent on the left of the enemy, to attack them on that flank, which they had injudiciously placed upon the extreme summit of the hill, so as not to have the command of the whole descent, as they might have had by placing themselves a little below the brow. It was agreed also, that the left column, under my command, should endeavour to attract the attention of the enemy during this movement, and that when General Gravina should have attained a certain point, I should move forward, and the general attack be made. On my return to the left (General Gravina having already begun his movements), I produced my whole force to the view of the enemy. The operation answered to our utmost wish. The enemy marched reinforcements to the right of their line, and appeared in expectation of an immediate attack from my column; during this period General Gravina proceeded down the valley, and came unperceived up the side of the hill occupied by the enemy; the line of march round this steep and rocky ascent being explored, with infinite intepidity and judgment, by Serjeant Moreno, of the Spanish Marines, and three soldiers of his corps, to within pistol shot of the enemy's line. The whole crest of the Mount in of Faron being a hard grey rock, without vegetation, and in some parts broken into sharp and loose pieces, which render walking very difficult, the march of General Gravina's column was necessarily slow: As soon as he had got to the point agreed upon, the British of my column, led by Captain Moncrief of the 11th regiment, and preceded by Thomas Graham, Esq, of Balgeroon (a Gentleman of independent fortune, who was attracted to Toulon by the extraordinary event of its being in our possession, to whose abilities on many occasions here, and to whose distinguished and exemplary gallantry on this occasion the service has been infinitely indebted), and the Piedmontese Chasseurs, led by Lieutenant Colonel the Chevalier de Revel, advanced in two columns, supported by the Piedmontese Grenadiers, under Colonel the Comte de Forax, the ridge being too narrow to admit of a line. A very heavy fire from the greatest part of the enemy's line checked our progress for a short period at somewhat less than half the way, between the ground from which we had advanced and the enemy's post. Here a continued fire

was kept up between the enemy and the British and Piedmontese troops, under every disadvantage on our part of a most exposed and confined situation. The column of General Gravina in the mean time advanced in excellent order, under cover of the hill; the two companies of Piedmontese Chasseurs, with the Neapolitan Grenadiers and Spanish troops, advancing with a regular progress, and well-supported fire, towards the left of the enemy's line, whilst the detachment from Fort Faron, under Colonel Comte del Porto, recommenced their attack, which they made a real one, instead of a mere diversion, as at first intended. At this instant the advanced part of General Gravina's column having nearly gained the brow of the hill, I perceived the left of the enemy's line begin to waver, and crowd together, and ordered the British and Piedmontese under my command to rush forward, which they did with the utmost spirit and alacrity, under an heavy and galling fire of the enemy, which, however, was of very short duration, for the whole line of the enemy, with their different corps of reserve (400 of their troops having abandoned the Redoubt before the conclusion of the action) were thrown into confusion, and the rout became general; several were killed in the pursuit, but a very considerable number indeed were destroyed by pressing each other over the precipice in their flight; 75 of their dead were collected, without descending into the valley to which they fell from the precipice: An Officer and 60 prisoners were taken, and, by accounts since received from deserters, but one quarter of their original number have rejoined their forces. The most moderate calculation upon the accounts of the prisoners and deserters, states their numbers to have been from 1800 to 2000 men, all troops of the line, and the flower of La Bar's army. Our loss has been inconsiderable, compared with the difficulty and hazard of the enterprize. I have to regret the loss of Lieutenant the Chevalier Fabar, of the Piedmontese Chasseurs, a gallant, active, and intelligent young officer, who was killed at the commencement of the first attack made by my column. The whole army heard with regret that General Gravina, in the course of his able and spirited exertions at the head of the Neapolitan grenadiers, received a wound in the leg, which obliged him to retire from the field; I am happy, however, to add, that the wound is not likely to be attended with any serious consequences; his place was ably supplied by the courage and conduct

of Brigadier General Chevalier Squierdo and Prince Pignatelli. I inclose a list of the killed and wounded of the different nations; the chief loss has fallen upon the column under my command, from the very exposed situation in which the attack was necessarily made, and where the British and Piedmontese troops justified the mutual confidence which each seemed to repose in the steady support of the other. Indeed Sir, I should do injustice were I to particularize any corps or any nation, where all were so equally meritorious, not only in the intrepid firmness with which the whole of this brave body of men encountered the dangers of a difficult and almost desperate attempt, but for the patient fortitude also with which they bore hunger, thirst, and fatigue, the troops having received only a small portion of bread at the time they marched from out of the town, and being (from the want of necessary supplies at Toulon) without canteens, no officer or soldier had a drop of water to refresh him during the space of 12 hours, in a laborious march up precipices supposed inaccessible and over rugged rocks, exposed to the heat of a burning sun, reflected strongly by the nature of the ground. I can only say, that the mutual esteem and applause which the troops of the different nations so strongly manifest towards each other, is the most honourable panegyrick that can be bestowed upon them.

I have the Honour to be,
with great respect,
Sir,

Your most obedient, and humble Servant,
MULGRAVE,
Acting Brigadier General.

WHITEHALL, NOV. 20.

The dispatches, of which the following are extract and copy (which had not been received when the last accounts were published), were yesterday received at the Office of the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department. *Extract of a Letter from the Right Hon. Lord Mulgrave, to Mr. Secretary Dundas, dated Toulon, Oct. 18, 1793.*

ON the 14th of October, at eleven o'clock in the morning, I perceived the army of General Carteaux, to the Westward of Toulon, to be formed in a line, and advancing from the hills towards the redoubt of Malbousquet. The garrison of Toulon (leaving the necessary Guards and a small detachment to secure the tranquillity of the town) was marched out, to

the number of about 3000 men, to take a defensive position between the redoubts Malbouquet and St. Antoine, and behind the Riviere Neuve, a deep and dry canal lying North and South in front of those redoubts. Three bridges, which crossed the canal on the roads leading to Bouffan, Maufilles, and the village of Six Fours, had been broken by my orders soon after my arrival at Toulon. In this position we had not any view of the enemy, who were concealed by intermediate hills between their line and the plain occupied by the garrison of Toulon. I detached a Captain, with 70 British and 30 Piedmontese chasseurs, to a rising ground (the Hauteur des Arennes) beyond the Riviere Neuve, to discover the movements of the enemy, with orders to remain there till I should call them in, if they saw no considerable body; but to return immediately if the enemy appeared in force, and on no account to engage in any way with the enemy, so as to oblige me to march to their support, as it was not my intention to make any attack, or to come to action beyond the Riviere Neuve; the smallness of our numbers, the impossibility of carrying our field artillery across the canal, and the certain information I had received that the enemy had numerous batteries on the strong ground which they occupied, determined me to wait their attack (if they intended one) behind the Riviere Neuve, under the protection of the redoubts on the flanks of our position. Whilst the patrolle of 90 men proceeded to the hill pointed out to them, I was employed in forming the line of British and Piedmontese, and two battalions of Neapolitans, Messabia and Royal Naples; Brigadier Generals Squierdo and Pignatelli having gone to the left to place the remainder of the Neapolitans and the Spanish troops, and to order a patrolle (similar to that which I had sent out) to a hill, the Hauteur des Gands, in front of the left of our position. Before the line was completely formed, I heard the patrolle of British engaged in a heavy fire with the enemy, and saw small parties retreating: I sent immediately the whole of the Piedmontese chasseurs to support the patrolle and bring them off. The appearance of this reinforcement had the effect of animating the advanced soldiers of the British, who, in spite of the remonstrances of their officers, pressed forward upon the enemy. The Piedmontese followed their example; and, as I found the whole detachment were advancing upon the enemy, I was obliged to march out with 200 British,

three companies of the regiment de Piedmont, and half of each of the regiments of Neapolitan troops, leaving the remainder of my wing of the army to guard our position, and to check the enemy if they should press upon us on our return. The patrolle pushed on to a considerable distance, and had driven in all the advanced parties of the enemy before I could bring them off, which, however, was effected with no further loss than that which they had sustained in the rash but spirited enterprize of the soldiers, which obliged their officers to follow them to a distance of a mile and a half beyond the Riviere Neuve. The patrolle on the left, with which Brigadier Generals Squierdo and Pignatelli had proceeded, consisting of about 800 men, had gone forward near a mile to the Petite Garenne, and in sight of the intrenchment which the enemy had thrown up on the road to Olioulles. As this party had kept up a continued fire on the advanced corps of the enemy, I apprehended they might be in want of ammunition to make good their retreat; and, having regained La Hauteur des Arennes with my whole corps, I detached 100 British, 100 Piedmontese, and one of the half battalions of Neapolitans, to assist their retreat, who found them preparing to return to our line. The enemy, in all probability, expected an attack from us, which prevented their quitting their post to bring their whole force upon our small detachments, which had imprudently rushed forwards. Night coming on, the enemy (having probably lost several men from the vivacity with which they were pressed) retired to their camp without attempting any attack. The garrison marched back to Toulon about ten o'clock at night.

I have the honour to inclose you a return of the killed and wounded in this skirmish, in which I have only to regret the too great impetuosity of the troops of the patrolle, but have every reason to approve the judicious conduct of Lieutenant-Colonel Chevalier de Revels, and of Captain Wemyss and Lieutenant St. George, of the 11th regiment, under the circumstances which obliged them to go to so hazardous a distance from our post of defence.

On the 15th in the morning the unfortunate affair of Cape Le Brun took place: I send you a copy of Governor Elphinstone's report of this action to Vice-Admiral Lord Hood.

As soon as the report came to me of Cape Brun being attacked and requiring succour,

factour, I ordered the garrison picquet to turn out immediately, and the remainder of the troops to get under arms, and sent the report I had received to the General Officers commanding the foreign troops. Before the picquet of 100 men had got beyond the gate of the town, a report came of our troops having been repulsed from Cape Brun; that they had retired into fort La Malgue; and that the whole army of General La Poype had been marched from La Garde for the attack of Cape Brun, and were at that time in possession of it.

We marched out of the gate d'Italie as soon as the garrison could be collected under arms, consisting of the same numbers as the day before, with eight field-pieces and two 18 pounders, with the addition of 60 Spanish dragoons of 160, which landed on the 12th inst. (the remaining horses not being yet fit for service.)"

Having reconnoitred the situation of the enemy, I found they had abandoned Cape Brun, and had formed their whole force further to the Eastward, on the Hauteur le Pradel, with their left covered by the Castle St. Marguerite, which has two twelve-pounders pointed to the land side; their field pieces were distributed along the front of their line. It occurred to me, that the most safe and effectual mode of dislodging them from their strong post would be to march immediately forward, under the protection of the guns of our forts, on the side of Mount Faron, to proceed towards La Vallette, and strike off to the Hauteurs de Thouars, about a mile to the Eastward of La Vallette, and commanding La Garde at something more than a quarter of a mile distance from that village. It was my intention to occupy Thouars and La Garde, by which we should command the whole plain and the two great roads, one leading to Hieres, and passing to the Eastward of La Garde, the other passing through La Vallette, and leading to Souliers. Generals Squierdo and Pignatelli being of the same opinion with me, we proceeded on the road to La Vallette, leaving 140 men with two eighteen-pounders in that village (under the protection of the guns of Fort Faron) to mask the Vallon de Favieres, and prevent the enemy from sending reinforcements by that pass from their posts at Tounis and Le Reveft. At the commencement of our march the enemy expected an attack, and drew up their force; as we proceeded they appeared in some degree of hurry and confusion, and

at length quitted their post to march towards La Garde. Unfortunately, from an error of the guide, the Spanish troops which led the column were carried beyond the point at which they should have gained the Hauteurs de Thouars; and when the rear division of the column, composed of the British and Piedmontese troops, which was to have formed the left of the line, arrived at the foot of that hill, we found the advance formed with their right to the Hauteurs, and their left extending towards La Vallette. I immediately marched the British and Piedmontese troops to the top of the Hauteurs de Thouars, taking the right of our position; the Spanish and part of the Neapolitan troops came up on our left; Brigadier-General Pignatelli remaining with 350 men to keep up the communication with the corps posted at La Vallette. It was with great regret that I perceived the enemy (who had pressed their march rapidly) entering La Garde at the moment we possessed ourselves of the Hauteurs de Thouars. By the activity and exertions of Colonel Minichini of the Albanese Neapolitan corps, and Captain Collier, of the British Artillery, we got our field-pieces to the top of the hills, through very steep and difficult passages. The enemy made various movements, but without attempting any thing more than a cannonade from La Garde, which we returned, and dismounted one of their guns. When night set in, they began to remove with their artillery towards Hieres. I sent forward a patrolle, under Captain Moncrief of the 12th regiment, consisting of 100 British troops, a company of Piedmontese Grenadiers, and the Grenadier Company of the Spanish Swiss Regiment of Bechar, to find whether they had evacuated La Garde. This patrolle was fired upon by a strong rear guard, posted in vineyards and in the houses of the village, which cover the sides of a sugar loaf hill, the top of which is crowned by an old castle. The main object of our movement having been obtained, by the retreat of the enemy from the situation they had occupied in the morning near St. Marguerite, it would have been highly imprudent to have sacrificed any part of our small force, in the attack of a strong village, which we must of necessity have abandoned next morning. The troops having been much fatigued the day before, and having been left (by the mismanagement of the persons charged at Toulon with the supply of provisions) without any food till ten

o'clock at night, it was at that hour determined to march back into the town.

WHITEHALL, NOV. 15.

THIS morning Lord George Conway arrived here, with a dispatch from the Earl of Yarmouth, dated Fort Louis, Nov. 15, 1793, mentioning, that the siege of that place had been commenced by General Wurmsler on the 10th inst. and that the garrison had surrendered themselves prisoners of war, to the amount of 4000 men, on the 14th: 112 pieces of artillery of different sizes, 15 caissons, and a great number of live stock, are also in the possession of the Austrians. The loss on the part of the latter consisted in 24 men killed, and about 30 wounded.

Extract of a Letter from Sir James Murray to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, his Majesty's Principal Secretary of State for the Home Department, dated Tournay, Nov. 19. 1793.

UPON the 16th inst. Colonel Salis, with a part of the garrison of Ypres, marched against Poperinghuc, which the enemy had been in possession of for some time, and where they had the appearance of intending to establish themselves in force. They are, however, driven from that post, with the loss of 45 prisoners of which four are officers, one howitzer, and one tumbril, which were taken by Colonel Salis, without any loss on his part.

[Here end the GAZETTES.]

[FROM OTHER PAPERS]

Paris Nov. 7. A letter was read in the Convention, signed Parent, rector of Boissire la Bertrand, dated Nov. 4. The writer of this letter owns that religion is a mere imposture, and that, renouncing its tenets, he only means to preach henceforth the principles of republican morality.

The Convention, after a short debate between Sergent, Leonard-Bourdon and Thuriot, decreed honourable mention of Parent's letter.

ABJURATION OF THE ARCHBISHOP OF PARIS.

Gobet, the Archbishop of Paris, attended by his Vicar, also abjured his episcopal functions, and the religion of Christ.

(Loud cries of *Vive la Republique* resounded at this moment throughout the hall.)

The Archbishop was followed by the Rector Vangirard, and several other Priests; amongst others, by a Protestant Minister of the name of Julieu of Tholouse, a Member of the Convention, and many other Bishops, who imitated the apostacy of the Archbishop

of Paris, and were received with no less applause, and with the *civic lists* on the part of the President.

On the motion of Lindee, the Convention decreed that civic fetes shall henceforth be the fixed order of the day, in order to abolish all religious ceremonies.

David proposed, that a Colossal Monument be raised in the Hall of the Commonalty of Paris, to manifest the suppression of all religious worship. This Colossus is to bear upon its front the word Light; upon the breast, Nature and Truth; and upon the arms, Strength and Courage!

10. M. Bailly, the first Mayor of Paris, was condemned to suffer death.

Madame Roland, the wife of the famous minister of that name, having been arraigned before the Revolutionary Tribunal, gave such spirited and resolute answers, that her Judges silenced her, and accused her of disrespect to the Tribunal. One of the latter said to her: "Innocence shews itself with candour, and crime with impudence." Her Trial was very summary, and Madame Roland did not disown her connexions with Brissot, Vergniaux, and other deputies who have already suffered death.

Madame Roland received sentence of death, besides Citizen Lamarche, formerly Chief of the General Administration of Assignats.—Roland has since put an end to his life in a wood near Camps.

12. Sylvan Bailly, the first Mayor of Paris, was executed, pursuant to his sentence, on the Field of Federation, formerly called the Champ de Mars. The red flag, which was the signal of the massacre of the patriots, was tied to the cart's tail, and dragged in the mud.

16. General Houchard, Manuel, &c. a Member of the Convention, and General Brunet, at eleven o'clock in the morning, were conveyed in a cart from the Conciergerie, in Paris, to the Place de la Revolution.—Houchard preserved a fixed silence during the journey from the prison to the place of execution. He sometimes looked around on the people, who accompanied the procession in great numbers. Manuel evinced much firmness, and conversed during the whole journey with Brunet, who cast looks upon the people, who vented their indignation upon him and his companions. When the cart arrived at the Place de la Revolution, Manuel leaped first upon the scaffold, and seemed anxious that the fatal ceremony should be performed without the least delay. He placed himself on the plank without waiting to have his hands tied behind him, and, disdaining any assistance, fixed his head under the machine. He was executed first. Brunet, the former General of the Army of Italy, looked at the instrument

instrument of death with a smile of contempt, and laid his head down with great tranquillity. Houchard displayed equal fortitude.— On the same day, Cussi, one of the Deputies of the Convention, who had been outlawed, was also executed.

REPORT FROM THE CITY OF LYONS.

24. The National Commissioners of Lyons, Fouche and Collet d'Herbois (the Comedian,) have ordered,

1. That all the Public Edifices which can be destroyed by undermining or by fire, shall be immediately marked out for destruction.
2. That every thief or robber shall be tied to a stake, with this inscription in large letters, *Muscadin (sep, or petit maître)*, on his breast.
3. That whoever shall occasion the slightest commotion, or will favour it by exclamations or threats, shall be tried by the Popular Tribunal as a Counter-Revolutionist.
4. That all infirm Citizens, and aged Men, shall be maintained, lodged, and found in cloaths at the expence of the rich inhabitants of their Cantons.
5. That every mendicant or idler shall be confined.
6. That in order to procure work for such as are willing and able, there shall be levied in every Commune a Revolutionary tax on the rich, in proportion to their fortune and to their incivism (disaffection).
7. That all suspected persons shall be imprisoned until the conclusion of the War, and that nothing shall be left with them but what is barely necessary.
8. That all Bakers shall be obliged to bake only one sort of bread, to be called Equality Bread.

Chaumette praised the people of Paris who have renounced idolatry, and only adore the Supreme Being; but he was apprehensive lest the Clergy should still enslave the good Citizens.

He moved the Council to declare, that if any commotion is stirred up in favour of fanaticism, all the Clergy shall be imprisoned. (Applauded.) And considering, that the people of Paris have declared, that they acknowledge no other worship than that of reason and truth—the Council resolves:

1. That all the churches and temples of different religious worship which are known to be in Paris, shall be instantly shut.
2. That whatever troubles may ensue in Paris in consequence of religious motives, the priests and ministers of the different religions shall each be particularly responsible.
3. That every person requiring the opening

of a church, or temple, shall be put under arrest as a suspected person.

4. That the Revolutionary Committee are invited to have a watchful eye over the clergy of every denomination.

Dec. 3. Barnave, late Member of the Constituent Assembly, was executed the day before yesterday, with Dupont Dutertré, the late Minister of Justice, and four other condemned victims, on the Square of the Revolution. They heard their sentence pronounced with great intrepidity. Immediately after, Dupont began to harangue the Tribunal and the spectators; but he had no sooner uttered the word Citizens, than Barnave interrupted him, exclaiming, "Citizens, Revolutions kill men, but posterity will judge them." The audience immediately drowned his voice with the shouts of *Vive la République!*

Dupont Dutertré preserved his heroic fortitude till his last moment; but it was quite otherwise with Barnave, who, on ascending the scaffold, exclaimed, in a faltering tone of voice, "Citizens, I die innocent." His limbs trembled with fear at the aspect of the fatal axe, and they were forced to pull him to the plank or board to be tied. It was then that he cried, "Long live the Nation; long live Religion." Barnave died in his 32d, and Dupont in his 39th year.

5. The famous Rabaut de St. Etienne, Member of the Convention, and the Author of "The Sketch of the French Revolution," was arrested yesterday in the street Poissonniere, and this day, according to the usual summary mode of proceeding adopted by the Revolutionary Tribunal, finished his career by the guillotine. Servan, late Minister of Justice, has been carried to the Abbaye.

Letters from Switzerland bring the melancholy intelligence, that Lord Montague (whose fine seat in Suffex was lately destroyed by fire), in company with Sedley Burdet, Esq. grandson of Sir Robert Burdet, Bart. attempting to cross the Rhine below the Lake of Constance, their boat was hurried down by the impetuosity of the current, and being dashed against the rocks, all on board were lost.

The nickname of *Carmagnols* applied so often to the French in the London papers has its rise from a favourite dance, in which the common people take great delight. They join hands and dance in a circular motion to a very lively tune.—During the late massacres, the mob in Paris diverted themselves with sticking the head of some wretched Aristocrat on the top of a pike fixed in the ground, and dancing the Carmagnol round it. Hence the name of *Carmagnols* is applied to the whole nation.

NEW FRENCH CALENDAR.

FOR THE PRESENT YEAR, COMMENCING 22D SEPTEMBER.

<i>New French Names of the Months.</i>	<i>English.</i>	<i>Term.</i>	<i>Duration. days.</i>
AUTUMN.			
<i>Vindemaire</i>	Vintage Month	fr. Sept. 22 to Oct. 21 incl.	30
<i>Brumaire</i>	Fog Month	—Oct. 22 to Nov. 20	30
<i>Frimaire</i>	Sleet Month	—Nov. 21 to Dec. 20	30
WINTER.			
<i>Nivôse</i>	Snow Month	—Dec. 21 to Jan. 19	30
<i>Pluviose</i>	Rain Month	—Jan. 20 to Feb. 18	30
<i>Ventose</i>	Wind Month	—Feb. 19 to Mar. 20	30
SPRING.			
<i>Germinal</i>	Sprouts Month	—Mar. 21 to April 19	30
<i>Floreéal</i>	Flowers Month	—April 20 to May 19	30
<i>Priairéal</i>	Pasture Month	—May 20 to June 18	30
SUMMER.			
<i>Messidor</i>	Harvest Month	—June 19 to July 18	30
<i>Fervidor</i>	Hot Month	—July 19 to Aug. 17	30
<i>Fructidor</i>	Fruit Month	—Aug. 18 to Sept. 16	30
SANS CULLOTIDES, as Feasts dedicated to			
<i>Les Vertus</i>	The Virtues	Sept. 17	1
<i>Le Génie</i>	Genius	Sept. 18	1
<i>Le Travail</i>	Labour	Sept. 19	1
<i>L'Opinion</i>	Opinion	Sept. 20	1
<i>Les Récompenses</i>	Rewards	Sept. 21	1

365

The intercalary day of every fourth year is to be called

LA SANS CULLOTIDE,

on which there is to be a national renovation of their oath, *To live Free or Die.*

The month is divided into three DECADES, the days of which are called, from the Latin numerals,

- | | | |
|---|-------------|----------------|
| 1. Primidi | 4. Quartidi | 7. Septidi |
| 2. Duodi | 5. Quintidi | 8. Octodi |
| 3. Tridi | 6. Sextidi | 9. Nonodi, and |
| 10. Decadi, which is to be the day of rest. | | |

N. B. A corresponding Calendar for all the days of the year may be made from the above sketch.

DOMESTIC INTELLIGENCE.

BIRMINGHAM, *October 23.*

THE peace of this place has again been disturbed, as follows:—Mr. Barrs, linen-draper, one of our constables, called on a person named Wood, who keeps a little Hackster's shop in Lichfield-street, for payment of the quota he had been assessed towards the rate for reimbursing the sufferers by the riots in 1791. He pleaded his poverty, but, on the constable telling him he knew he was able to pay, and that if he persisted in his refusal, he must ditrain his goods, Wood swore an horrible oath, that if he touched a stick of his property, he would murder him, drawing at the same time a long carving knife. The constable, alarmed for his safety, prudently retired for further succour. In the

mean time, Wood, to inflame and exasperate a large mob, which had now assembled about his door, represented the rate as a grievous imposition, and the constable as excessively cruel and arbitrary in collecting it.

The incensed mob, after parading the street with shouts and huzzas, proceeded to Mr. Barrs' house in Temple-row, where they began to throw stones, &c. at the doors and windows, the latter of which they totally demolished. An order was sent to the barracks for the troops, on whose arrival the mob took shelter in the church-yard adjacent, from whence, with stones and other things, they insulted and greatly annoyed the troops. The church-yard gates being thrown open, the military rode in amongst the mob; and though the

the horses were much incommoded, and some a good deal injured by the tomb-stones, they dispersed the mob about four o'clock in the morning, many of whom, in the affray, were dangerously wounded; one was killed, and about thirty taken into custody, and lodged in the dungeon.

Next morning an express was dispatched to Wolverhampton for two troops of dragoons quartered there. They arrived very opportunely about seven in the evening, just as the mob were proceeding to the dungeon to enlarge their confederates. The prison was assailed with great fury, with large stones, brickbats, &c. but the keeper and his assistants within made a vigorous defence, by firing on the mob, one of whom was killed, and several dangerously wounded. A party of the military, however, arriving, the mob took to flight immediately, and the town was again restored to peace and security.

Nov. 2. A young man, who said he came from two persons who had failed at the Stock Exchange in August last, went to Mr. Martin, a reputable stock-broker, and desired him to sell out 16,000*l.* 3 per cent. scrip for them. He hesitated to do the business, as he was a stranger; and asked if he knew any person in the room; he mentioned Mr. Lyons, a broker, who was just come in; on which Mr. M. asked Mr. Lyons, who said he knew him very well. Mr. M. sold one 10,000*l.* of it that day, and received the money, but through some mistake did not meet the young man afterwards.

On Monday morning he called on Mr. Martin, who lives in the neighbourhood of Hackney, for the money; but being informed that the whole was not disposed of, it was agreed, as Monday and Tuesday were holidays, he would pay him the whole together on Wednesday.

Mr. Martin happening to be at Garraway's on Tuesday, sold the remainder there; but the person who bought it observing, that though Messrs. Thelluson's name was indorsed on the back of the receipts, the inside was left blank, thought it very irregular, and advised its being checked at the Bank before he paid the money. When Mr. Martin went thither, the whole was found to be a forgery. [Lyons and his sister (*who personated the young man*), have been since apprehended, and committed to different prisons for Trial.]

The melancholy intelligence respecting the plague which rages in Philadelphia, is confirmed by official notice, signed by Governor Clinton. By a private letter there is information, that Philadelphia is nearly depopulated. Upwards of 5,000 of the inhabitants have fled from thence, to avoid the plague, which raged with such violence subsequent to

the 27th of last September, that upwards of 500 persons died in the course of three days. All business had subsided when the last accounts left Philadelphia.

The yellow fever, which rages with such violence at Philadelphia, has appeared also in St. Kitts. The ninth regiment, on duty in that island, have lost by it several officers.

27. In the Court of King's Bench, Mr. Holt, printer of the Newark Herald, found guilty, on two indictments, for printing and publishing two libels; the first intitled "An Address to the Addressers," and the second "An Address to the Tradesmen, Mechanics and Labourers of Newark, on a Parliamentary Reform," was sentenced for the first offence to pay 50*l.* to the King, and be imprisoned in his Majesty's gaol of Newgate for the space of two years; for the second offence to pay a fine of 50*l.* to the King, and be imprisoned in his Majesty's gaol of Newgate for the space of two years, to be computed from the expiration of the last imprisonment, and to find security for his good behaviour for the term of five years, himself in 200*l.* and two sureties in 150*l.* each.—Mr. Holt was immediately taken into custody.

The same day the Rev. Wm. Winterbottom, found guilty of preaching two seditious sermons, was sentenced for the first offence to pay a fine of 100*l.* to the King, and to be imprisoned in the New Prison in Clerkenwell, in the county of Middlesex, for the term of two years; for the second offence to pay a fine of 100*l.* to the King, and to be imprisoned in the New Prison in Clerkenwell for the term of two years, to be computed after the expiration of the first imprisonment, and at the end of his imprisonment, to give security for his good behaviour for the term of five years, himself in 500*l.* and two sureties in 250*l.* each.

Dec. 2. In the afternoon, about five o'clock, a dreadful fire broke out at Hoare's wharf, Hermitage-bridge, Wapping, which entirely consumed the warehouses, besides four or five adjoining houses, amongst which was the Cannon public-house; two large vessels that lay along-side the wharf, and some craft that were in the dock, were also consumed.—The flames spread with such rapidity, that in the space of two hours nothing appeared of the buildings but empty shells. It is reported, that it commenced through some negligence in the counting-house. The damage done cannot yet be ascertained, but must be very great. At eight o'clock the flames were so far got under that no further mischief was apprehended.—Though the tide was ebbing, there appeared no complaint of a want of water.

8. In the morning, on the turnkey's opening the condemned cell in which Jones, who committed the robbery in Hatton Garden on the banker's clerk, and who was to have been executed on Wednesday, was confined, he found him suspended by his neck with his knee-strings, which were fastened to the iron bars of the window. On Monday the coroner's jury, having examined the body, pronounced a verdict of *felo de se*.

In consequence of the above verdict, the body was, on Wednesday morning, carried out of Newgate, extended upon a plank on the top of an open cart, in his clothes, and fettered, his face covered with a white cloth, to the brow of Holborn-hill, nearly opposite the end of Hatton Garden. The procession was attended by the sheriffs, city marshals, and near 500 constables. Being arrived at what may be called the place of execution, the body was deposited in a very deep pit,

and a stake driven through it, according to the coroner's verdict. The concourse of populace on this occasion was very great.

10. Sir James Marriott pronounced the following Provisional Decree:—That the St. Jago shall be restored to his Catholic Majesty, and the Spanish subjects, the claimants; and that one-eighth of the true value (the expences of the proceedings on both sides being first deducted from the general mass) shall be paid for salvage; provided that within six months it shall be declared by his Catholic Majesty, by some public act, that ships and cargoes, being the property of British subjects, which have been or shall be recaptured by the ships of war of his Catholic Majesty, or Spanish privateers, shall be restored to his Majesty and to British subjects their proprietors, in like manner; otherwise the said ship and cargo are condemned as good and lawful prize to the captors.

MONTHLY OBITUARY for DECEMBER 1793.

AUGUST.

AT New-York, Mr. Dubellamy, formerly of Covent-Garden Theatre. His real name was Evans.

NOVEMBER 2. Robert Gordon, esq. of Hallhead, at Elstemon House.

3. Robert Turner, esq. sheriff-substitute of Aberdeenshire.

4. Mynheer Justus Beot, Vice-Admiral of Holland and West-Friesland.

At Bath, Henry Hatton, esq. of Clonard, in the county of Wexford.

At Newton, near Straven, in his 93d year, James Granger, esq. of Pricetgill.

11. Mungo Campbell, esq. of Hundleshope, at Edinburgh.

14. At Oswestry, the Honourable Mr. Baron Hamilton, of the Court of Exchequer in Ireland.

Mr. Angus Macpherson, Edinburgh.

At Dr. cott-Hall, Derbyshire, William Evans, esq. aged 62 years.

Lately, in the West-Indies, Counsellor Charles McCarthy.

16. At St. Stephens, near Canterbury, William Dredes, esq. chairman of the quarter sessions for the eastern part of the county of Kent, in his 60th year.

At Plymouth, J. Inman, esq. aged 68.

At the Moat, near Maidstone, the Right Honourable Robert Martham, Lord Romney, of Romney, in the county of Kent, LL.D. F. R. S. president of the Marine Society. He was born Aug. 22. 1743.

Lately, in Panton-street, Mr. Thomas Bellamy, aged 74.

Lately, at the Hague, the Countess Dowager Bentinck.

Lately, at Temps, near Swepstone, Leicestershire, Robert Bakewell, esq. barrister at law, senior member of the Middle Temple, and some time recorder of Leicester.

Lately, at Salisbury, Mr. Peter Crawford, late of Cold-bath fields, and formerly a proprietor of the Opera-house.

20. At Pimlico, Frederick Amelia Palmer, esq. late one of the pages of the backstairs to his Majesty.

Thomas Webster, esq. of Organ-hall, near Shenley, Herts.

Lately, Mr. Sharp, bookseller, of Warwick.

21. At Kingsbury, in Warwickshire, the Rev. Hugh Smith, son of the late Dr. Hugh Smith, of Hatton-garden.

Mr. Christopher William Hunneman, of Frith-street, Soho, miniature-painter.

22. At Dover, Captain Blackwood, late of the 19th regiment.

The Right Honourable Peter Lord King, baron of Ockham, in Surrey.

Mr. James Fawcett, attorney, at Kirkby-Stephen, Westmoreland.

23. Michael Russell, esq. of the Victualling office, Dover, in his 82d year.

At Dean, near Winterflow, Mr. Richard Bloxham, an eminent land-surveyor.

Lately,

Lately, Jeremiah Gilpin, A. M. vicar of Bolton, and chaplain to Lord Hawkebury.

24. Mrs. Webb, of Covent-Garden-Theatre

25. Mrs. Jane Wells, of Beaufort-buildings.

27. In Harley-street, John Balchen West, esq.

Lady Harriet Conyers, mother of John Conyers, esq. of Copped-hall, Essex.

At Sevenoaks, William Pouncy, esq. late commander of the Sullivan East-India-man.

At Islington, the Rev. George Marriott, rector of Twistead in Essex, and Lecturer of St. Luke's, Old-street. He was author of,

The Primate, An Ode written in Sweden. 4to. 1767.

The Birth of the Jesuit. A Poem in 3 Books. 4to. 1768.

Two Sermons on the Mortality of Mankind. 8vo. 1770.

Human Life a State of Pilgrimage. A Farewell Sermon preached at Hackney, March 14, 1773. 4to. 1773.

Three Lectures theological and critical. 1. On Misrepresentations of the Incomprehensibility of God. 2. On the Parable erroneously called the relapsing Demoniac. 3. On the Evangelical Spirit. 4to. 1772.

The Jesuit. An Allegorical Poem, with Airs and Chorusses as rehearsed after the Example of Ancient Bards and Minstrels. By the Author. 4to. 1773.

The Preservation of Moses on the Ark of Bulrushes symbolically explained at Christ-Church, Middlesex, Sept. 25, 1774. 4to. 1774.

Considerations (in residue) on the State intermediate, or first future Revolution of Being. Three Sermons preached at St. Giles's, Cripplegate, and St. Luke, Old-street, soon after the death of Dr. William Nichols. 8vo. 1775.

Judgment begun in the House of God to be finished on its Enemies. A Sermon preached in Duke-street Chapel, Westminster. 4to. 1776.

Mr. Marriott had been Chaplain at Sweden.

28. George Savage, esq. at Middlehill, in the commission of the peace for Gloucestershire, and lieutenant-colonel of the South battalion of militia of that county.

Lately, Francis Creed, esq. late captain of the 68th regiment of foot.

29. James Scott, esq. of Hammersmith. Maurice Goulbourn, esq. of Portland-place.

Lately, at Southwick, Hants, Mr. Oakshutt, timber-merchant.

Francis Brydges, esq. at Tiberton, Herefordshire.

DECEMBER 1. At Bath, Lady Aylmer, relict of the late Sir Gerald Aylmer, dec.

Mr. William Owen, bookseller, Fleet-street.

At Great Berkhamstead, the Rev. George Harry Chitty, late rector of Upper Winchendon, near Aylesbury.

Lately, in Granby-row, Dublin, William Deane, esq. LL.D. and member of the Royal Irish Academy.

2. John Buller, esq. one of the commissioners of the excise, and elder brother of Sir Francis Buller, a justice of the king's bench.

3. T. F. Buxton, esq. Earl's Colne, Essex.

At Wells, Richard Gould, esq. brother of Judge Gould,

Mr. Charles Grojan, eldest son of Mr. Grojan, of Vine-street, Piccadilly.

Lately, at Quorndon, in Leicestershire, Captain Farnshaw, of the Royal Navy, brother to the Counts of Denbigh.

4. At Spalding, Lincolnshire, Colonel Maurice Johnson, aged 89. formerly of the first regiment of foot-guards.

At Swansea, John Dalbiac, esq. Mr. William King, second son of Vice-Admiral King.

5. At Bristol, the Rev. Mr. Stonehouse, some time since rector of Islington, which he resigned, and lived in retirement.

Lady Hart, mistress of the king's household.

6. Mr. Kirkes Townley, in Cross-lane, St. Mary-hill, aged 77.

At Well-Wycombe, Sir John Dashwood, bart. in his 78th year.

7. In Somerset-street, Le Comte Fontaine, formerly Ambassador from the King of Sardinia to the Court of Spain.

Nathan Wright, sq. formerly of Brooksby, in the county of Leicester.

At Pourck, Worcestershire, the Rev. Primatt Knapp, late rector of Shenley, Bucks.

8. Abraham Davis, esq. at Portsmouth. At Shredding-green, Iver, Bucks, Thomas Colborne, esq. one of the justices of peace for that county.

Mr. Francis Const, Villiers-street, Strand.

Mr. Craven, Monument-yard.

Lately, Robert Norman, esq. near Staines.

9. At Gosport, Mr. Dodd, first surgeon in Haslar-hospital.

Daniel Richard, esq. of Waddon.

John Wadman, esq. of Imber, Wilts.

10. William Mellish, esq. late of Gray's-inn.

At Kingston, Mr. William Callaway, town-clerk of that place.

12. In Charlotte-street, Major Gascoigne, one of his majesty's justices of the police.

The 3d inst. at Vienna, the Duchess de Polignac.



EACH DAY'S PRICE OF STOCKS IN DECEMBER 1793.

Comm. Excheq. Bills.

	Bank Stock	3perCt reduc.	per Ct. Confols.	3perCt Scrip.	perCt 1777.	perCt Ann. 1777.	Long Ann.	Ditto, 1778.	S. Sea Stock.	Old Ann.	New Ann.	3perCt 1751.	India Stock.	India Scrip.	India Bonds.	New Navy.	Exche. Bills.	Dec. 31 1793	Mar. 31 1794.	June 30 1794.
1	167 $\frac{1}{4}$	74 $\frac{1}{4}$	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		89	107 $\frac{1}{4}$	215 16	99-16									12s. pr.			
2	Sunday																			
25	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	4 $\frac{3}{4}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{4}$	108	21 $\frac{3}{8}$	99-16					210		25 pr.	9 $\frac{1}{8}$ dif.				
26	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{2}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	217 16	99-16					210 $\frac{1}{4}$		25 pr.	9 $\frac{1}{8}$				
27	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{2}$	108	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	99-16					210 $\frac{1}{2}$		25 pr.	9 $\frac{1}{8}$	13s. pr.			
28	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		89	108 $\frac{1}{4}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	99-16					210 $\frac{1}{4}$		24 p.	9 $\frac{1}{8}$				
29	168 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{1}{2}$		90 $\frac{1}{4}$	109 $\frac{1}{4}$		911-16		74 $\frac{1}{2}$						9 $\frac{1}{8}$				
30	Sunday																			
1	169 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{5}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$		90	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	911-16								8 $\frac{7}{8}$				
2	169 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{5}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$		90 $\frac{1}{4}$	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	219 16	9			74					8 $\frac{1}{4}$	18s. pr.			
3	169 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{5}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$		90	109 $\frac{1}{2}$	219 16	9	79 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{1}{2}$			209 $\frac{1}{4}$		29 pr.	8	20s. pr.			
4	168 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{5}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$		90	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	9					210		29 pr.	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	19s. pr.			
5	168 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{5}{8}$ a $\frac{1}{4}$		89 $\frac{3}{4}$	108 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	911-16							28 pr.	7 $\frac{3}{8}$				
6		74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		90	108 $\frac{1}{4}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	9							28 pr.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	15s. pr.			
7		74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		90	108 $\frac{1}{4}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	9								7 $\frac{1}{2}$				
8	Sunday																			
9		74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{5}{8}$	108 $\frac{3}{8}$	21 $\frac{3}{8}$	9					209 $\frac{1}{4}$		13 pr.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$				
10		74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{4}$		21	9								7 $\frac{1}{2}$	12s. pr.			
11		74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{2}$		21	9					209 $\frac{1}{4}$		25 pr.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$				
12	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89		21 $\frac{1}{2}$	9					209 $\frac{1}{4}$		25 pr.	7 $\frac{1}{2}$				
13	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89		217-16	911-16							24 pr.	8				
14	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{4}$		217-16	911-16					210 $\frac{3}{4}$			8	11s. pr.			
15	Sunday																			
16	168	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a 7 $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{3}{4}$		21 $\frac{3}{8}$	9 $\frac{3}{8}$							22 pr.	8 $\frac{1}{4}$				
17		74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{4}$		217-16	911-16					210 $\frac{1}{2}$			8 $\frac{1}{4}$	12s. pr.			
18	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{2}$		22 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$		73 $\frac{7}{8}$			209 $\frac{1}{4}$							
19	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89		21 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$					21 $\frac{1}{4}$		20 pr.	8 $\frac{1}{4}$				
20	167 $\frac{1}{2}$	74 $\frac{3}{4}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$ a $\frac{5}{8}$		89 $\frac{1}{2}$		21 $\frac{1}{4}$	9								8 $\frac{1}{4}$				

N. B. In the 3 per Cent. Confols the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in the other Stocks the highest Price only.